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**Understanding the negative
emotions, consumer complaint
behaviour responses and social
dynamics occurring during
dissatisfactory incidents in
restaurants**

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PhD

2018

**Understanding the negative
emotions, consumer complaint
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Abstract

This thesis investigates how the social dynamics that naturally occur during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the consumer complaint behaviour process. It further explores what negative emotions consumers experience, how they respond to such dissatisfactory incidents and what stimulates these emotions and responses.

Consumer complaint behaviour (CCB) in services is a complex and dynamic process and not a static phenomenon. The emotions and responses are the result of the ongoing evaluations consumers undertake and the continuous human interactions occurring. Although the literature acknowledges the influence of service providers on the CCB responses and negative emotions, little is known about how other customers impact the CCB process.

Furthermore, much of the existing research on CCB has been undertaken using purely quantitative approaches that tend to focus on hypothetical scenarios and the measurement of behavioural intentions. This has meant a failing to understand the actual behaviour of the participant, to explore dissatisfying incidents holistically and within their contextual natural settings and to capture the social dynamics and interactions.

This thesis has addressed these limitations and assumed a social constructionist paradigm and followed an interpretivist approach. The methodology draws upon the principles of critical incident technique and is multi-method over two phases: qualitative research diaries followed by semi-structured interviews. A total of 20 semi-structured interviews were conducted with Lebanese consumers who shared their subjective accounts of the dissatisfactory incidents they recently experienced in restaurants. The data from the interviews was analysed using template analysis.

The findings show that the CCB process within a restaurant context has a social dimension. The continuous human interactions between the consumer, service provider and other customers throughout the dining occasion influence the service failure, cognitive appraisal, negative emotions and CCB responses both directly and indirectly. Furthermore, negative emotions such as feeling fed up and disgust are experienced following a restaurant dissatisfactory incident. The findings also demonstrate that some CCB responses have different variants depending on the context, for example exit and negative word of mouth. Additionally, the findings identified what stimulates both the negative emotions and CCB responses.

This study advances the understanding of CCB within services and restaurants in particular by explaining the impact of social dynamics on the CCB process. It presents a model that acknowledges this social aspect and demonstrates its influences. Furthermore it identifies a broad range of negative emotions and CCB responses specific to restaurant dissatisfactory incidents and elaborates on what stimulates them. This study draws attention to the importance of studying CCB in services using an interpretivist approach, as it will result in an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon.

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Declaration

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and that it is all my own work. I also confirm that this work fully acknowledges opinions, ideas and contributions from the work of others.

Any ethical clearance for the research presented in this thesis has been approved. Approval has been sought and granted by the University Ethics Committee on 31 May 2013.

I declare that the Word Count of this Thesis is 85,321 words

Name: Hiba Ghattas Koussaifi

Signature:

Date: 25 January 2018

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter provides an introduction to the overall thesis. It starts by discussing the reasons for selecting this topic followed by briefly introducing restaurant and service failures, theories of consumer dissatisfaction, negative emotions and consumer complaint behaviour (CCB) that form the key theoretical basis of this thesis and help set the context of the study. It also outlines the research aim and objectives and introduces the research questions. This chapter discusses the intended contribution to knowledge offered by this thesis and presents an overview of the thesis structure.

1.2 Reasons for topic selection

Since the 1970s interest in investigating and exploring the CCB phenomenon has been growing both in academic and managerial research. Understanding the causes of complaint behaviour and responses to dissatisfaction helps organisations identify problems, design better service and product offerings and foster a long-term relationship with customers (Kim, Kim, Im, & Shin, 2003; Tronvoll, 2008). Gursoy, McCleary, and Lepsito (2007) refer to complaints as moments of truth that managers should benefit from to tighten their relationship with customers, increase customer satisfaction and make them loyal to their business (Petzer & Mostert, 2012; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006). Hence, there is a strong relationship between CCB, satisfaction, retention and profitability (Bodey & Grace, 2006).

The broad body of CCB research has focused on two main streams: classifying the responses to dissatisfaction (e.g. Day, 1980; Day & Landon, 1977; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988) and identifying the antecedents for complaining behaviour (e.g. Boling, 1989; Day, 1984; Singh, 1990a). Based on these two streams, a number of theoretical models that explain the CCB process have been developed (e.g. Boote, 1998; Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Crie, 2003; Singh, 1988; Stephens & Gwinner, 1998).

Despite this, and because of the dominating methodological tradition of following a positivist approach when researching CCB, these studies failed to understand the actual behaviours of dissatisfied consumers and instead measured behaviours using behavioural intentions. For example, Cheng, Lam, and Hsu (2005) explain that their study's main limitation is measuring intentions rather than actual behaviours. They further elaborate that behavioural intentions are not necessarily a '*true reflection*' of actual future behaviours. Similarly, Gursoy et al., (2007) point out that using intentions rather than actual behaviours to study CCB is a primary limitation to their study. Intentions do not always predict future behaviours. In real situations, dissatisfied consumers might be influenced by unseen factors and/or use information they were unaware of when reporting their intentions. In a more recent study, Kim, Lee, and Mattila (2014) challenge the validity of using scenario-based experiments when studying CCB in services. They note that in service contexts when there is interaction between the consumer and the service provider, research should be conducted in natural settings that allow for capturing the actual behaviours although it could be methodologically complex.

Therefore, in order to extend knowledge regarding CCB in general, gain new insights and uncover aspects that could not be captured with methods traditionally used, there is a need to explore this phenomenon from a new perspective. It is important to develop a holistic understanding of a dissatisfying encounter within its natural setting; understand the circumstances as perceived by the consumer, what she/he felt, the actual responses she/he took and listen to the consumer's subjective accounts and what could have influenced these responses and emotions.

Furthermore, unlike a product, a service is the result of ongoing interactions between a service provider and a customer. A service failure and afterwards a complaint are components of the overall service interaction (Tronvoll, 2007). Thus CCB within a service context should be examined as a process and not a 'static phenomenon'. It is a sequential process involving multi-evaluations of the situation over time and throughout the episode and continuous interactions between the consumer, the service provider and elements in the atmosphere (Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Sharma, Marshall, Alan Reday, & Na, 2010; Tronvoll,

2007). This makes understanding CCB in services appear to be a complex phenomenon worthy of research.

Restaurants are a major industry in the service sector. They are in every street, town, city and country. As per *The Nielsen Global Out-of-Home Dining Survey* published in August 2016, globally consumers are eating out more. They found that 48% of their global respondents eat out weekly or more often (Nielsen, 2016). Additionally, in the US this industry is considered a huge component of the economy constituting 4% of the national GDP (National Restaurant Association, 2017). In the UK the trend of eating out is continually growing. In a recent report published by Fleet Street Communications (2016) one third of the respondents reported eating out at least once a week on average. In the UK and in the past decade more than 8,000 restaurants and pubs opened with 2,000 opening alone between April 2014 and April 2015 (CGA Peach as cited in Fleet Street Communications, 2016).

These figures appear to indicate that globally people are eating out in restaurants frequently and that the restaurant industry is a key player in national economies. Also these figures imply that the growth of this sector brings with it competition among restaurants and the endeavour of restaurant managers to achieve a high level of customer satisfaction (Kim et al., 2003).

However, having satisfied customers and a perfect service all the time is near impossible in restaurants. The restaurant experience is multi-dimensional. It involves the food served, the service, the atmosphere and the social interactions (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004). An incident in any of these elements may be perceived as a service failure and lead to dissatisfaction. Furthermore, it is a '*people-intensive*' sector where the human factor is central to the service creation (Palmer, Beggs, & Keown-McMullan, 2000) making it heterogeneous and vulnerable to failures (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1985). Additionally, a meal at a table service restaurant consists of different stages and mistakes can occur at any of these stages (Lemmink, de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 1998; Namkung, Jang, & Choi, 2011). Also, consumers in table service restaurants do not experience the service alone; they interact with other customer (dining with them on the same table or in the restaurant) and the

service provider (Colm, Ordanini, & Parasuraman, 2017). These interactions influence the service experience and satisfaction (Zhang, Beatty, & Mothersbaugh, 2010).

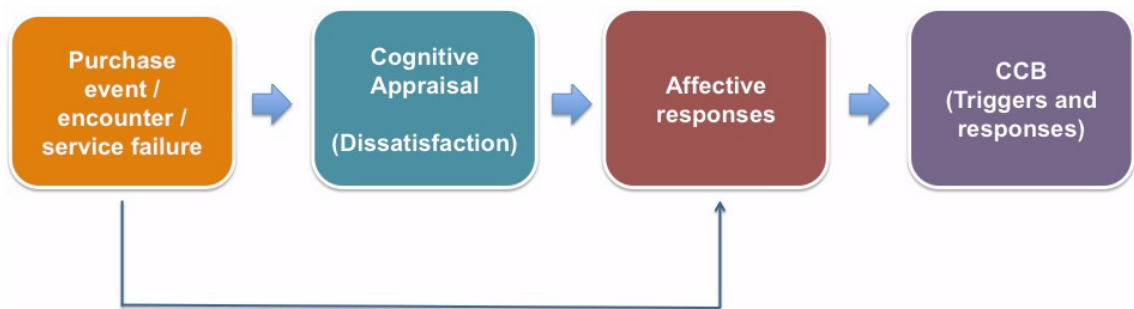
The above-mentioned factors make it important for restaurant managers to listen to what dissatisfied consumers have to say about their experiences and try to resolve associated problems. Service failures that are inevitable in restaurants might lead to dissatisfaction; elicit negative emotions and affect post-consumption behaviours including CCB. Complaints are a second chance for an organisation “to convert customer dissatisfaction into satisfaction, trust and confidence” (Kim, & Chen, 2010; p.97). Once a service failure occurs an efficient handling of the complaint and recovering of the problem has proven to make the dissatisfied customer a loyal one (Gursev et al., 2007; Susskind, 2005). As explained earlier satisfaction, loyalty and profitability are related. Therefore, a holistic understanding of these issues in a natural setting and from a new perspective would not only extend the knowledge about CCB in restaurants in particular but be of great practical value for restaurant managers.

On a personal level, the researcher has gained interest in this topic while volunteering on an awareness campaign regarding eating-out food safety in Lebanon. During the time of the campaign the researcher interacted with consumers who experienced dissatisfying incidents in restaurants such as finding foreign objects in food or suffering from food poisoning. These consumers, however, did not voice their complaints nor take any third party action. These incidents intrigued the researcher to look more into CCB in restaurants and understand this phenomenon and explore its elements and determinants.

1.3 Context of the research

CCB models commonly involve the following elements (as shown in Figure 1): the service failure or dissatisfying encounter/purchase, the cognitive appraisal of the event (dissatisfaction), the affective response (negative emotions) and CCB triggers and responses.

Figure 1: Main elements of CCB models



Therefore the four main areas of literature that support this study are: (1) restaurants and service failures, (2) consumer dissatisfaction models, (3) negative emotions and (4) consumer complaint behaviour. This section will briefly introduce them. They will be reviewed critically in detail in Chapters Two and Three, forming the extensive literature review.

1.3.1 Area one: Restaurants and service failures

The broad focus of this thesis is to explore CCB within restaurants. Therefore understanding the uniqueness of restaurants and the service failures relevant to this sector is central to developing the context of this thesis.

A restaurant experience is multidimensional and complex in nature; it involves direct human interaction, production and consumption of the services provided occur simultaneously, the experience consists of multiple stages and is influenced by a number of personal, situational or environmental factors that can be uncontrollable (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; McQuilken & Robertson, 2013; Ozdemir, Caliskan, & Yilmaz, 2015). Besides the food and interior of the restaurant, the attitude and behaviour of the service providers and the other customers influence customer satisfaction (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004). These aspects make it unlikely for restaurant managers to avoid service failures and not have dissatisfied customers.

“Service failures, in general, refer to any aspect of the service resulting in customer dissatisfaction” (Chang, Khan, & Tsai, 2012, p. 602). As early as the 1990s, a number of studies were conducted to identify the most common failures that occur in restaurants. Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault (1990)

suggested that the source of dissatisfaction is not the event by itself but the response of the front line employee. Others classified service failures as food (product), service (process and people) and environment (physical evidence) related (e.g. Loo, Boo, & Khoo-Lattimore, 2013; Ozdemir et al., 2015; Su & Bowen, 2001).

Service failures in restaurants can stimulate dissatisfaction, negative emotions and complaint behaviours. Hence, they initiate the CCB process and thus it is essential to understand them. Furthermore, the peculiar characteristics and complexities of restaurants and the fact that service failures cannot be avoided make studying CCB within a restaurant context a promising area for research.

1.3.2 Area two: Consumer dissatisfaction models

The satisfaction/dissatisfaction literature identifies a number of appraisal models that explain and conceptualise consumer dissatisfaction. However, this thesis will only discuss and review expectation-disconfirmation, attribution and equity models that are most relevant to CCB and frequently referred to in the CCB literature (Boote, 1998).

Within the expectation-disconfirmation paradigm, dissatisfaction is believed to occur as a result of the difference between the prior expectations and the actual performance. If the actual performance of a product or service is better than previously expected then the consumer is satisfied, whereas if it is worse then the consumer is dissatisfied (Cadotte, Woodruff, & Jenkins, 1987; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Oliver, 1981). On the other hand, attribution refers to the consumer's appraisal of the situation based on understanding the cause of the failure and who is responsible (Erevelles & Lavitt, 1992; Folkes, 1984; Weiner, 1980; Weiner, 2000). According to the equity appraisal model satisfaction/dissatisfaction are based on the comparison consumers make between their input to acquire the product or service (e.g. price of the meal) and the outcome they receive from the transaction (e.g. portion size). They will feel dissatisfied if they perceive the ratio of the outcome to the input is unfair (negative inequity) (Boote, 1998; Erevelles & Leavitt, 1992).

These paradigms assume that consumer dissatisfaction is the result of a cognitive appraisal process and information search and assessment. However, researchers such as Oliver (1993) believe that consumer dissatisfaction also has an affective component. Oliver (1997) suggests that it involves a cognition-affective mixture where the ratio of cognition to affect differs according to the situation. Therefore, considering the affective post-consumption dimension in addition to the cognitive processes is essential to fully understand consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Giese & Cote, 2000; Homburg & Giering, 2001; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Yu & Dean, 2001).

Within a service context such as restaurants it is assumed that no single paradigm can explain dissatisfaction (Halstead, Hartman, & Schmidt, 1994). A consumer may resort to one or more appraisal model to evaluate the situation. Furthermore, as some of the literature suggests, it is important to acknowledge that dissatisfaction has both a cognitive and an affective element but there is no agreement whether the cognitive appraisal process is initiated before or after the affective response or simultaneously. This thesis embraces these assumptions and will follow Boote's (1998) structure in which he suggests that affective responses can be directly elicited after the purchase encounter or after cognitive reasoning.

1.3.3 Area three: Negative emotions

Following service failures, consumers may experience negative emotions and respond in certain ways (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Tronvoll, 2011). Precisely, service failures could trigger negative emotions such as anger, regret, disappointment, frustration, shame and guilt (Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Watson & Spence, 2007; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

There are three major approaches acknowledged in the literature for defining and studying emotions within the marketing field (Watson & Spence, 2007). The *cognitive appraisal approach* is widely accepted to study consumption emotions (Nyer, 1997; Tronvoll, 2011). This approach takes into account the context of a given situation and understands what caused the generation of these emotions and it can predict their impact on subsequent behaviour.

Cognitive appraisal theory stresses that events by themselves do not trigger emotions, but how consumers interpret and evaluate the events is what elicits the emotions (Donoghue & de Klerk, 2013; Soscia, 2007). Within this approach consumers are key elements in generating and defining emotions thus different individuals can experience different emotions to the same situation. It allows forming a complete understanding of the relationship between the appraised event (service failure), the specific emotions generated and the behavioural responses of the consumer (e.g. consumer complaint responses) (Watson & Spence, 2007).

Additionally, there are several models and taxonomies presented in the literature that attempt to classify and define emotions, both negative and positive (e.g. Diener, Smith, & Fujita, 1995; Izard, 1977; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1985; Oliver, 1989, 1993). These taxonomies differ in the basis of classification, however they share commonalities in the major groups of negative emotions identified such as anger, shame, fear and sadness.

One of the main objectives of this study is to form a holistic understanding of what the consumer experiences during a failed service encounter at a restaurant cognitively, emotionally and behaviourally; hence, it appears that using the cognitive appraisal approach is a good fit to understand and categorise the negative emotions in this research.

1.3.4 Area four: Consumer complaint behaviour

In service contexts such as restaurants it is impossible to avoid service failures and consequently dissatisfied consumers. However, not all consumers express their dissatisfaction directly to the service provider but instead choose to engage in other types of responses that might have negative implications for the sustainability and success of the organisation. Therefore, the interest to further understand the phenomenon of customer dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour in the marketplace and specifically within the service sector is increasing because of the peculiar nature of this sector and the impact of customer dissatisfaction on the profitability of an organisation.

Singh (1988, p.94) proposed a definition of CCB that has been widely accepted in the literature, defining CCB as “a set of multiple (behavioural and non-behavioural) responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with a purchase episode”. To date the CCB literature still holds to the assumption that the relationship between dissatisfaction and CCB is positive but weak; Day (1984), Singh and Pandya (1991) confirmed that dissatisfaction couldn't alone motivate a complaint response. Thus, dissatisfaction is a factor that along with other situational and personal factors determines the type of complaint responses a consumer resorts to upon a negative consumption incident (Day, 1984).

Additionally, the literature acknowledges that negative emotions experienced following a service failure influence the type of post-consumption responses including CCB responses (Nyer, 1997; Tronvoll, 2011). Thus in addition to dissatisfaction, understanding the influence of specific negative emotions can help develop a more accurate insight into CCB (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004)

Four major classifications of CCB can be identified in the literature starting with Hirschman (1970) followed by Day and Landon (1977), Day (1980) and Singh (1988). Later Crie (2003) developed a classification that put together the significant elements of these previous categorisations. Generally, there are five CCB responses acknowledged in the literature that consumers choose from to express dissatisfaction: voice (complain directly to the seller or service provider), exit (boycott the seller or organisation), third party action, negative word of mouth and silence (taking no action) (see Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Boote, 1998; Day, 1980; Day & Landon, 1977; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988).

Many CCB scholars have attempted to identify the factors that along with dissatisfaction would influence the consumer's decision to engage in a complaint response when experiencing a dissatisfactory episode (e.g. Bolting, 1989; Crie, 2003; Day, 1984; Jacoby & Jaccard, 1981, Singh, 1990a). The most common factors are situational and personal. Boote (1998) compiled an extensive list of eight triggers believed to significantly influence and predict complaint responses. Since the scope of this study is to understand complaint behaviour in restaurants and focuses only on Lebanese consumers, it is

believed that out of the triggers highlighted in Boote (1998) situational factors that include but are not limited to the importance of the occasion and severity of the failure along with attribution, psychographic triggers (including attitude towards complaining and personality traits), demographic factors, relationship between the customer and the company (e.g. loyalty) and social factors (the influence of others on the focal consumer) are the most relevant. The other triggers (culture and marketplace/consumer relationship) help in explaining CCB, however they are not as relevant as the other triggers to this study.

The social factor in particular is essential to consider when studying CCB within a service context such as restaurants. In restaurants consumers do not experience services in isolation. They share and interact with the physical, contextual, and social elements of the service including the service provider and the other customers. (Colm et al., 2017). Specifically, when compared to other service industries, the influence of other customers is the highest in restaurants (Zhang et al., 2010). Hence, during a restaurant-dining occasion, the service provider and other customers sharing the service space with the focal consumer may influence the CCB response, directly and/or indirectly.

Thus, consumer complaint response should not be regarded as an instant response but rather as a sequential process involving multi-evaluations of the situation over time and throughout the episode. CCB, especially within a service context, is a complex and dynamic process during which the customer, the service provider, the service and the episode of dissatisfaction continuously influence others and is not a simple response to a dissatisfactory event (Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Sharma et al., 2010).

In particular, the attitude and behaviour of the service provider whether during the initial serving or when responding to a complaint have an impact on the CCB response and negative emotions (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004; Bitner et al., 1990; Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Keaveney, 1995). Additionally the interest in understanding the influence of customer-to-customer interaction (CCI) on service experience and satisfaction has increased since it started in the mid 1970s. It refers to the interaction between the focal consumer and the other customers in the same service space (Nicholls, 2010). However, little has

been known about their specific influence on the behavioural and emotional responses of the focal consumer, especially the complaint behaviour (Albrecht, 2016; Zhang et al., 2010).

1.4 Research aims and objectives

After reviewing the existing CCB literature, it was evident that there are gaps in the knowledge concerning understanding the CCB phenomenon within a restaurant context.

The broad body of CCB literature was developed using quantitative methodologies that mostly resulted in understanding the behavioural intentions of dissatisfied consumers through vignettes and fictional scenarios as opposed to their actual behaviours within a natural setting. Furthermore, although the literature identifies a number of consumption negative emotions linked to marketplace experiences and explains how they influence behaviours in general, the knowledge regarding the negative emotions specific to a dining experience and CCB responses is still limited. Additionally, there is a gap in the literature to understand what actually stimulates the CCB responses and negative emotions within a restaurant context from the perspective of the dissatisfied consumer. In particular, acknowledging the role of the social element in the CCB process and understanding how the social dynamics and the ongoing interactions between the focal consumer, service provider and other customers in a service setting like a restaurant influence the entire CCB process.

Therefore the main aim of this thesis is to address these gaps and understand the negative emotions, CCB responses and social dynamics that occur during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants. Thus the subjective accounts of the dissatisfied participants about their experiences are relevant to this study. Exploring what negative emotions they experienced, how they responded, what they believe stimulated these negative emotions and responses and how the social dynamics within this context influence the CCB process will contribute to closing the gaps in the knowledge.

The research aim leads to the four research questions of this study:

RQ1: What negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

RQ2: How do consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents encountered in restaurants?

RQ3: What stimulates the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by consumers as a result of dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

RQ4: How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

In order to successfully address these four research questions, a number of research objectives are developed. These objectives will be reviewed in the conclusion chapter (Chapter Eight) to ensure that they were achieved. Table 1 outlines the objectives and the relevant chapters that will contribute to the fulfilment of each of them:

Table 1: Research objectives

	Research Objectives	Relevant Chapter(s)
Research Objective 1	Critical review of the literature relevant to CCB in services, in particular: service failures in restaurants, cognitive and affective appraisal theories, negative emotions and CCB (responses, triggers and models)	Chapters Two and Three
Research Objective 2	Identify the research gaps and develop the research questions	Chapter Three
Research Objective 3	Design an appropriate methodology to collect and analyse the data addressing the research questions	Chapter Four
Research Objective 4	Present and understand the research findings within the current relevant literature in order to develop an original contribution in the field of CCB	Chapters Five, Six and Seven
Research Objective 5	Understand the limitations of the current research and recommend areas for future research	Chapter Eight

1.5 Intended contribution of this study

This section briefly outlines the anticipated contribution to knowledge of this thesis. These contributions will be reviewed after the findings of the study have been presented in Chapters Five and Six and discussed in Chapter Seven to assess whether they have been achieved.

The current study will contribute to the CCB literature in several ways. It will identify a number of consumption negative emotions specific to a dining experience and show how they impact the CCB responses. It will extend the knowledge about the actual CCB behaviours and responses dissatisfied customers in a restaurant undertake following a service failure. It will also contribute to further understand the factors that stimulate negative emotions and CCB responses within a restaurant context and from the perspective of the dissatisfied consumer. Finally, this study anticipates widening the knowledge about how the ongoing interactions between the consumer, service providers and the other customers during the dissatisfactory service influence the CCB process directly and indirectly.

Additionally this study makes a methodological contribution as it follows an interpretivist approach to study CCB as opposed to the positivist approach dominating much of the CCB discipline. This approach will allow addressing the gaps in the knowledge and offering the above-mentioned contributions. It will help draw a holistic image of the situation within its natural setting, reflecting the dynamics and interactions that occur in such situations.

1.6 Structure of the thesis

This thesis includes eight chapters. They will be briefly summarised here in order to present a clear overview of the whole thesis.

Chapter One introduces the overall thesis and the sections that will be developed and discussed in the chapters that follow.

Chapter Two is one of the two literature review chapters. It introduces service failures in restaurants and what makes them of particular interest to CCB research. It also critically reviews the appraisal models of dissatisfaction most

relevant to this research as well as the cognitive appraisal model that explains how specific emotions are elicited as a result of such encounters.

Chapter Three presents and critically reviews the major models of consumer complaint behaviours. The factors that influence how consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents are also introduced and those that are specifically applicable to the context of this research (such as social factors) are elaborated on. Furthermore it identifies the gaps in the literature and formulates the research questions.

Chapter Four presents a detailed account of the philosophical and theoretical assumptions underpinning this study and justifies their appropriateness. It discusses the research methodology and methods including sampling, participant recruitment and data collection tools. It also describes how template analysis is used to analyse the collected data. It concludes with a discussion about the criteria used to evaluate the quality of the research, how the ethical issues were considered and presents a number of challenges associated with the data collection method.

Chapter Five, along with Chapter Six, presents the findings that emerged from the analysis of the data and answers the study's research questions. This chapter addresses research questions one, two and three.

Chapter Six presents the findings that emerged from the analysis of the data and addresses research question four. It focuses on the continuous social interactions that occur throughout the entire dining occasion between the consumer, service provider, entourage and other customers. It demonstrates how these interactions influence, directly or indirectly, the CCB process.

Chapter Seven discusses the findings presented in Chapters Five and Six in light of the study objectives and the current literature on services and service failures, negative consumption emotions and CCB presented in the literature review chapters.

As the final chapter of the thesis, **Chapter Eight** puts together what has been presented in the previous chapters revealing the importance of this research. It starts by revisiting and reviewing the research objectives and questions. Then it explains in detail how this research contributes to theory and practice, the limitations of the study and the quality of the research. It concludes by presenting a number of suggestions for future research.

1.7 Chapter summary

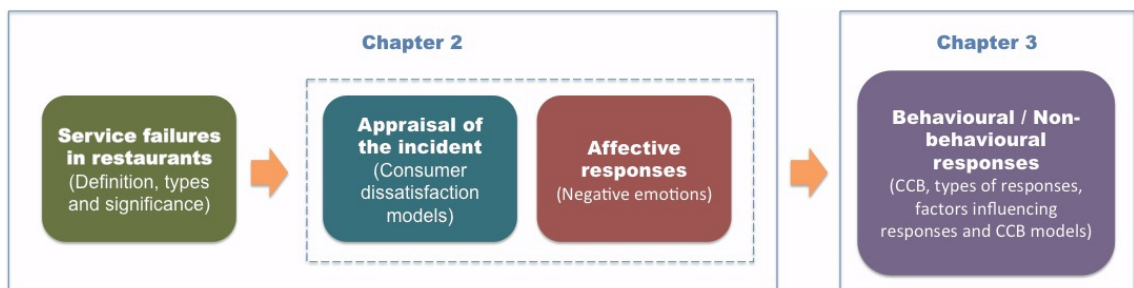
This introduction chapter discussed the reasons for selecting this topic. It also outlined the research aim and objectives and introduced the research questions. From there, it identified the intended contributions to knowledge and presented an overview of the thesis structure.

Chapter Two: Restaurants, service failures, dissatisfaction and negative emotions

2.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter, along with Chapter Three, will review the literature relevant to consumer complaint behaviour in the service industry, specifically restaurants. The structure of these two chapters follows the chain of actions (as shown in Figure 2) that is believed to occur when a consumer encounters a service failure at a restaurant (Bougie et al., 2003).

Figure 2: Structure of the literature review chapters



Therefore, this chapter will start by shedding light on what service failures in restaurants are and what makes them of particular interest to CCB research. It will follow with a critical review of the main theories that explain the appraisal processes consumers go through once they encounter a service failure as well as their affective responses. Specifically it will introduce the appraisal models of dissatisfaction most relevant to this research as well as the cognitive appraisal model that explains how specific emotions are elicited as a result of such encounters. This chapter will contribute to presenting literature relevant to Research Question One: *what negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?* It will also review literature that will help understand the consumer complaint behaviour in restaurants and present a contextual frame for the research questions.

2.2 Restaurants and service failures

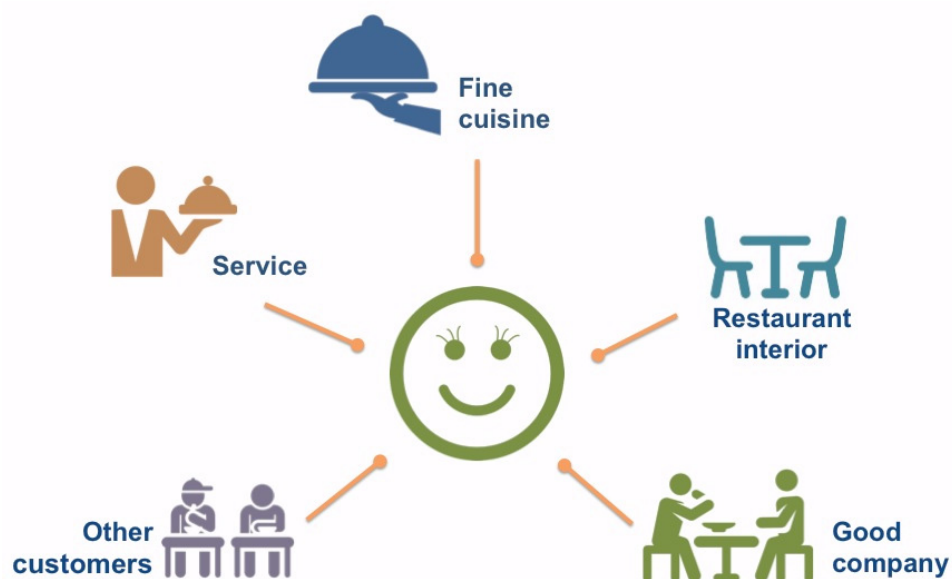
2.2.1 Restaurants; more than just food

"Dine, v: to eat a good dinner in good company, and eat it slow. In dining, as distinguished from mere feeding, the palate and stomach never ask the hand, 'What are you giving us?'"

Ambrose Bierce, American writer (1842-1914)

Gustafsson (2004, p. 11) states that "...meals consist of much more than the food to be eaten". There is no doubt that people dine out because they are hungry and they want to satisfy their physiological needs. However, Andersson and Mossberg (2004) suggest that dining out also satisfies social and intellectual needs. In their study they explain that in a restaurant context food is a necessary element that 'must' be available – without food a restaurant will cease to exist. Yet, there are other aspects that should be present to shape the dining experience and further satisfy the customer. Andersson and Mossberg (2004, p. 172) identify what they call the "five groups of satisfiers" as presented in Figure 3. Besides the food and interior of the restaurant, the attitude and behaviour of the service providers and the other customers (either dining on the same table or dining at a restaurant) influence the satisfaction of the focal consumer.

Figure 3: Five groups of satisfiers in a restaurant context



Source: Andersson and Mossberg (2004)

Similarly, Ozdemir et al. (2015) emphasise that the dining experience as a whole should be the main 'product' in the restaurant. In addition to the food and beverages it includes the atmosphere, the service and the social interaction with the people a customer is dining with and other customers in the restaurant. Hemmington (2007) believes that customers in the hospitality industry buy experiences and memories and not only food and services.

This makes the restaurant experience multidimensional (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004) and a failure in any of its aspects may negatively affect the whole dining experience and leave a customer dissatisfied (Ozdemir et al., 2015). In addition, it is complex in nature; it involves direct human interaction, production and consumption of the services provided occur simultaneously, it consists of multiple stages and is influenced by a number of personal, situational or environmental factors that can be uncontrollable (Chan, Hsiao, & Lee, 2016; McQuilken & Robertson, 2013; Mueller, Palmer, Mack, & McMullan, 2003; Namkung et al., 2011; Silber, Israeli, Bustin, & Zvi, 2009). Gursoy et al. (2007, p. 358) illustrate this point clearly: "especially in the restaurant business, having dissatisfied customers is inevitable because of the diversity of restaurant customers, and the heterogeneity and variability of restaurant products".

These aspects create an environment where it is unlikely for managers in the hospitality industry and specifically in restaurants to achieve a zero-defect experience. No matter how much they strive they will stumble across occasions when there is a delay in the delivery of the food, the food is not cooked as it should be, the waiter is having a bad day and an unpleasant attitude, or even the customer is grumpy. Hence, it is unrealistic for them and for the customers to think that problems will never occur during the production and service process (Chang et al., 2012; Ekiz, 2009; Mueller et al., 2003).

As mentioned earlier, a meal at a table service restaurant is about the entire dining experience involving the food, service, environment and social interactions (Ozdemir, et al., 2015). According to Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (2014, p. 40) "both the employee and the customer are often part of the product" in a service context. They give an example from a restaurant encounter where regardless of the outstanding quality of the food served, the

overall satisfaction of the customer with the experience, and consequently the emotions engendered and the post-consumption responses undertaken might be affected by the ongoing interaction between the customer and the service provider. This renders the production of the “restaurant product” and its consumption inseparable. This is a core characteristic of services that distinguishes them from goods and it assumes that the production and the consumption of the service occur simultaneously and that the customer is present during production (Wolak, Kalafatis, & Harris, 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1985).

Furthermore, the involvement of people in the production and delivery of the product in a restaurant makes a dining occasion heterogeneous (Wolak et al., 1998; Zeithaml et al., 1985). The quality of the food and the service performance in a restaurant can vary among customers, cooks, servers, time of the day, days of the week, etc. It varies depending on who provides it, where, when and how (Kotler et al., 2014). It is impossible to achieve a full consistency in behaviour and a standardised level of performance among all the servers involved in one dining occasion (welcoming host, waiter, manager, etc.) (Langeard, Bateson, Love-Lock, & Eiglier, 1981; Zeithaml et al., 1985). Furthermore the preparation of the food also involves a difficulty in always maintaining the same outcome mainly because of the human factor involved in its preparation. Hence, service failures, whether related to the service providers or the food served, are inevitable.

A restaurant encounter consists of multiple stages. This adds to its complexity and the challenges to eliminate failures. At a table service restaurant the customer goes through several stages that can start before physically arriving at the restaurant when booking a table and continues through when being greeted, assigned a table, ordering food and beverages, being served, eating the food and finally paying the bill and leaving (Lemmink et al., 1998; Namkung et al., 2011). Service mistakes can occur at any of these stages and influence the overall satisfaction of the customers with the encounter.

Thus far, the above suggests that a restaurant dining experience is complex and multi-dimensional. It is not only about the food and drinks consumed but it

involves the environment and the interactions between the customer, the service provider and the other customers present at the restaurant. The high level of human presence during the production and consumption of the 'product' in a restaurant, as well as it being characterised by inseparability and heterogeneity and involving multiple stages make a restaurant-dining occasion vulnerable to failures. These characteristics make studying dissatisfaction and CCB within a restaurant context an interesting area for research.

2.2.2 Service failures

Service failure is a term often used to refer to any type of problem a customer encounters with a service (Bitner et al., 1990; Chang et al., 2012; Colgate & Norris, 2001). "Service failures, in general, refer to any aspect of the service resulting in customer dissatisfaction" (Chang et al., 2012, p.602). Hence, service failures occur when during a service encounter performance in any aspect is lower than the customer's expectations thus resulting in customer dissatisfaction. The negative gap between expectations and performance is referred to in the literature as negative disconfirmation; this theory along with other dissatisfaction theories will be discussed in section 2.3 of this chapter (Bitner et al., 1990; Tsai & Su, 2009).

Service failures are difficult to avoid and may happen at any stage of the service encounter as previously mentioned. They may occur during the process as well as in the outcome of the service delivery (Lewis & McCann, 2004). Process failures include those related to the core service itself, for instance if the waiter is not attentive, whereas outcome failures happen when some features of the core service are not properly delivered, such as missing items on the menu (Chan, Wan, & Sin, 2007).

2.2.2.1 Types of Service failures

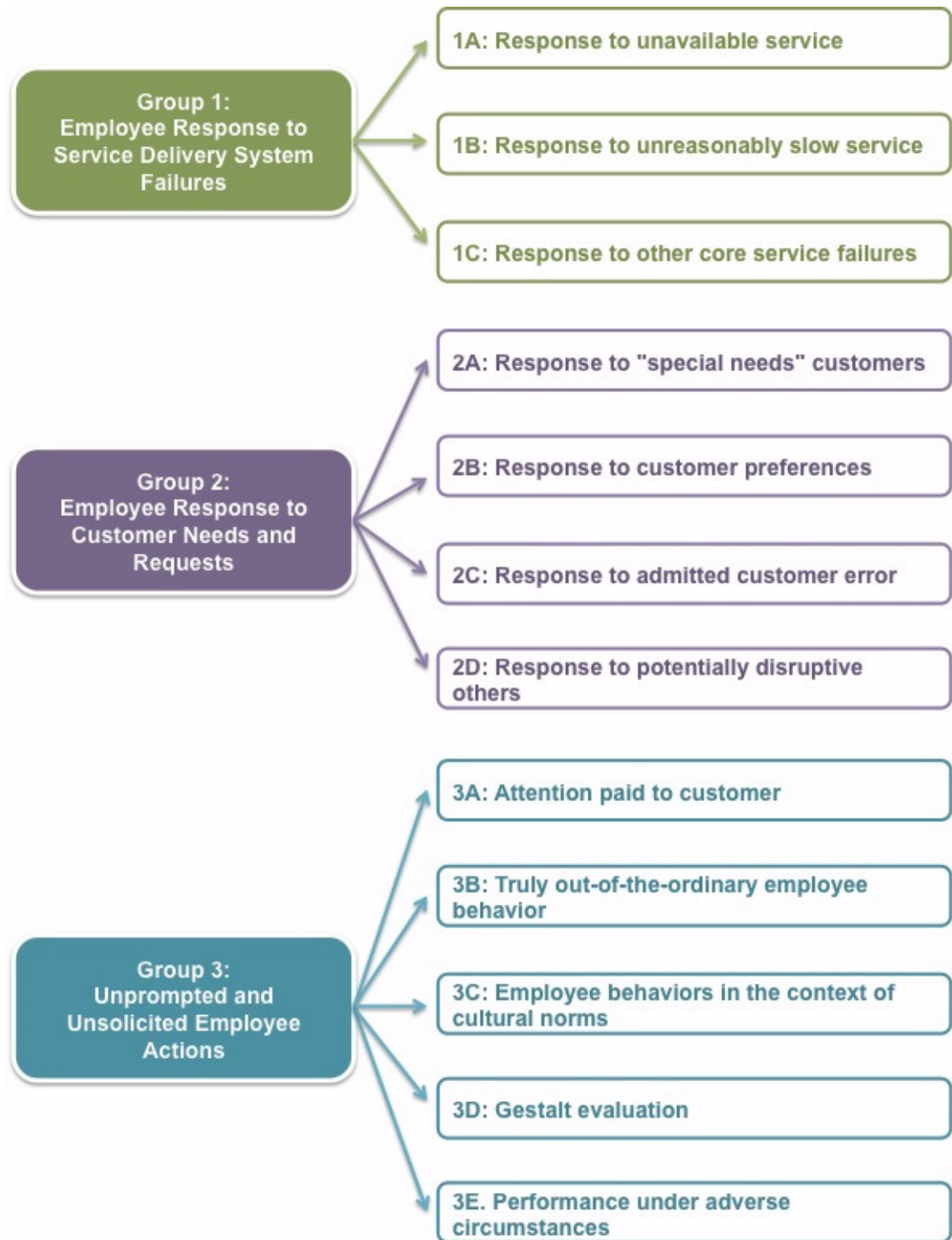
A number of studies were conducted to understand and identify events, incidents and behaviours that cause customer dissatisfaction in service industries. Bitner et al., (1990) is one of the earliest and most comprehensive studies categorising service failures occurring during service encounters and understanding how the behaviour of contact personnel influences customer

satisfaction. They identified types of failure that can occur in three different service industries and they concluded that it is not only the initial failure that causes dissatisfaction (or satisfaction) but also how the employee responds and deals with the failure during the service encounter. Hence, the customer assesses the attitude as well as the verbal and nonverbal behaviours of the contact employee once a failure or an incident has occurred. Consequently these cues become the source for satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Bitner et al., (1990) collected a total of 700 incidents in three service industries (airlines, hotels and restaurants) using critical incident technique. Half of these incidents were satisfactory and half were dissatisfactory. The incidents were sorted based on the employee's response and behaviour to the type of event occurring. In other words it is the assessment of the service recovery strategy followed by the employee. Service recovery includes all activities taken by the service provider to resolve a service failure and turn a dissatisfied customer into a satisfied one (Lia, Othman, Chern, & Karim, 2009).

The classification of these incidents generated three main groups and a number of categories within each group as shown in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4: Group and category classification by type of incident outcome



Source: Bitner et al. (1990, p. 75)

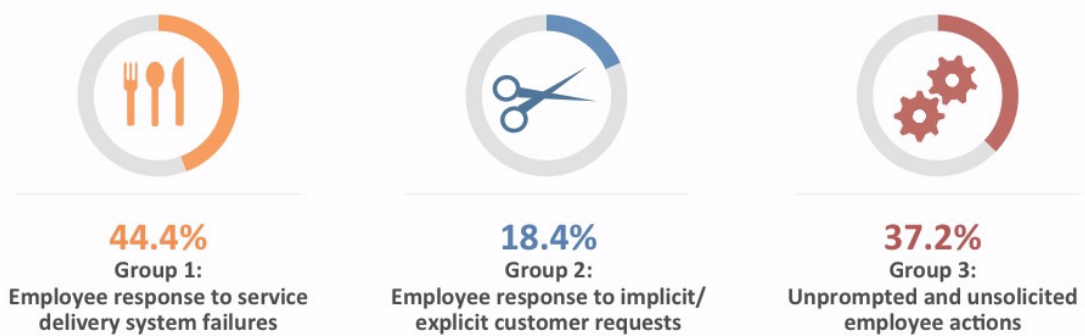
Group 1 "Employee response to service delivery system failures" includes incidents of how the contact person responded to the customer complaints related failures in the core service such as unavailable service, slow service and

cold meal. Incidents falling in Group 2 “Employee Response to Customer Needs and Requests” include these instances when the customer requires that the service be ‘customised’ to fit his or her special needs or preferences. Also it involves the incidents caused by customer error where he or she admits responsibility (for instance forgetting to specify that they are allergic to peanuts) as well as problems caused by other customers (for example noise from a nearby table). Unexpected events and behaviours from the employees are classified in Group 3 “Unprompted and unsolicited employee actions”. Examples of satisfactory incidents are getting very distinct attention while dissatisfactory incidents include negative behaviours such as rudeness, poor attitude and discrimination (Bitner et al., 1990).

In this study it is suggested that the satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) of a customer during a service encounter is influenced not only by initial failures faced but also by the attitude and behaviour of the service providers when addressing these failures; service recovery. Also, as they mention in the second group, failures within a service context can be caused by the behaviour of other customers sharing the same service space. Hence, it can be inferred that customer satisfaction within a service context can be influenced by the interaction with the service provider and other customers.

In a later study, Hoffman, Kelley, and Rotalsky (1995) built on the three failure groups developed by Bitner et al. (1990) in order to explore and describe types of service failures regularly happening in restaurants as well as recovery strategies followed. This study has documented the frequency of occurrence of every failure group and subgroup as well as the perceived severity of each failure. On the subgroups level there were some differences when compared to the classification by Bitner et al. (1990) because this study focused on restaurants only whereas the other study considered three types of service industry. Figure 5 shows the percentage of occurrence for each of the three major groups.

Figure 5: Frequency of restaurant failures



Source: Hoffman et al. (1995)

Failures falling under Group 1 were the most recurrent failures in restaurants (44.4%). They also received a score of 6.87 (average) for failure rating on a scale where 1 is a minor mistake and 10 is a major mistake. Within this group product defects accounted for the most frequently occurring failures but they were not perceived as major. Out of stock failures were perceived as major although they were the failures that occurred least often. Table 2 presents a detailed list of types of failures falling under each subgroup of Group 1.

Table 2: Subgroups of failures in group 1

	Sub Groups	Examples
Group 1: employee responses to service delivery system failures (44.4%)	Product Defect (20.9%)	Cold food, soggy food, raw food, burnt food, or spoiled food. Foreign objects in the food such as hair, glass, band-aids, bag ties, and cardboard.
	Slow/unavailable service (17.9%)	Customers waiting for a long duration to be served. Customers cannot find help when they need it.
	Facility problems (3.2%)	Cleanliness issues, bad smells, dirty silverware; etc. Moving objects in food or on the table (such as bugs).
	Unclear policy (1.6%)	Restaurants do not accept checks, credit cards.
	Out of stock (0.8%)	Items missing from the menu.

Source: Hoffman et al. (1995)

Group 2 accounted for the least frequently occurring failures among the three major groups (18.4%). Two subgroups were identified in this group: food not cooked to order (15%) and seating problems (3.4%). In this study seating problems were perceived as the most major failures among all other reported failures with a failure rating scale of 8.00.

Group 3 accounted for the second most frequently occurring types of failures in restaurants (37.2%). Within this group failures associated with the inappropriate behaviour of the employees are the most frequent and are perceived as major mistakes. They include situations when the employees are rude to the customer, use inappropriate words, have a poor attitude or behave in an unpleasant manner (Hoffman et al., 1995).

Furthermore and based on the earlier studies by Bitner et al. (1990) and Hoffman et al. (1995), Mueller et al. (2003) conducted a comparative study between Ireland and the United States to investigate any similarities or differences in service failures and recovery strategies in restaurants. They used a similar framework and failure groupings as Bitner et al. (1990) and Hoffman et al. (1995). Their findings showed that there are wide similarities regarding service failures between these two countries. Hence, employee/cook error, employee/wait staff error and unreasonably slow service were the three most frequently occurring types of service failures in restaurants accounting for almost 80% of all failure incidents.

Su and Bowen (2001) conducted a study to identify the factors that influence complaint behaviour by dissatisfied consumers in restaurants. Although investigating the types of service failures most often occurring in restaurants was not the primary objective of the study, they tested 14 types of service failures. Their list categorised the problems occurring when dining at table-service restaurants into failures related to food, service, and the environment. The results of the study showed that the most frequently mentioned problem is slow/inadequate service (31.6%) followed by improperly cooked food (11.5%) and food not worth the price (11.1%). Table 3 presents the 14 types of service failure in descending order from the most to the least frequently occurring failures.

Table 3: Types of service failure

	Type of failure	Frequency of mentioning
1	Slow/inadequate service	31.6%
2	Improperly cooked food	11.5%
3	Food not worth the price	11.1%
4	Rude/unfriendly service	10.6%
5	Noise/loud music	7.5%
6	Smoking	6.0%
7	Lack of cleanliness	5.0%
8	Being rushed	2.9%
9	Portions too small	2.7%
10	Crowded at your table	2.1%
11	Inadequate parking	1.7%
12	Inaccurate guest check	1.5%
13	Inadequate menu descriptions	1.2%
14	Not honouring reservations	0.7%

Source: Su and Bowen (2001)

Ozdemir et al. (2015) used a similar categorisation of service failures in their study regarding failures, recovery strategies and complaint behaviour in restaurants. They grouped the problems into food, service and atmosphere failures. Food problems included hygiene, food not cooked as ordered, food not tasting good, portion size, the temperature of the food is not correct and item is out of stock. Errors in the billing, slow service, not delivering the dishes in the appropriate order and inappropriate staff behaviour were grouped under service problems. Finally, problems related to the atmosphere involved the setting of the table as well as noise and bad smells in the restaurant.

Using a different classification, Loo et al. (2013) grouped service failures into four groups: process related, people related, product related and physical evidence related. They found that process related problems are the most frequently occurring problems, followed by people related failures, product related failures and lastly, physical evidence related problems. These four major groups and their subgroups are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Four groups of service failure

Failure groups	Failure sub-groups
Process related failures	Information communication (out of stock, unclear policies) Operations (long wait, wrong order, shortage of manpower) Flexibility (seating problem, business hours)
People related failures	Credibility Responsiveness (attentiveness, helpfulness) Courtesy (respect, politeness) Professionalism Competency (skills and knowledge)
Product related failures	Sensory quality (taste, color, food presentation) Safety quality (food poisoning, foreign objects in food) Other quality (portion size)
Physical evidence related failures	Ambient condition (cleanliness, pest problem) Spatial layout and functionality Signs, symbol, and artefacts

Source: Loo et al. (2013)

To conclude, the studies reviewed above categorised service failures in different manners using different grouping types. However there are wide commonalities among these studies at the level of the specific failures identified and mentioned by the dissatisfied customers in restaurants. In addition to failures in food, the service providers and other customers in the restaurant may be the source of service failures.

Bitner et al. (1990) suggested that the source of dissatisfaction (or satisfaction) is not the event itself but it is the response of the front line employee that makes the same event satisfactory or dissatisfactory. Thus, they emphasised the influence of the interaction between the customer and service provider on customer satisfaction. They also identified a failure related to the behaviour of the other customers dining at the restaurant. Several researchers have later used this classification framework (Chang et al., 2012; Chung & Hoffman, 1998; Hoffman et al., 1995; Tsai & Su, 2009).

Furthermore, classifying service failures between food, service and the environment (atmosphere) is yet another approach that was adopted in recent years (e.g. Ozdemir et al., 2015; Su & Bowen, 2001). Loo et al. (2013) expands the previous framework in which they divide failures into product, process, people and physical evidence related failures.

After reviewing all the above-mentioned taxonomies of service failures and despite the fact that they share broad commonalities, this thesis will adopt the classification developed by Loo et al. (2013). This classification in particular is directly relevant to the restaurant sector; it is comprehensive and clearly differentiates between the different types of service failure and accounts for people, product, process and environment related failures.

The types of service failures that a customer could encounter during a dining experience are diverse. These failures are not mutually exclusive during one dining occasion, a multiple number of failures from different categories may occur during the same occasion. The following sections in this chapter and Chapter Three will discuss how service failure may stimulate dissatisfaction, negative emotion and complaint behaviour. Therefore, it is essential when researching CCB to understand what service failures consumers encounter as they initiate the CCB process.

2.3 Consumer dissatisfaction

Having discussed so far the nature of a restaurant service and the types of failures that usually occur within this context, this chapter will now address how consumers assess these failures using both cognitive and affective processes. The literature recognises that one of the outcomes of service failure is leaving a dissatisfied and frustrated consumer (Lewis & McCann, 2004; Mueller et al., 2003). Furthermore, there is a relationship between how dissatisfied consumers appraise a product or service failure and their post-purchase behaviour such as complaining (Bonifield & Cole, 2006). This relationship will be thoroughly discussed in Chapter Three.

A review of the consumer satisfaction (and dissatisfaction) literature signifies that before the 1970s it was a neglected topic. Churchill and Surprenant (1982) point out that in 1972 Anita Pfaff (Pfaff, 1972) conducted the first study about customer satisfaction for the US Department of Agriculture. Shortly thereafter, the first annual conference on customer satisfaction, dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour was held. Hence, researchers as well as practitioners started to recognise the importance of customer satisfaction as a core concept in designing effective marketing strategies that lead to generating repeated sales, spreading positive word of mouth and building customer loyalty. These have a high impact on the sustainability and success of an organisation.

At this point it is critical to note that the literature discussing the main theories and concepts of consumer dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour is not very recent and dates back to the late 1970s and through the 1980s. This is due to the fact that, as mentioned above, this area of research started gaining attention in the late 1970s, hence the most significant concepts were developed during these early years. However this should not imply that no recent research has been conducted around consumer dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour. In fact, the studies conducted in the past two decades endorsed the widely accepted theories as the basis for their research and applied them within new contexts as well as proposed to add new dimensions such as online complaining. Hence, while acknowledging this limitation in the reviewed literature this chapter also critically discusses the most recent developments in this discipline.

Consumer satisfaction (and dissatisfaction) is defined in the literature as an *evaluation* of a specific purchase that takes place after purchase and/or a consumption experience, and it is assumed to be of *cognitive and affective nature* (Day 1984; Oliver 1981; Patterson & Johnson, 1993; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Furthermore, Giese and Cote (2000) reviewed different definitions of satisfaction and stated that they share some common components. Firstly, satisfaction is believed to be an “affective, cognitive and/or conative response” (Giese & Cote, 2000, p.14). Secondly, this response is “based on an evaluation of product-related standards, product consumption experiences and/or purchase-related attributes” (Giese & Cote, 2000, p.14). Thirdly, this response

is time bound in that it is “expressed before choice, after choice, after consumption, after extended experience, or just about any other time a researcher may query consumers about the product or related attributes” (Giese & Cote, 2000, p.14). Hence, the keystone in consumer dissatisfaction is the appraisal (evaluation) of a certain purchase or consumption event. The literature acknowledges a number of views about the appraisal process that explain consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. These views will be reviewed in the next section.

2.3.1 Consumer dissatisfaction models

This section will briefly review the most prominent appraisal models that were developed to understand and conceptualise consumer dissatisfaction (Boote, 1998; Erevelles & Leavitt, 1992). Almost all consumer complaint models reviewed for this study start with consumer dissatisfaction and the most recurrently mentioned appraisal theories in consumer complaint literature are (1) expectation - disconfirmation, (2) attribution and (3) equity (Boote, 1998).

2.3.1.1 Expectations – Disconfirmation Model

In their seminal work Oliver (1981) and Day (1984) suggest that the evaluation of the consumption event is based on prior expectations. Specifically, it is the “response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations (or some other norm of performance) and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption” (Tse & Wilton, 1988, p. 204). This paradigm is widely accepted when explaining consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Cadotte et al., 1987; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982). Consumers have expectations about products/services prior to purchasing them (Erevelles & Leavitt, 1992; Oliver, 1980). Once they purchase and consume the product/services they experience the actual performance. After consumption consumers compare the actual performance of the products/services to the prior expectations they held for them. Hence, “disconfirmation arises from discrepancies between prior expectations and actual performance “ (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982, p.492).

Consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction is the outcome of this comparison process. Consumers are satisfied if the actual performance of the product/service is better than they expected (positive disconfirmation). Hence, meeting or exceeding prior expectations will lead to satisfaction. However if the actual performance of the product/service is worse than the consumers' expectations, this leads to dissatisfaction (negative disconfirmation). Thus, failing to meet expectations will leave customers dissatisfied. To illustrate, a customer who expects food to be served at a restaurant within 15 minutes of ordering will be dissatisfied if food is served after 25 minutes. In this case actual performance was worse than expectations resulting in negative disconfirmation.

Blodgett and Granbois (1992) suggest that satisfaction and dissatisfaction have both cognitive and affective dimensions. The disconfirmation process by itself is a cognitive process whereas the outcome of this process (satisfaction and dissatisfaction) is an affective response. Positive disconfirmation elicits positive emotions and thus leads to satisfaction while negative disconfirmation evokes negative emotions increasing the likelihood of dissatisfaction (Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988). This raises the question of whether dissatisfaction is the result of a purely cognitive process or a spontaneous unconscious affective response.

In this paradigm, the assessment of the product/service performance depends on the prior expectations the consumer holds. These are shaped by prior personal experience with the product or service, advertising activity, reputation of the service provider or word-of-mouth (Michel, 2001; Woodruff, Clemons, Schumann, Gardial, & Burns, 1991). This poses a challenge to marketers to manage these expectations and avoid over-promising as it might lead to dissatisfaction.

2.3.1.2 Attribution theory

When a product or service fails, consumers try to rationally explain why this happened (Erevelles & Lavitt, 1992; Folkes, 1984; Weiner, 2000). Weiner (1980) developed a three-dimensional categorisation system for classifying the causes of failures. The first dimension is stability. Here the consumer evaluates whether the failure is relatively temporary (i.e. varies over time – doesn't always happen) or fairly permanent (i.e. doesn't vary over time – always happens).

Locus is the second dimension and it is related to judging who is responsible for the problem – who to blame. The cause of the failure can be either internal (i.e. the consumer is responsible) or external (i.e. the responsibility lies with external factors such as the seller, manufacturer, service provider, environment factors or situational factors). The third dimension is controllability. Within this dimension the failures are assessed as to whether the causes were either controllable (could have been avoided) or uncontrollable (happened accidentally). (Erevelles & Lavitt, 1992; Folkes, 1984; Weiner, 1980, 2000).

Attribution is more likely to take place following a service or product failure that led to dissatisfaction rather than after a satisfying experience (Weiner, 2000). Its outcome (i.e. the cause of the failure) influences the consumers' feelings of dissatisfaction as well as their behavioural and affective responses (Boote, 1998; Folkes & Kotsos, 1986; Weiner, 2000). For instance if the waiter served the wrong order (locus: externally attributed) the customer will be more dissatisfied than if he himself had mistakenly ordered the wrong dish (locus: internally attributed) and would experience different emotions. In addition the type of response the customer has will be different based on who is responsible for the failure. In particular, failures in services are perceived more than products to be judged by the locus and controllability dimensions because of the high level of human input in the production and delivery of a service (Weiner, 2000). Hence, it seems to appear that attribution, as an appraisal model, is not isolated from the other appraisal paradigms such as the expectancy-disconfirmation. It is an appraisal model used by the consumer to establish a holistic evaluation of the failure.

2.3.1.3 Equity

Fornell and Wernerfelt (1987, p. 338) define dissatisfaction as “a state of cognitive/affective discomfort caused by an insufficient return relative to the resources spent by the consumer at any stage of the purchase/consumption process”. In this definition the concept of evaluation is present but it is related to a form of equity. According to this model, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are based on the comparison consumers make between their input to acquire the product or service (cost) and the outcome they receive from the transaction (benefit). They will feel dissatisfied if they perceive the ratio of the outcome to

the input as unfair (negative inequity). In other words, dissatisfaction occurs when consumers perceive that they have gained less than the seller or service provider (Boote, 1998; Erevelles & Leavitt, 1992).

This model is subjective in nature because what is considered fair can vary between individuals and situations (Erevelles & Leavitt, 1992; Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988). In fact, factors such as the amount of money paid, the time and effort spent, the received benefits, the ratio comparison from previous experiences and what others received in similar exchanges, influence whether consumers will feel fairly or unfairly treated (Tse and Wilton, 1988; Woodruff, Cadotte & Jenkins 1983). For instance, a customer may feel treated unfairly if she perceived the amount of food served to be of a poor value relative to the amount of money paid.

2.3.1.4 Multiple Processes

The comparison standards reviewed above influence the evaluation processes consumers go through after purchasing a product or service. However research (e.g. Forbes, Tse & Taylor, 1986; Oliver, 1985; Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Tse & Wilton, 1988) suggests that appraisal processes are complex and involve multiple comparison standards (either simultaneously or sequentially) and not a single one. Multiple processes and comparison standards should be considered in order to form a holistic understanding of post-purchase consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction. For instance once a consumer evaluates a service encounter and finds that it was worse than she has initially expected (negative disconfirmation) an information-seeking response is triggered. The aim of this response might be to seek information of how or what is responsible for the failure (attribution) (Bougie et al., 2003).

According to Halstead et al. (1994) multiple appraisal processes are appropriate when studying consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction in services because of its complex nature. Specifically, within a service encounter the customer interacts with the service personnel, the physical environment, the social surrounding, (e.g. other customers) as well as the service received (Garland & Westbrook, 1989). This makes the evaluation processes more difficult in services than products (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985), more complex

and relies on different sources and comparison standards (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993) and the evaluation involves both the outcome and process (Gronroos, 1982).

Within one dining occasion a consumer might use expectation-disconfirmation to evaluate how the taste of the food served (actual performance) compared to what she expected (prior expectations). If the result is a negative disconfirmation (the food tastes worse than she expected), she might simultaneously or sequentially use attribution to assess whom to blame for the failure (for example, is the chef responsible for cooking the food in a bad manner or is she responsible because she did not previously ask about the ingredients of the dish?). She might also evaluate the fairness of the process and the outcome (equity). Therefore in one occasion the consumer might rely on multiple standards for evaluation of the service provided. Hence, no single appraisal process by itself can fully explain consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

2.3.1.5 Affective models

The models presented above assume that consumers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction are the result of cognitive appraisal processes and information search and assessment. However, another school of thought believes that consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction has in addition an affective or emotional component (Oliver, 1993). In particular Oliver (1997) suggests that it is a cognition-affective mixture where the ratio of cognitive to affective differs according to the situation. Consumers at post-consumption can either have positive emotions as a result of positive consumption experiences or negative emotions following negative consumption experiences (Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987). Hence, assuming a cognitive appraisal process, a service failure might cause a consumer to be dissatisfied because of negative disconfirmation; however, this same service failure also elicits affective processes. Therefore, considering the affective/emotional post-consumption dimension in addition to the cognitive processes is significant to fully understand consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Giese & Cote, 2000; Homburg & Giering, 2001; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Yu & Dean, 2001).

This is evident as well in Westbrook and Reilly (1983, p.259) where they define customer satisfaction as an “emotional response triggered by a cognitive evaluative process in which the perceptions of (or beliefs about) an object, action, or condition are compared to one’s values (or needs, wants, desires)”. Furthermore, Day (1984) states that some theories consider dissatisfaction a negative emotion that is generated as a result of assessing a consumption experience as negative disconfirmation. In contrast to this, although Boote (1998) acknowledges both the cognitive and affective elements of customer dissatisfaction he argues that the emotional state might occur before the cognitive appraisal process is initiated. In particular, Liljander and Strandvik (1997, p. 148) explain that these two processes are different in nature; the first “requires deliberate processing of information” whereas the second is “thought to be partly outside the customer’s conscious control”.

Of the above-mentioned paradigms, it appears that within a service context such as restaurants that is complex and multidimensional, no single paradigm can explain dissatisfaction. A consumer may resort to one or more appraisal model to evaluate the situation. This is an assumption that is embraced in this research. Furthermore, as some of the literature suggests it is important to acknowledge that dissatisfaction has both a cognitive and an affective element. Service failures may elicit negative emotions. However as there is no consensus in the literature about whether the cognitive appraisal process is initiated before or after the affective response or simultaneously and because such a question is beyond the scope of this research, this thesis will recognise both components and will not take a stand. It will follow the structure that Boote (1998) suggests in his model of consumer dissatisfaction responses where affective responses can be directly elicited after the purchase encounter or after cognitive reasoning.

The following section will further elaborate on the negative emotions elicited as a result of a service failure incident. It will define emotions from a marketing perspective, explain how emotions are believed to be formed as per the cognitive appraisal theory, and shed light on the influence of specific emotions on post-consumption consumer behaviour, specifically consumer complaint behaviour.

2.4 Negative Emotions

Service failures are believed to trigger strong emotions such as anger, regret, disappointment, frustration, shame and guilt (Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Watson & Spence, 2007; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). There is no agreement in the literature over whether dissatisfaction as a result of a service failure triggers negative emotions (e.g. Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011) or whether emotions influence satisfaction (e.g. Westbrook & Oliver, 1991) but what is certain is that consequent to service failures consumers experience negative emotions and respond in certain ways (Tronvoll, 2011). These types of emotions are referred to in the literature as consumption emotions because they are experienced during a consumption event (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

In general, emotions are broadly grouped into two categories, negative or positive. Those evoked from unpleasant situations such as a service failure are labelled as negative emotions. Hence, because of the scope of the study the focus will be on negative emotions. Tronvoll (2011) found that almost all respondents in the study (97% of them) experienced some negative emotions as a result of negative incidents. Bougie et al. (2003) suggest that anger and dissatisfaction are often generated as a result of service failure incidents. Furthermore, these negative emotions may influence consumer post-consumption behaviour (Bougie et al., 2003; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991).

An emotion, as defined by Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer, (1999, p. 184) is:

“a mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts; has a phenomenological tone; is accompanied by physiological processes; is often expressed physically (e.g., in gestures, posture, facial features); and may result in specific actions to affirm or cope with the emotion, depending on its nature and meaning for the person having it”.

A close dissection of this definition within the context of service failure encounters shows two important components. Firstly, emotions are believed to be generated as a result of a cognitive appraisal of a situation (for example a negative critical incident) and secondly, they might influence post-consumption

behaviour in order to deal with this situation (for example consumer complaint behaviour).

Watson and Spence (2007) recognise three approaches for defining and studying emotions within the marketing field in particular.

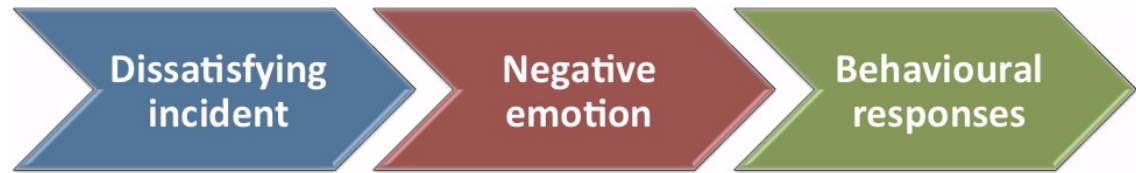
- The *categories approach* that groups emotions according to their similarities but does not take into account what caused these emotions and thus fails to explain the relationship between the emotion and the situation.
- The *dimensions approach* which uses valence and level of arousal to differentiate emotions. Valence is either positive or negative and arousal is either low or high. The limitation of this approach is that it cannot capture why emotions of the same valence and same arousal level such as anger, fear and shame (all three emotions are highly negative emotions) generate different behaviours.
- The *cognitive appraisal approach* is widely accepted to study emotions (Nyer, 1997; Tronvoll, 2011). What distinguishes this approach from the other two approaches described above is that by taking into account the context of a given situation and understanding what caused the generation of these emotions it can predict their impact on the subsequent behaviour.

As this study aims at forming a holistic understanding of what the consumer experiences during a failed service encounter at a restaurant cognitively, emotionally and behaviourally, it will adopt the cognitive appraisal approach to explain the negative emotions related to this context. The following section will further explain this approach and how certain negative emotions affect post-consumption behaviour related to consumer complaint behaviour.

Within a consumption context much of the literature emphasises the following process: a dissatisfying incident or an undesirable situation will generate specific negative emotions that may influence the type of future behaviour including a complaint response (Figure 6) (Kim, Wang, & Mattila, 2010;

Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

Figure 6: Process following a dissatisfying incident



However, there is no agreement in the literature on the role of cognition in forming emotions. According to Nyer (1997) there is one school of thought that goes back to philosophers such as Aristotle, Decartes and Sponza, which believes emotions to be the result of an appraisal of a situation. Arnold (1960) suggests that consumers appraise an event as harmful or beneficial and emotions arise as a result of this. People assess situations differently from each other thus different emotions for the same situation may arise. Lazarus (1991) introduced the cognitive appraisal model and suggested that for emotions to form it is necessary and sufficient to have a cognitive appraisal of the situation. Other scholars (e.g. Frijda, 1993; Kemper, 1978; Roseman, 1991; Scherer, 1993; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985) presented other forms of appraisals that lead to the formation of emotions. On the other hand, researchers such as Izard (1992) believe that although emotions in some situations can be the result of a cognitive appraisal this is not always necessary. Scholars belonging to this school of thought reject the belief that cognitive appraisal is key for forming emotions. To them emotions can be elicited without any evaluation process. Furthermore, even if in a certain situation information were processed it would not involve a cognitive process (Nyer, 1997).

2.4.1 Cognitive appraisal approach

In particular, when studying consumption emotions and understanding their effect on behaviour, the cognitive appraisal approach has been widely considered (Nyer, 1997; Tronvoll, 2011). It is thought to be appropriate for studies of such scope because it allows understanding of how specific emotions are formed based on a particular cognitive appraisal process as well as how these specific emotions impact on customer decisions and responses (Bagozzi

et al., 1999; Lazarus, 1991; Tronvoll, 2011; Watson & Spence, 2007). In particular, cognitive appraisal stresses that events by themselves do not trigger emotions, but how consumers interpret and evaluate the events is what elicits the emotions (Donoghue & de Klerk, 2013; Soscia, 2007). Within this approach consumers are key elements in generating and defining emotions thus different individuals can experience different emotions in the same situation. It allows for reaching a complete explanation of the relationship between the appraised event (service failure), specific emotions generated and the behavioural responses of the consumer such as the complaint behaviours undertaken (Watson & Spence, 2007). Johnson and Stewart (2005, p.3) state that the cognitive appraisal approach is “an especially relevant approach for understanding the emotional responses of consumers in the marketplace”.

In order to understand emotions following the cognitive appraisal approach three issues should be considered (Watson & Spence, 2007):

1. The characteristics of the evaluated event
2. The emotions generated because of this appraisal process
3. The behavioural responses related to these specific emotions evoked

Lazarus (1991) explains that an individual (a consumer in a marketplace situation) evaluates an event based on internal and external factors. Internal factors are those related to the individual such as personal beliefs and goals, whereas external factors are related to the situation such as the performance of the product.

Following the cognitive appraisal of the event, emotions are generated. The specific emotion is determined based on the type of subjective experience, action tendencies and physiological responses aroused as a result of the cognitive appraisal.

Coping mechanisms, the third element in this model, are both the psychological and behavioural responses individuals take to manage the situation. Coping occurs after a situation has been cognitively appraised and is related to the specific emotion that emerges. Lerner and Keltner (2000) explained that even if

two emotions have the same valence (for example negative) and the same arousal level (for example high) they can still result in different post-consumption behaviours. Yi and Baumgartner (2004) found that the two negative emotions anger and guilt lead to different coping mechanisms because their appraisal results are different. Negative word of mouth and voicing a complaint (both are types of complaint behaviours) are coping mechanisms strongly associated with anger (Kim et al., 2010; Nyer, 1997; Stephens & Gwinner, 1998).

Therefore, negative emotions are believed to influence the post-consumption responses consumers take following a service failure whether they voice a complaint, engage in negative word of mouth, switch a brand or stay loyal (Moliner-Velazquez & Fuentes Blasco, 2012; Stephens & Gwinner, 1998). Bougie et al. (2003) suggested that complaint behaviour might not only be the result of dissatisfaction but also a consequent behaviour following the negative emotions experienced by the cognitive appraisal of an unfavourable situation. The consumer complaint behaviours associated with a negative situation will be further detailed in Chapter Three.

According to Lazarus (1991) the cognitive appraisal model consists of two parts. "*Primary appraisal* concerns the stake one has in the outcome of an encounter" (Lazarus, 1991, p. 827). In their primary appraisal individuals evaluate the event based on goal relevance, goal congruence/incongruence and goal content. Goal relevance concerns how much the event or outcome is important or relevant to the individual. "The more goal relevant a situation, the stronger the consequent emotion is likely to be" (Nyer, 1997, p. 297). Goal congruence or incongruence is when the person evaluates the situation as harmful (goal incongruent) or beneficial (goal congruent). Hence, in general the first evokes negative emotions and the latter evokes positive emotions. Goal content is about the "kind of goal at stake" (Lazarus, 1991, p. 827) and it is necessary to differentiate specific emotions.

Secondary appraisal is a more complex process than the primary appraisal and is concerned with the options available for coping and the likelihood of success of the coping mechanisms. During this phase appraisal is based on three

decisions: “blame or credit and whether it is directed at oneself or another, coping potential and future expectations” (Lazarus, 1991, p.827). However, Lazarus (1991) notes that blame or credit in addition to the dimensions used during the primary appraisal are sufficient to explain the formation of emotions and differentiate them.

Blame or credit is related to attribution and it is concerned with knowing who is responsible for the harm (blame) or the benefit (credit) and whether this person has control over this action. The attribution (responsibility and control) can be internal (that is directed to oneself) or external (blaming or crediting others). The difference in the direction of the blame or credit is found to influence the type of emotions elicited such as anger, guilt or shame. Roseman (1991) and Smith and Ellsworth (1985) refer to the blame and credit criteria as an agency. It has been empirically found that the agency criterion is mostly relevant in negative critical incidents that elicit negative emotions (Watson & Spence, 2007). In fact, Folkes (1984) and Weiner (2000) explain that people during negative events are more likely to try to understand why something happened. Furthermore, Smith and Ellsworth (1985) found that appraisals using the agency dimension have the greatest impact on the emerged emotions.

To illustrate, a consumer at a restaurant would feel guilt and regret if she is personally responsible for the negative event such as choosing a bad restaurant. On the other hand, she would feel angry if the restaurant staff were responsible for the service failure such as delay in processing the order. In this case, it is important to highlight the ‘control’ criterion and its effect on the type of emotion elicited. This same customer would not feel angry if her interpretation of the situation led her to believe that the delay in processing the order is out of control of the restaurant staff and is due to an external factor such as an unexpected power cut (Bougie et al., 2003; Soscia, 2007).

Smith and Ellsworth (1985) proposed six dimensions through which an individual cognitively appraises a situation and consequently defines and differentiates between specific emotions. These dimensions are: certainty, control, responsibility, pleasantness, attentional activity and anticipated effort. In their study they found that specific emotions are defined by some of these

dimensions. For example, anger is distinguished from other negative emotions by the dimensions: certainty, control and responsibility. These three dimensions are similar to the components of the attribution paradigm acknowledged to understand dissatisfaction (stability, responsibility and controllability).

Watson and Spence (2007) point out that there is still inconsistency in the literature about the dimensions individuals use to appraise a situation or an event. They propose a revision of the cognitive appraisal theory with four key appraisal dimensions they claim to predict a wide array of consumption emotions. These dimensions are: outcome desirability (desirable situation, undesirable situation), agency (self-caused, other-caused, circumstance-caused), fairness and certainty. Within this model, anger is the result of appraising a situation as undesirable and caused by others, whereas guilt is the result of an undesirable event that is self-caused. Fairness in this proposed model is related to the concept of justice and is relevant when exploring service failure and recovery. Certainty, however, is the individual's perception of how likely a particular event will occur. Again in this model both the agency and certainty dimensions share strong similarities with the attribution model.

To sum up, the cognitive appraisal model acknowledges that upon the occurrence of a negative event, the consumer evaluates the situation and certain negative emotions are generated. Following these emotions the consumer engages in both psychological and behavioural responses to cope with and manage the situation. Mainly the consumer adheres to the attribution paradigm and agency dimension when evaluating the situation. Since the main objective of this research is to understand how a dissatisfactory incident in a restaurant influences the negative emotions experienced and responses undertaken, the cognitive appraisal approach is appropriate and fits to explain the negative emotions.

2.4.2 Taxonomies of negative emotions

The valence dimension for defining and studying emotions suggests that emotions are either positive or negative (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Watson & Spence, 2007). Negative emotions are often associated with situations appraised as unpleasant or causing dissatisfaction (Bougie et al, 2003;

Lazarus, 1991). As this study aims at understanding the cognitive, behavioural and emotional responses of consumers to service failures in restaurants the focus will be on negative emotions.

There are several models and taxonomies presented in the literature that attempt to classify and define emotions, both negative and positive. These taxonomies agree on the classification of the basic emotions and their valence. This section will present some of these classifications that were mostly referred to in consumer related research.

Izard (1977) presented an extensive taxonomy of affective responses differentiated between positive and negative. These emotions were empirically identified. This list has been well accepted by emotions scholars. Because of the scope of the study, Table 5 features only the negative valence emotions.

Table 5: Izard's (1977) taxonomy of negative affective responses

Fundamental affect	Nature of Subjective experience
Anger	Hostility, desire to attack the source of anger, physical power, impulsiveness.
Disgust	Feelings of revulsion, impulses to escape from or remove the object of disgust from proximity to oneself.
Contempt	Superiority to other people, groups, or things, hostility (mild), prejudice, coldness, distance.
Distress	Sadness, discouragement, downheartedness, loneliness and isolation; feeling miserable, sense of loss.
Fear	Apprehension to terror, depending on intensity, sense of imminent danger, feeling unsafe, slowed thought, tension.
Shame	Suddenly heightened self-consciousness, self-awareness, feeling of incompetence, indignity, defeat, in mild form (shyness).
Guilt	Gnawing feelings of being in the wrong, 'not right' with other or the self.

Source: Westbrook (1987, p. 259)

Diener et al. (1995) examined the differences that occurred between a number of pleasant, unpleasant and discrete emotions. In their study they also differentiated the emotions based on valence. Their study included four main

groups of negative emotions. Each of these groups included a number of other emotions as shown in Figure 7.

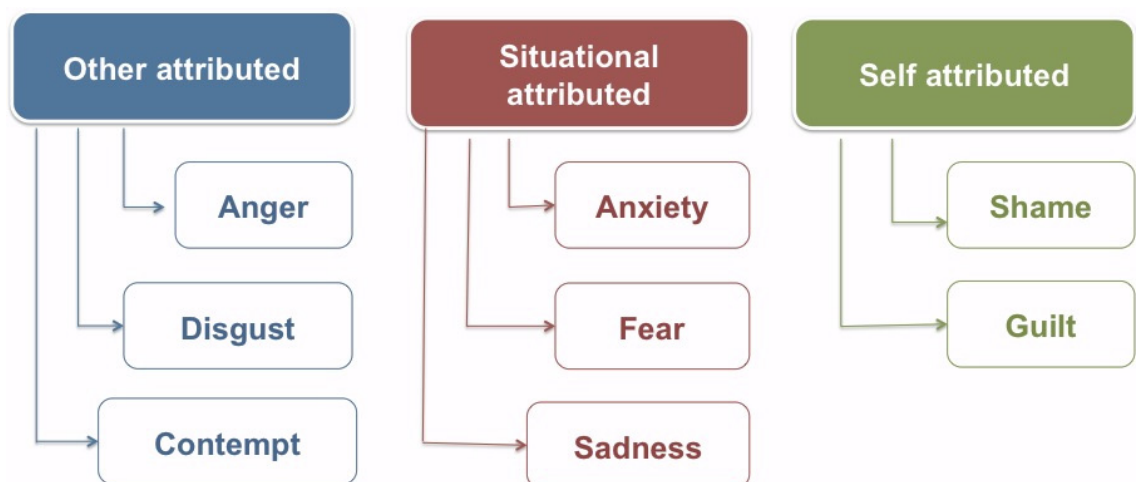
Figure 7: Diener et al. (1995) classification of unpleasant emotions



Source: Diener et al. (1995)

However, researchers such as Smith and Ellsworth (1985), Weiner (1985) and Oliver (1989, 1993) introduced the agency dimension to differentiate negative emotions. They posited that appraising a situation based on what and who caused the negative event provides a more accurate distinction between negative emotions. Figure 8, shows how Oliver (1989, 1993) classified negative emotions:

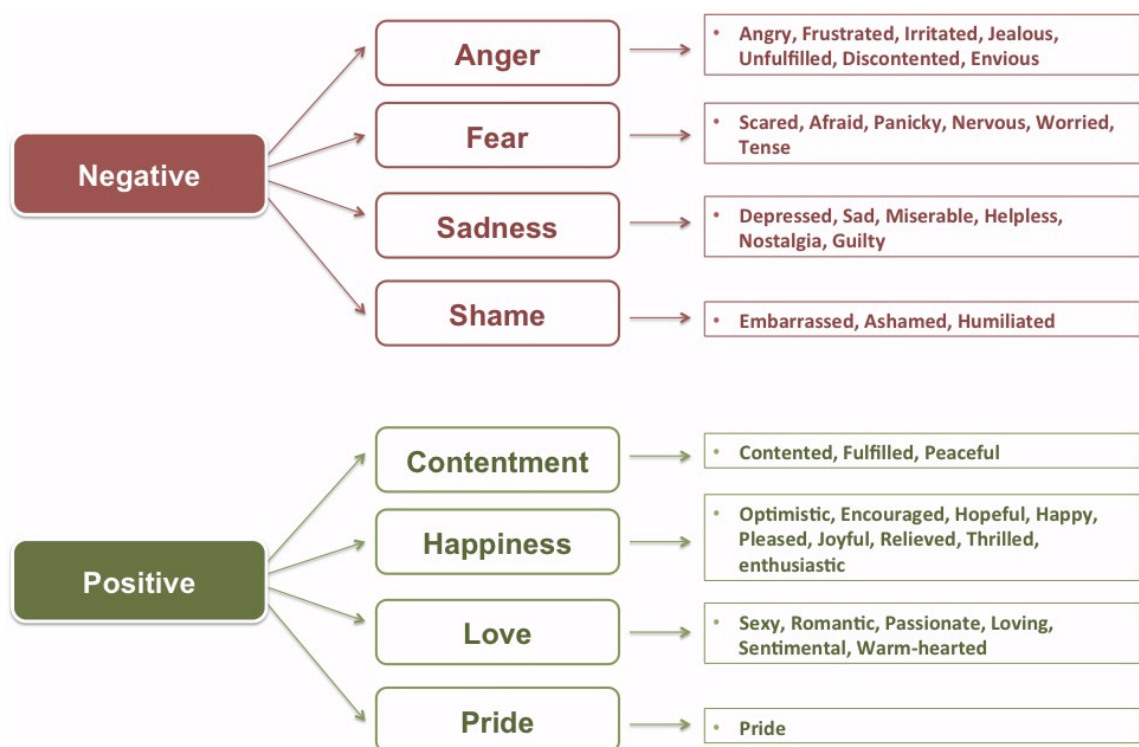
Figure 8: Oliver's (1989, 1993) categories of emotions based on causal agency dimension



Source: Tronvoll (2011, p. 114)

In particular and specific to emotions in consumer behaviour Laros and Steenkamp (2005) developed a hierarchical model supported by an empirical study and that incorporates previous research findings regarding emotions. Their model is composed of three levels. The first level divides emotions into negative and positive (valence). The second level includes basic emotions that fall under positive (contentment, love, happiness and pride) or negative (sadness, anger, fear and shame). The third level specifies 42 different individual emotions. This model is presented in detail in Figure 9 below.

Figure 9: Hierarchy of consumer emotions



Source: Laros and Steenkamp (2005, p.1441)

Although the above classifications differ in the basis of classification they share commonalities in the major groups of negative emotions identified such as anger, shame, fear and sadness. Classifying emotions based on valence differentiates between negative and positive emotions however it fails to explain what caused these emotions and the relationship with the situation.

Classification using the cognitive appraisal approach based on the agency dimension and relating the emotions to what and who caused them gives a holistic understanding of the unpleasant situation. One of the main objectives of

this study aims at exploring what negative emotions consumers experience in the event of a dissatisfactory restaurant encounter. Hence, it appears that using the cognitive appraisal approach with the agency dimension is a good fit to understand and categorise the negative emotions in this research.

In brief, the cognitive appraisal approach assumes that emotions are elicited due to a cognitive appraisal of an event based on certain dimensions and these emotions in turn influence the subsequent behaviour the consumer takes in order to cope with the situation. Hence, an event assessed as unpleasant and undesirable such as a service failure will generate negative emotions. These negative emotions differ in nature based on the outcome of the appraisal of the negative critical incident. Because these emotions are different, different post-consumption behaviours are predicted to happen. The following section will present some of the negative consumption emotions associated with service failures and explain their origin based on the cognitive appraisal theory and their predicted subsequent behaviours.

Anger is a negative emotion that is empirically found to be strongly related to responses consumers choose following service failures. Bougie et al. (2003) explain that anger is evoked when a situation is appraised as harmful or frustrating and others (for example, service provider) are blamed for the situation. Furthermore, studies (e.g. Folkes, 1984; Nyer, 1997, Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Zeelenberg & Pieters 2004) show that angry customers might complain, engage in negative word of mouth, switch provider and even try to hurt the service provider. Mattila and Ro (2008) found similar results within a restaurant context. According to Yi and Baumgartner (2004) angry customers in purchase-related situations yield confrontational actions.

Disappointment is similar to anger in terms of appraisal outcome and behavioural response. Disappointed consumers are also believed to engage in complaining and negative word of mouth (Mattila & Ro, 2008; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). However, Yi and Baumgartner (2004) found that these customers would be more likely to take actions related to disengagement such as ending their relationship with the service provider.

Guilt, shame, and regret are other negative emotions identified in the literature (see for example Diener et al., 1995; Izard, 1977; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Oliver, 1993) that share some similarities. They are experienced when a situation is assessed as unpleasant. Individuals experiencing these emotions commonly blame themselves for the negative event rather than others or the situation. Consumers experiencing these emotions are less likely to complain or spread negative word of mouth (Bougie et al., 2003). In particular, consumers feeling regret after a service failure incident would accept what happened and resort to switching behaviour because they believe there should be a better alternative as compared to their current choice (Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez 2011; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004; Zeelenberg, Inman, & Pieters, 2001).

As these negative emotions demonstrate, consumers who encounter service failure experience negative emotions that in turn influence their responses to the dissatisfaction. The responses differ among the emotions based on the consumers' appraisals. Chapter Three will present and critically review these responses.

2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed the peculiar nature of restaurant and the service failures that are difficult to avoid during a dining experience. It then critically reviewed three appraisal models of dissatisfaction that are mostly relevant to consumer complaint behaviour. From there it moved to explain and discuss the different approaches to understand negative emotions concentrating on the cognitive appraisal approach as it is widely accepted to explain emotions in the marketplace. As the literature has presented there is a relationship between negative emotions experienced and consumer complaint behaviour, it appears that researching negative emotions specific within a restaurant context and how they influence CCB responses is a promising area of research.

Chapter Three: Consumer complaint behaviour

3.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter will present and critically review the major models that attempt to classify consumer complaint behaviours. The factors that influence how consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents will also be introduced and those that are specifically applicable to the context of this research will be elaborated on. This chapter will contribute in presenting literature relevant to research questions two, three and four.

RQ2: How do consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents encountered in restaurants?

RQ3: What stimulates the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by consumers as a result of dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

RQ4: How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

The first section will describe and discusses the responses consumers take upon a dissatisfactory incident. It will begin by providing a brief overview of how CCB is defined in the literature and the terminology most often used. It will then review, in Section 3.3, the literature on a number of models developed to explain CCB including the most common responses to dissatisfactory experiences in the marketplace and the factors influencing these responses. Because of the context of this study, the chapter will highlight the particularities of CCB in services, specifically restaurants.

3.2 Consumer Complaint Behaviour (CCB); definition

Singh (1988, p.94) proposed a definition of CCB that has been widely accepted in the literature. He defined CCB as “a set of multiple (behavioral and non-behavioral) responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with a purchase episode” (Singh, 1988, p.94). His definition was developed after considering and critically reviewing CCB definitions previously suggested by a number of scholars (such as Day, 1984; Jacoby & Jaccard, 1981; Landon, 1980), This definition implies that for a consumer response to

qualify as CCB it has to be (1) a post-purchase response and (2) triggered by the consumer feeling dissatisfied.

Furthermore, Singh (1988) used the term *response* and not *action* as did Jacoby and Jaccard (1981, p.6) in their definition “consumer complaint is defined as an *action* taken by an individual which involves communicating something negative regarding a product or service to either the firm manufacturing or marketing that product or service, or to some third-party organizational entity”. Singh (1988) referred to CCB as a response rather than action because how consumers respond to dissatisfactory purchase experiences can be either behavioural or non-behavioural.

The early studies in dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour have focused solely on the action of consumers voicing their complaint directly to the seller. Singh (1988, p. 94) believes that “conceptualising CCB as complaints received by the seller is viewed as overly restrictive”. CCB according to Crie (2003, p. 62) “constitutes a subset of all possible responses to perceived dissatisfaction around a purchase episode, during consumption or during possession of the good (or service)”. Hence, behavioural responses in addition to voicing such as spreading negative word of mouth and contacting a third party (e.g. consumer protection agencies and the media) as well as a number of non-behavioural responses including changing the attitude towards a product or service provider should be considered within CCB (Singh, 1988).

Boote (1998, p. 145) suggests that the term “consumer dissatisfaction responses (CDRs)” be used instead of complaining behaviour so as to incorporate responses such as forgetting about the dissatisfactory episode and doing nothing (no action). Similarly, Singh (1990a, p.58) notes that unlike complaint actions the term “complaint responses implies all plausible reactions to dissatisfaction, including no-action, negative word-of-mouth communication to friends and relatives, filing a suit (among others)”. Hence, this thesis will maintain this view and use the term “responses” rather than “action” as an attempt to incorporate all probable reactions following a dissatisfactory marketplace experience. Section 3.3.1 of this chapter will further elaborate on these responses.

3.2.1 Importance of studying CCB

Understanding how to address consumer dissatisfaction and the consequent negative emotions experienced and responses undertaken including complaining is critical to organisations because no matter how much they try they cannot satisfy all consumers and guarantee a *perfect* offering (Bearden & Teel, 1983; Singh & Pandya, 1991; Varela-Neira, Vázquez-Casielles, & Iglesias-Argüelles, 2008). Precisely, in services such as restaurants it is much more difficult than other industries to avoid dissatisfied customers due to the complex nature of the offering (Chang et al., 2012; Ekiz, 2009; Mueller et al., 2003).

Since it is impossible to avoid service failures and consequently dissatisfied consumers specifically in the restaurants industry, the key is then to listen to what the customers have to say about their experiences and try to resolve any associated problem. Hence, when a consumer complains about a negative incident, managers should look at these complaints as opportunities to acknowledge problems and improve their performance. Gursoy et al. (2007) refer to them as *moments of truth* that managers should benefit from to tighten their relationship with customers, increase customer satisfaction and make them loyal to their business (Petzer & Mostert, 2012; Yuksel et al., 2006).

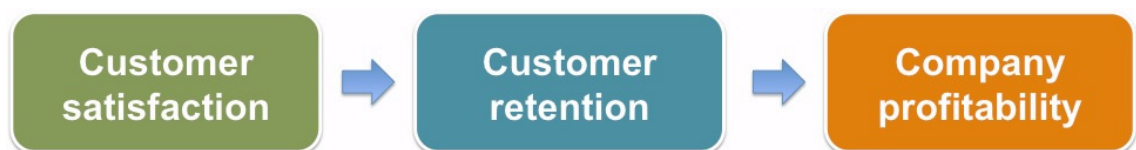
However, the literature shows that dissatisfied consumers seldom complain directly to the provider about their negative experiences (Day, Grabicke, Schaetzle, & Staubach, 1981; Gursoy et al., 2007; TARP, 1986). Although the exact figures differ from one study to another for reasons related to the design of the study what is certain is that less than half of dissatisfied consumers voice their complaints (Best & Andreasen, 1977). For instance, TARP (1986) reports that 70% of dissatisfied consumers did not directly complain to the company or service provider and Bolting (1989) indicated that 44% of dissatisfied consumers complained directly to the service provider.

The reasons why dissatisfied consumers might choose not to complain will be discussed later in this chapter as well as the other alternative responses these consumers might take. Briefly, consumers might decide instead of sharing their dissatisfaction with the service provider to boycott the business and switch

service provider, spread negative word of mouth or even take some legal actions (Blodgett, Wakefield, & Barnes, 1995; Gurse et al., 2007; Susskind, 2005). These responses could significantly damage the business and deprive managers of the opportunity to acknowledge problems, solve them and satisfy consumers (Voorhees, Brady, & Horowitz, 2006; Yuksel et al., 2006).

Ensuring that consumers are satisfied, remain loyal and advocate the business is not only important from the relationship-marketing point of view, but also has implications for the finances of the organisation. Studies suggest that the cost of attracting a new consumer is much higher than the cost of retaining an existing one (Gursoy et al., 2007; Kitapci & Dortyol, 2015). Lee, Barker and Kandampully (2003) indicate that in the service industry if an organisation decreases the defection of its consumers by 5%, its profit will increase by 25% to 80%. In an early study, Reichheld and Sasser (1989) found that in banks a decrease of 5% in the defection rate leads to an 85% increase in profits, 50% increase in insurance and a 30% increase in auto-service. Hence, losing consumers leads to lower revenues, more costs to gain new consumers and less advertising through positive word of mouth (Colgate & Norris, 2001). Egan (2011, p. 132) presents a “return on relationship model” (Figure 10) that illustrates the benefits of customer satisfaction.

Figure 10: Return on relationship model



Source: Egan (2011, p.132)

Once a service failure occurs, an efficient handling of the complaint and recovering of the problem has proven to make the dissatisfied consumer a loyal one (Gurse et al., 2007; Susskind, 2005). However this can only happen if the consumer tells the service provider about the dissatisfactory incident and not resort to the other responses. Hence, there is a strong relationship between CCB, satisfaction and retention (Bodey & Grace, 2006).

To summarise, service failures are unavoidable, especially in restaurants; consequently, there will always be dissatisfied consumers. However, not all consumers express their dissatisfaction directly to the service provider and give them the opportunity to remedy the problem but instead choose to engage in other types of responses that might have negative implications on the sustainability of the organisation. Therefore, the interest in further understanding the phenomenon of consumer dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour in the marketplace and specifically within the service sector is increasing. On the managerial level, companies are increasingly engaged in encouraging dissatisfied consumers to complain directly to them and take advantage of this opportunity to improve their offering and retain customers (Bodey & Grace, 2006; Tax & Brown, 1998).

3.2.2 The relationship between dissatisfaction and CCB

Returning briefly to Singh's (1988) definition of CCB, these post-consumption responses are triggered when consumers perceive an incident to be dissatisfactory; hence there is positive relationship between dissatisfaction and complaint responses. Similarly, Bearden and Teel (1983) suggested that complaint actions and dissatisfaction are linked. Halstead and Droge (1991) pointed out that it is widely accepted in CCB research that for complaining to happen there should be some level of consumer dissatisfaction. Recent studies have continued to show that this relationship is present and both dissatisfaction and complaining positively influence each other (Sharma et al., 2010). This co-existence is also manifested in other CCB definitions, conceptualisations and models (e.g. see Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Day, 1984; Jacoby & Jaccard, 1981; Mattila & Wirtz, 2004; Stephens & Gwinner, 1998; Thøgersen, Juhl, & Poulsen, 2009). However, one question that pervades the CCB research discipline is whether feeling dissatisfied is by itself sufficient to trigger a complaint response.

Blodgett and Granbois (1992, p. 93 -94) emphasised "negative disconfirmation leads to *dissatisfaction*, which is a *necessary*, but *not sufficient* condition for complaining behaviour". Thus, although for consumers to engage in any form of complaining it is necessary that they be somewhat dissatisfied with a market place experience, this should not imply that all dissatisfied customers would

complain. Dissatisfaction can motivate a response but it does not confirm one. To further illustrate, a recent study conducted by Namkung, Jang, and Choi, (2011) showed that following a service failure at a restaurant, even consumers who did not voice a complaint reported to have been dissatisfied. This implies that if a consumer decides not to respond to a service failure it does not necessarily mean that he or she was satisfied. Additionally, there are the “fake complainers” as Day et al. (1981) call them or “fraudulent complainers” according to Reynolds and Harris (2005). These complainers intentionally create problems to voice their complaints and benefit from the compensations offered by the organisation such as free desserts in restaurants. Their voice response is not driven by dissatisfaction.

Specifically, Day (1984) found that despite the fact that there is a link between the intensity of dissatisfaction and complaining this relationship is rather weak: explaining only 15% of the variance in CCB. In a later study, Singh and Pandya (1991) confirmed that this link is not strong and consumer dissatisfaction cannot alone motivate a complaint response. Thus, dissatisfaction is a minor factor that along with other situational and personal factors determines the type of complaint response a consumer resorts upon a negative critical consumption incident (Day, 1984). Similarly, Jacoby and Jaccard (1981) explain that complaining is not only triggered by a product or service failure but it is a complex and multidimensional phenomena influenced in addition to dissatisfaction by factors related to the marketplace, purchase or consumption situation, and the individual involved. These factors will be further discussed in Section 3.3.2.

3.2.3 The relationship between negative emotions and CCB

As mentioned in the previous chapter, negative emotions experienced following a service failure or a dissatisfactory purchase episode influence the type of post-consumption responses including CCB responses (Nyer, 1997; Tronvoll, 2011). According to Zeelenberg and Pieters (2004), dissatisfaction alone cannot predict CCB responses, whereas understanding the influence of specific negative emotions as well can help develop a more accurate insight. In congruence with the cognitive appraisal theory different emotions are elicited by

various appraisals and these emotions lead to different types of response (Nyer, 1997; Soscia, 2007).

Thus the consumption emotions literature acknowledges a relationship between specific emotions and the responses they elicit. A number of empirical studies determined what responses followed specific emotions. Zeelenberg and Pieters (2004) investigated the impact of regret and disappointment on behaviour following a dissatisfying service encounter. They found that while these two emotions influence dissatisfaction they also have a direct impact on the post-consumption response. In particular, regret is strongly associated with switching behaviour while disappointment with negative word of mouth as a venting mechanism. Bonifield and Cole (2006) found that within a restaurant context, anger is more likely to be related to “retaliatory behaviours” such as spreading negative word of mouth (NWOM), switching providers and voicing a complaint. Sánchez-García and Currás-Pérez (2011) in turn found that among users of restaurants and hotel services anger and regret provoke behavioural responses. Both emotions can influence the consumer’s intention to return to the same service provider. Tronvoll’s (2011) findings suggest that angry and frustrated tourism consumers commonly voice a complaint directly to a provider. This act is considered aggressive and helps getting back at the service provider (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997; Bougie et al., 2003; Oliver, 1989; Stauss, Schmidt, & Schoeler, 2005; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004). Furthermore Tronvoll (2011) explains that other-attributed emotions such as anger have higher impact on complaint behaviours than self-attributed and situational-attributed negative emotions such as shame and fear.

As the literature reviewed shows, negative emotions experienced in the event of a negative encounter have an impact on CCB responses. Yet they alone cannot explain this phenomenon. Dissatisfaction, negative emotions and other personal, situational factors and social factors can provide a more holistic understanding of CCB, especially within a service context which is complex, multidimensional and involves human interaction.

3.2.4 Functions of complaining

So far it has been established that:

- In service industries such as restaurants it is difficult to provide a zero-defect experience and ensure complete consumer satisfaction. It is inevitable for service providers to encounter dissatisfied consumers.
- There is a relationship between dissatisfaction and complaining, albeit a weak one. Other situational and personal factors have stronger influence on the complaint response.
- Negative emotions experienced as a result of a dissatisfactory encounter may influence behaviours including types of CCB responses undertaken.
- Only a small percentage of dissatisfied consumers complain directly to the service provider (around one third of consumers voice their dissatisfaction (Stephens & Gwinner, 1998)).

This leads researchers and practitioners to raise the question: why do consumers complain?

Kowalski (1996, p. 185) identifies four functions for complaining: “catharsis, self-presentation motivations, social comparison processes and call for remedial action”. These functions are not mutually exclusive and the same complaint can be intended to apply to more than one function.

Catharsis is the most commonly recognised reason for complaining. It helps “people to vent their frustrations and dissatisfactions” (Kowalski, 1996, p.185) and make them feel better. Alicke, Braun, Glor, Klotz, Magee, Sederhoim, and Siegel (1992) found that around 50% of complaints were motivated by the need to vent frustration. From a complaining perspective, Kowalski (1996) claims that venting helps dissatisfied consumers reflect less about the source of their dissatisfaction. In particular, Nyer (2000) reported that venting following a dissatisfactory situation helped increase the levels of consumer satisfaction.

Self-presentation “involves people's attempts to make impressions on others that will allow them to obtain desired outcomes and avoid undesired outcomes, maintain or enhance self-esteem and develop their identity” (Kowalski, 1996, p. 186). Self-presentation can be a reason to enhance complaints or inhibit them. Complaining can help people express their personal attributes. For instance, they might complain to gain acceptance from those surrounding them and show that they share similarities in opinions and values. On the contrary they might engage in complaining to stand out. Kowalski (1996) gives an example of the person who complains at a restaurant about the food and drinks to show that she or he is knowledgeable and refined in her/his choices. People might also complain in order to make others perceive them as superior or intimidating. Face saving is yet another aspect of self-presentation. Complainers attempt through saving face to influence what people think of them. It is valid for both choosing to engage in complaining or to refrain from complaining. But in either case people's intention is to leave a positive implication by their behaviour. (Kowalski, 1996)

Social comparison processes are the behaviours that people engage in in order to validate and support their ideas by comparing them to those of other people. Kowalski (1996) proposes that complaining is one of these behaviours. For example a consumer might complain about how slow the service is in a restaurant in order to compare other consumer's perception of the same service. The fourth function for complaining is call for remedial action. From a complaint perspective, this is also known as when the consumer intends from the complaint to ask for a remedy to the problem or at least an explanation for the cause of the dissatisfaction (Kowalski, 1996).

As presented above, feeling dissatisfied is not the only reason a consumer engages in complaining. Jacoby and Jaccard (1981) discussed complaints might arise from four different groups of people. The most obvious category of complainers is *dissatisfied users of a product*. As discussed earlier, dissatisfaction is necessary to have a complaint although by itself it is not sufficient; other factors should be present. However, even though it is less expected that *satisfied users of a product* voice a complaint, some consumers still do. Jacoby and Jaccard (1981) explain that their motives might be: their

likelihood of a personal financial gain from the complaint, their concern about the future performance of the product, their concern about the welfare of others or a negative attitude they have towards the organisation.

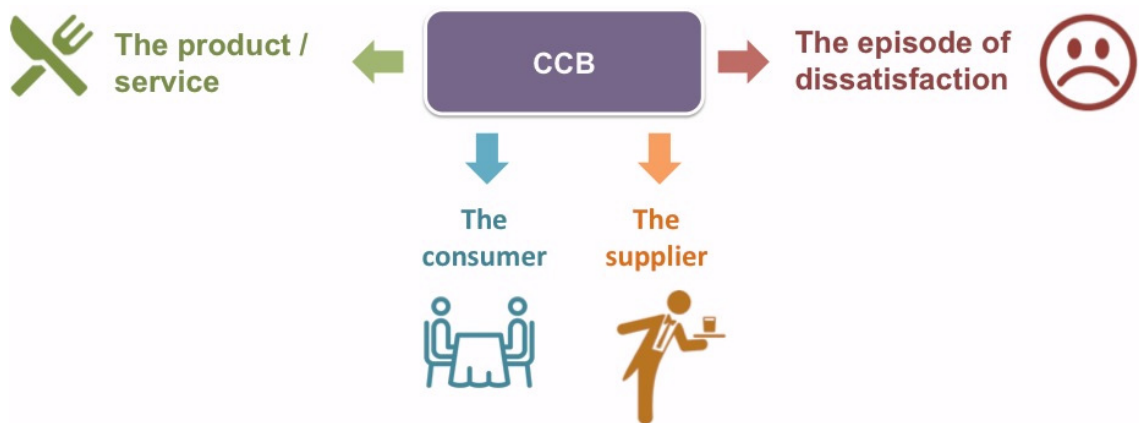
Non-users but purchasers of a product might also engage in complaining. This category includes people who purchase products as gifts or for someone else to use. They usually engage in complaining on behalf of the users if the users expressed their dissatisfaction with the product. The last category of complainers is those consumers who are *non-users and non-purchasers of a product*. It is the least obvious category of complainers. Their complaints are usually not related to a defect in a product but they might be concerned in the general wellbeing of individuals, societies and the environment.

In a more recent study, Heung and Lam (2003) tried to understand complaint motives, specifically why Chinese dissatisfied consumers engage in complaining in hotel restaurants. They identified six motives for consumer complaint ranked from the most common to the least common motive as follows: "(1) seek corrective actions, (2) ask for explanation, (3) seek apology, (4) express emotional anger, (5) seek compensation and (6) seek redress" (Heung & Lam, 2003, p.287). How these motives are ranked suggests that the Chinese consumers who complain do not primarily seek monetary compensation. The order in which the motives were arranged is strongly related to the Chinese culture and might not apply to other cultures, although there are some similarities between these motives and the ones identified by Kowalski (1996).

3.3 Models of Consumer Complaint Behaviour

"Four entities are directly involved in CCB: the product or service, the customer, the supplier and the episode of dissatisfaction" (Crie, 2003, p. 66) (see Figure 11). Hence in order to develop a complete understanding of a CCB episode, the customer, the service provider, the service and the dissatisfactory incident should be involved and the relationship between them should be considered.

Figure 11: CCB main elements



Source: Crie (2003)

The literature suggests that a consumer complaint response towards a dissatisfactory incident should not be regarded as an instant response but rather as a sequential process involving multi-evaluations of the situation over time and throughout the episode (Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Sharma et al., 2010). It is a complex and dynamic process during which each of the main elements (introduced above) continuously influences others, and is not a simple response to a dissatisfactory consumption episode (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Tronvoll, 2007).

Tronvoll (2007) especially, argues that CCB within a service context should be examined as a process and not a “static phenomenon”. A service, unlike a product, is the result of the ongoing interaction between a service provider and a customer. Thus, a service failure and subsequently a complaint are parts of the overall service interaction. CCB is “tightly interwoven with the initial service interaction and the subsequent evaluation of value-in-use” (Tronvoll, 2007, p. 602). Tronvoll’s (2007) argument is based on studying CCB from the “service-dominant logic” approach proposed by Vargo and Lusch (2004) and Lusch and Vargo (2006). This logic is a “dynamic concept whereby an interactive co-creation process drives the overall service experience and results in value-in-use for the customer” (Tronvoll, 2007, p.602). Ballantyne and Varey (2006) divided this interaction into two processes: (1) an initial service interaction between the service provider and the customer and (2) the evaluation process undertaken by the customer of the service. Hence, according to this approach the evaluation of the overall service experience starts with the appraisal of the

initial interaction that in turn constitutes the basis for further appraisals of interactions that spread over time during the service experience.

A review of CCB literature shows that the research has generally focused on two main streams. The first attempted to classify the various types of responses to dissatisfaction (e.g, Day, 1980; Day & Landon, 1977; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988). The second stream attempted to identify the antecedents for complaining behaviour and how they influenced the responses (e.g. Bolting, 1989; Day, 1984; Singh, 1990a). Consequently, and based on these two streams of research, a number of scholars proposed theoretical models that systematically organise the motivators or antecedents of CCB and attempt to explain how they influence the consequent responses (e.g Boote, 1998; Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Crie, 2003; Stephens & Gwinner, 1998).

This section of the chapter will start by reviewing and discussing the literature related to the possible responses to dissatisfaction. It will then elaborate around the antecedents that have an influence on complaint responses. The next section (Section 3.4) will end by presenting and discussing the model developed by Boote (1998) to conceptualise the CCB process. This model is comprehensive and summarises all the main theories and concepts that have been reviewed in Chapters Two and Three.

3.3.1 Responses to dissatisfaction

As indicated previously, the majority of dissatisfied consumers decide not to voice their complaints directly to service providers for several reasons that will be discussed in the next section. However, they choose to respond in other manners such as complaining to a third party, spreading negative word of mouth, boycotting the service or product, switching to another service provider or doing nothing (Gursev et al., 2007; Zaugg & Jaggi, 2006). Specifically, Oliver (1997) notes that *doing nothing* is the most common response to dissatisfaction.

Four major classifications of CCB can be identified in the literature. Hirschman (1970) is widely regarded as the pioneer in attempting to understand the responses to dissatisfaction. Although his classification is considered a

foundation in establishing CCB taxonomy, his study was not related to consumer behaviour but to understanding the possible responses towards the decline in performance in states and organisations. Hirschman's (1970) taxonomy included three possible consumer responses to dissatisfaction: (a) exit, (b) voice and (c) loyalty.

Exit: The dissatisfied consumer voluntarily chooses to end the relationship with the service provider. In other words, boycott the brand or service provider and switch to an alternative choice. Crie (2003) classifies this response as a destructive act to the organisation. When consumers leave a supplier and switch to another, the organisation may never know where it has failed.

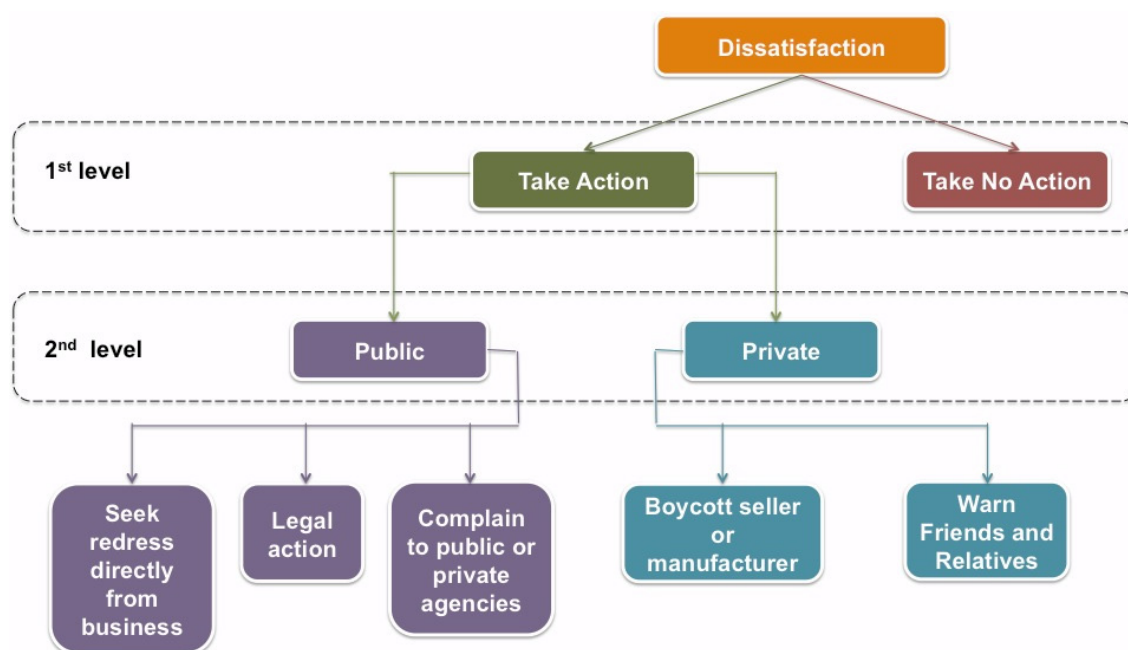
Voice: Includes all activities the consumer takes to directly express dissatisfaction and negative feelings to the supplier to seek redress. It also involves his/her sharing of the experience with family or friends. As opposed to exit, voice should be considered by organisations as a constructive response because consumers expect a permanent resolution of the problem as an outcome of their complaint (Crie, 2003).

Loyalty: Regardless of the dissatisfying episode, the consumer continues to be loyal to the brand or service provider. In this case the dissatisfied consumers do not boycott the brand. However if they choose to voice their complaint directly to the management, it will not be with the intention of seeking redress or venting, but instead to help the management acknowledge and resolve the problem (Gurse et al., 2007; Kim & Chen, 2010). Hence, even if it is a passive response, it is also constructive (Crie, 2003).

Soon after Hirschman's classification, several taxonomies for the possible types of dissatisfaction response were developed within the CCB discipline. Day and Landon (1977) developed a classification schema with two-level hierarchy (Figure 12). In the schema, the first level divides the responses between behavioural (Take Action) and non-behavioural (No Action). In the second level they differentiated between public and private behavioural responses. In this level they extended Hirschman's (1970) voice response and acknowledged that expressing the feeling of dissatisfaction can be either a private (e.g. spreading

negative word of mouth) or a public act (e.g. complaining directly to the service provider) (Yuksel et al., 2006). Hence, public actions involve seeking redress directly from the service provider, taking legal actions or complaining to public or private agencies. In other words it involves all behavioural responses consumers take outside their immediate social milieu such as family and friends. Moliner-Velazquez, Fuentes Blasco, Gil Saura, & Berenguer Contrí (2010) suggest that taking legal actions or complaining to a third party are public responses consumers take when (1) they have failed to find a solution to their problem with the seller, (2) they believe that their problem is severe or (3) they perceive that the dissatisfactory incident they have experienced may involve other customers. Private actions, on the other hand include spreading negative word of mouth or boycotting the seller or manufacturer. The latter is similar to Hirschman's (1970) exit response.

Figure 12: Day and Landon's (1977) classification of CCB



Source: Singh (1988, p.95)

When compared to Hirschman's (1970) taxonomy, the above-mentioned schema offers a more comprehensive classification of CCB responses. In addition to differentiating between behavioural and non-behavioural responses, private and public actions, it identifies specific behavioural responses that a consumer would take as a result of a dissatisfactory episode. However, this

schema fails to offer details about the “Take no action” component in its first level. Singh (1988) notes that although responses that fall under this element are considered to have a passive nature, it is important to recognise them as forms of CCB responses. On one hand, including them in a classification model will help to develop a better understanding of CCB responses (Singh, 1988). On the other hand, empirical studies have shown that non-behavioural responses to dissatisfaction have significant negative implications on the profitability of an organisation (Emir, 2011). It might appear that when consumers decide to take no action that they have decided to stay silent and forget about the incident; however some authors suggest that consumers would change their attitude towards the seller, manufacturer or product. Changing attitude implies that the consumer has decided to forget but not to forgive (Moliner-Velazquez et al., 2010).

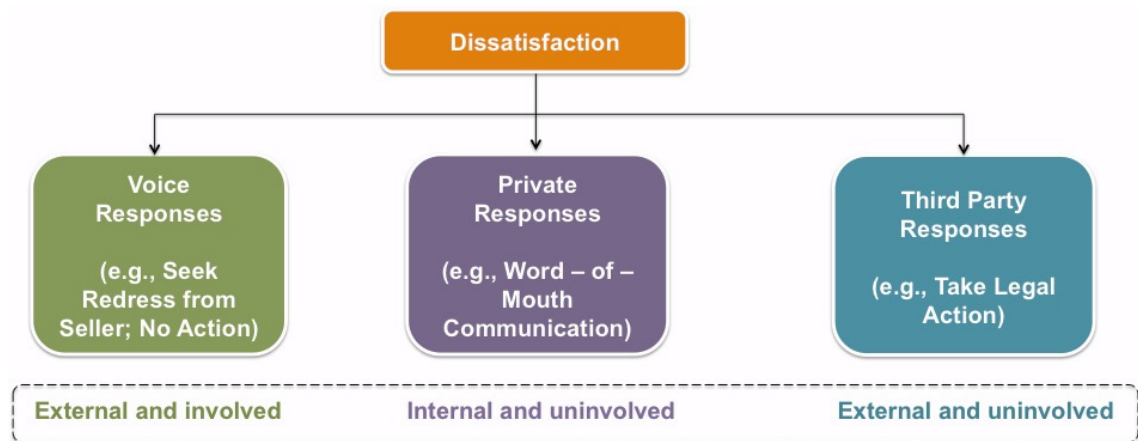
Day (1980) extended Day and Landon’s (1977) taxonomy and proposed that the classification at the second level (private and public behavioural responses) be based on the purpose of complaining. Day (1980) explains that consumers complain because they want to achieve particular objectives. Hence, in his taxonomy, Day (1980) differentiates between three categories of behavioural responses:

- (1) *Redress seeking*: consumers choose to complain with the intention to seek remedy for the problem directly or indirectly from the seller, manufacturer or service provider.
- (2) *Complaining*: consumers in this case express their dissatisfaction not to seek remedy for the problem, but for reasons such as persuading others through spreading word of mouth or influencing future behaviour.
- (3) *Personal Boycott*: the motive behind this behavioural response is simply to terminate the relationship of the consumer with the brand, product, store or service provider.

The fourth major attempt to classify CCB was by Singh (1988). His taxonomy appears to be widely referred to in the CCB literature (Boote, 1998; Gursev et al., 2007; Emir, 2011; Namkung et al., 2011). Singh (1988) reviewed the earlier CCB classifications and criticised how the categories were developed. He noted that the categories were subjectively derived based on what the researchers believed to be a suitable classification. Consequently, he proposed an alternative taxonomy with three dimensions that he empirically supported. Each of these dimensions embodies actions that consumers perceive as similar however these actions are seen as distinct across the dimensions (Gursev et al., 2007). The main criterion he used for this classification is “identifying the object toward which the CCB responses are directed” (Singh, 1988, p. 104).

The three dimensions in this classification schema are: (1) voice, (2) private and (3) third party. *Voice* involves actions addressed directly to the seller or service provider. Hence, “directed to objects that are external to the consumer’s social circle... and are directly involved in the dissatisfying exchange” (Singh, 1988, p. 104). The main purpose of this type of response is usually to seek redress, save other consumers from having the same dissatisfying experience or helping the organisation to acknowledge and correct the problem (Emir, 2011). Private actions on the other hand reflect all the responses that are directed towards objects “not directly involved in the dissatisfying experience (e.g., self, friends, relatives, etc.)” (Singh, 1988, p. 104). These actions include communicating negative word of mouth or boycotting the seller and/or service provider (exit). Third party includes those actions that involve external agencies or taking legal actions. Like voice, they are directed to “objects that are external to the consumer... but they are not directly involved in the dissatisfying transaction” (Singh, 1988, p. 104). Therefore, and building upon what has been presented above, the categorisation of the CCB responses was based on: (1) external vs. internal and (2) involved vs. uninvolved. Singh’s (1988) taxonomy of CCB responses is presented in Figure 13.

Figure 13: Singh's taxonomy of CCB responses



Source: Singh (1988, p.101)

Similarly in a more recent study, Nyer (2000) suggests that behavioural responses to dissatisfaction can be differentiated based on the purpose of the complaint as well as who is the recipient of the complaint. For instance, consumers who directly complain to the seller or the service provider might be seeking a solution to the source of the dissatisfaction, looking to gain a material or economic compensation, suggesting a permanent improvement to the offer or venting their anger to be emotionally relieved.

Although this classification schema is the most referred to model in the CCB literature as mentioned earlier, it has received criticism from scholars. The main issue for criticising this taxonomy is including the “No Action” response under the voice responses dimension. Boote (1998) questioned the appropriateness of this decision and the absence of a non-behavioural dimension; under which a “no action” response would be better placed. Boote’s (1998) argument is strong as it attempts to differentiate between behavioural and non-behavioural responses that Singh (1998) did not acknowledge. However, Singh (1988) in his explanation of the taxonomy recognises the possibility of this confusion and further clarifies that he believes no action responses “appear to reflect feelings toward the seller” (Singh, 1988, p. 104). Hence they are external and involved in the sense that they are directed towards the seller or the service provider (outside the customer’s social circle) and involved in the dissatisfactory episode.

Boote (1998) acknowledges the significance of Singh's (1988) taxonomy having a categorisation basis of two-factors (external vs. internal and involved vs. uninvolved), however he points out that this taxonomy fails to reflect the more recent conceptualisations of CCB which regard it as a sequential process taking into account the ongoing interaction during the dissatisfactory incident between the consumer and the supplier. In particular and according to these views, the type of complaint response a consumer chooses is dependent on the outcome of previous responses taken, more precisely, how the supplier or service provider responded.

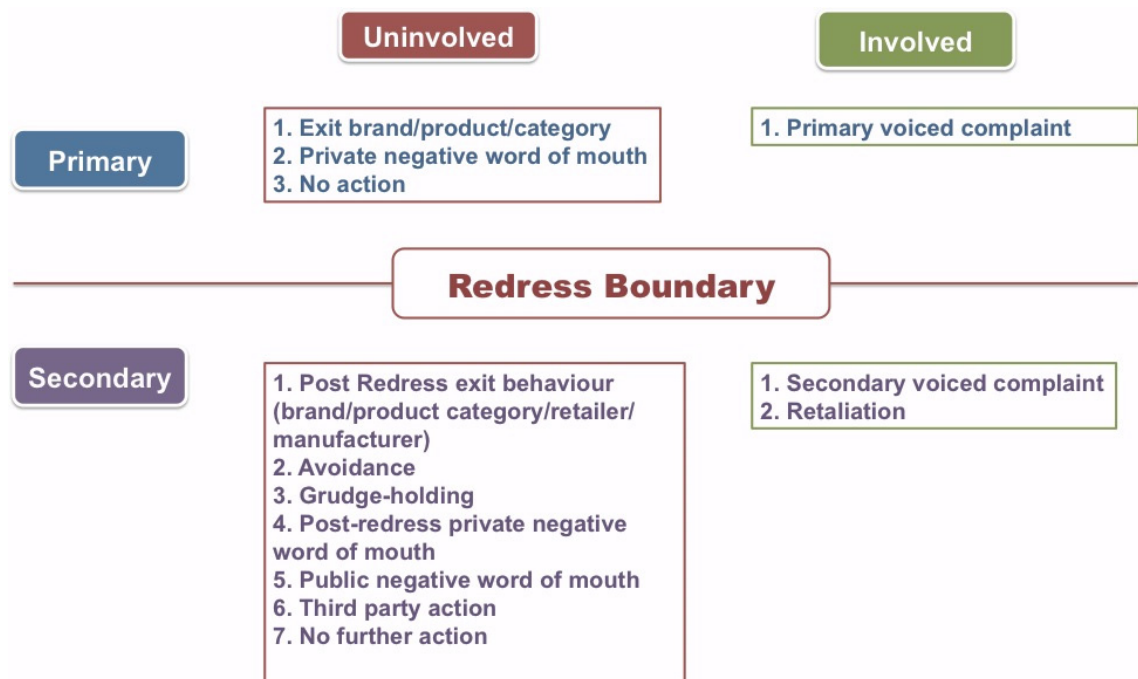
Blodgett and Granbois (1992) emphasise that CCB should be treated as a process that takes into consideration how satisfied/dissatisfied the consumer is with the response of the seller to the voiced complaint. They refer to this notion as perceived justice. Hence they suggest that upon a dissatisfactory critical incident, the consumer first chooses to voice the complaint directly to the seller or service provider. In case the response received was not satisfactory, the consumer then resorts to other responses such as exit, negative word of mouth (NWOM) and third party; this is known as perceived justice. Based on this, Boote (1998) introduced a new factor for classifying CCB responses; primary vs. secondary responses in addition to the factor identified by Singh (1988), involved vs. uninvolved.

In his proposed taxonomy, Boote (1998) chooses the four types of CCB responses widely acknowledged in the literature: voice, negative word of mouth, exit and third party. "Voice is seen as a primary behaviour, negative word-of-mouth and exit may be either primary or secondary, and third party action is a secondary CCB" (Boote, 1998, p. 144). It is essential to point out that CCB responses are not exclusive; consumers are not limited to one type of response. Responses "can be utilised by consumers in various combinations" (Day & Bodur, 1978, p. 263). In fact, consumers might choose to seek redress directly from the seller and still warn friends and spread NWOM (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Zaugg & Jaggi, 2006). Thus according to this taxonomy, if a consumer experiences a dissatisfactory incident during a dining occasion, she is expected to first voice her complaint directly to the restaurant staff (provider). If she is not satisfied with how the restaurant staff handled the complaint (perceived justice)

she will engage in other types of responses such as telling her friends about this incident (NWOM). However, on a similar occasion, the consumer may choose to engage in NWOM and/or exit *along* with voicing the complaint or *instead* of voicing the complaint. Hence for this reason, Boote (1998) introduced the concept “redress boundary” to differentiate between the NWOM and Exit responses based on when they occurred in relationship to Voice (before, alongside or after).

Boote (1998) also included in his taxonomy three responses not recognised before in previous CCB classification: avoidance, retaliation and grudge-holding. These responses were proposed first by Huefner and Hunt (1994). According to these authors, retaliation involves revenge and “getting even” with the provider. Huefner and Hunt (2000, p.63) define it as “You got me. I got you back. Now we’re even.” It is an aggressive behaviour that the dissatisfied consumer engages in with the intention of getting even with the organisation. It is cathartic and helps consumers feel that they achieved “a state of psychological equity” (Huefner and Hunt, 2000). Avoidance and grudge-holding fall under exit, but a long-term exit. Consumers who choose avoidance will boycott the seller/provider for some time but will return at some point in the future. Those who choose grudge-holding will leave for much longer periods and might not return. Figure 14 details the taxonomy developed by Boote (1998).

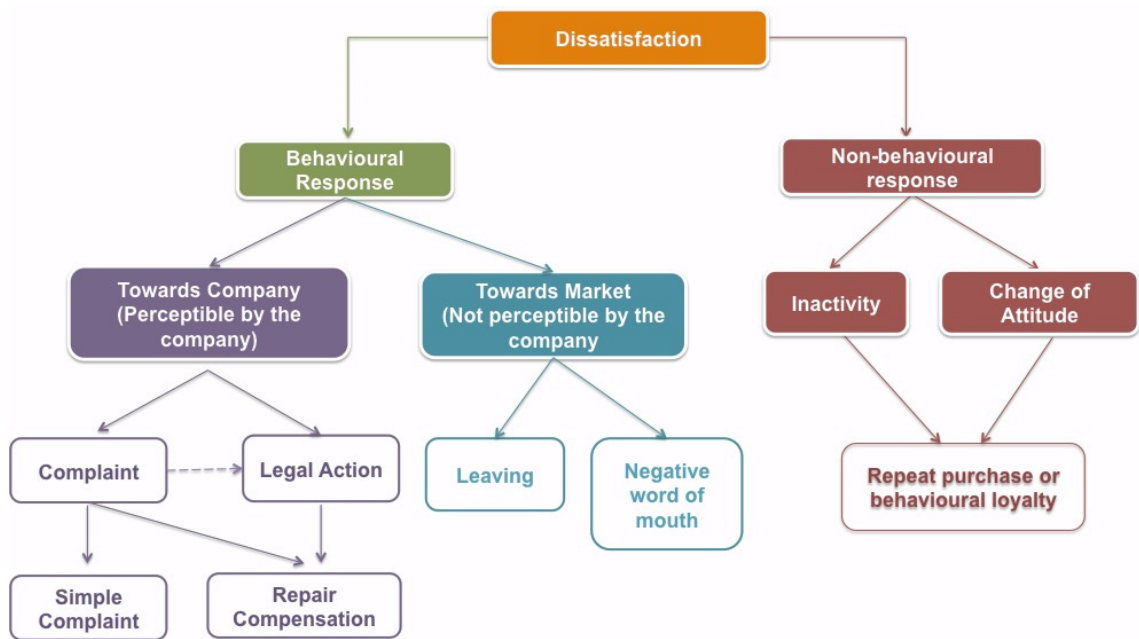
Figure 14: Two-factor taxonomy of consumer dissatisfaction responses



Source: Boote (1998, p. 145)

So far this section has reviewed the major classifications of CCB responses stretched along a period of three decades. These taxonomies show that there are generally five responses consumers choose from to express dissatisfaction; voice, exit, third party action, negative word of mouth and silence (see Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Boote, 1998; Day, 1980; Day & Landon, 1977; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988). Crie (2003) developed a classification (Figure 15) that put together the significant elements of these previous categorisations. In his classification he distinguishes between behavioural and non-behavioural responses. However, non-behavioural responses are elaborated upon more than in the earlier models. Crie (2003) suggests that both inactivity and change of attitude influence repeat purchase intentions. Within the behavioural responses, furthermore, Crie (2003) introduced a factor where he differentiated between responses directed towards the company and those directed towards the market. He suggests that the latter are not visible by the company such as negative word of mouth and exit.

Figure 15: Crie's taxonomy of CCB responses



Source: Crie (2003, p. 63)

3.3.1.1 Complaining through online channels (online complaining)

Expanding on the existing classifications and in particular the taxonomy developed by Day and Landon (1977), Mattila and Wirtz (2004) introduced the complaint channel element. They linked this dimension to the voice response (seek redress directly) only. Hence according to their model, after deciding to voice the complaint directly to the seller, consumers choose the medium (channel) through which they want to express their dissatisfaction. Mattila and Wirtz (2004) differentiate the channels depending on the interaction level associated to them. They identified interactive versus remote channels. Complaints through face-to-face and phone interactions fall under interactive channels. Voicing complaints via letter or email are classified as remote channels of communication because they do not include direct interaction with the seller.

Although this study acknowledges that complaints can be voiced through remote channels (such as emails) that do not require direct physical interaction, the authors, however, overlooked the fact that negative word of mouth and third party actions can be initiated through these remote channels as well. Hence, the model would have been more comprehensive if the authors had included

channel types for the other behavioural responses. To illustrate, a consumer can spread negative word of mouth by simply talking to friends and relatives (interactive channel). But the same consumer can also send an email to many recipients (which can turn into a chain email) sharing her negative experience with a product or service provider (remote channel). Similarly, a complaint to a third party can be done through the interactive channels (face to face or phone) or through the remote channels (email or letter). Furthermore, it is understood why this study does not include complaining through social media (as a remote channel) such as Facebook and Twitter, for the mere fact that it was written before they existed (Facebook was launched in 2004 and Twitter was launched in 2006).

Zaugg and Jaggi (2006) suggested that the channels of communication be categorised on the basis of online and offline. Unlike Matilla and Wirtz (2004) who only recognised a channel difference for the voice response, Zaugg and Jaggi (2006) in their model proposed that voice to the company, voice to a third party and negative word of mouth can be either expressed through offline or online communication channels. Offline channels include: face-to-face, phone (e.g. call-centres) and letter (e.g. comments cards); whereas online channels include e-mail and websites. Here again, the social networking platforms were not yet included as online complaint channels.

However, more recent research in consumer complaint behaviour has started to focus on complaining using the online platforms, referred to in the literature as online complaining or e-complaining. It involves using the internet to voice complaints either “privately” to the company or a third party or “publically” on the online platforms (Andreassen & Streukens, 2013). Because of the scope of the thesis, online complaining will be briefly reviewed. However, when studying CCB and developing a comprehensive taxonomy for the responses during this era, it is essential to consider the role of the Internet in expressing dissatisfaction and acknowledge online complaining. This is critical to the service industry, specifically restaurants, as more dissatisfied customers are publically sharing their negative incidents using Twitter, Facebook, or other websites such as Planetfeedback.com (Tyrrel & Woods, 2004).

Grégoire, Tripp, and Legoux (2009) define online complaining as “the act of using the internet to publicly complain about firms” (p.18). Scholars researching this area suggest that available online channels encourage more dissatisfied consumers to voice their complaints and make companies hear their frustrations (Andreassen & Streukens, 2013; Mattila & Wirtz, 2004). On the one hand, this is beneficial to organisations as explained earlier; it gives them the opportunity to become aware of the problems, attend to them appropriately and consequently turn dissatisfied consumers into satisfied ones. On the other hand, it is becoming a threat to organisations. As Tim Weber (2010), the editor of BBC Business writes, “these days one witty tweet, one clever blog post, one devastating video – forwarded to hundreds of friends at the click of a mouse – can snowball and kill a product or damage a company's share price”.

Ward and Ostrom (2006) argue that when companies fail to resolve consumers' complaints addressed to them in private, the consumers are more likely to engage in online public complaining, similar to what Boote (1998) referred to as secondary responses. Hence, online complaining ranges from short posts via social media to complaints on consumer websites. Social media includes social networking sites and micro-blogs (e.g. Facebook, Twitter), content communities (e.g. YouTube), wikis, blogs, forums, and podcasts (Mayfield, 2008). There are several advantages for consumers to use online channels for complaining; easy-to-use and highly available, efficient way to handle complaints, convenient, less time-consuming, and can be done anywhere and anytime (Tyrrel & Woods, 2004). Also it is found to decrease the cost of complaint on the consumer (Hong & Lee, 2005) and the psychological cost like the stress that might occur from face-to-face interactions (Robertson & Shaw, 2005).

The above-mentioned taxonomies of CCB responses presented and reviewed demonstrate that regardless of the classification scheme there are generally five responses to dissatisfaction; voice, exit, third party action, negative word of mouth and silence (doing nothing). However, this thesis assumes the view that CCB in a service context is a sequential process that takes into account the ongoing interaction between the consumer and the service provider during the dissatisfying encounter. Hence, it will adopt the taxonomy of responses proposed by Boote (1998) as it fits the scope of the study. Besides

differentiating between involved and uninvolved responses, this classification acknowledges the concept of perceived justice and distinguishes between primary and secondary responses. It shows that secondary complaint responses depend on the outcome of the primary voice complaint; specifically how the service provider handled the complaint.

3.3.1.2 Most common complaint responses

The majority of the statistics regarding the most commonly used responses come from the early studies that investigated CCB. From the reviewed literature for this thesis only a handful of studies provided new statistical figures. Although the figures that will be presented are not very recent, however they are still being referred to in recent works as they reflect the propensity of behaviour of dissatisfied consumers.

Best and Andreasen (1977) suggest that voiced complaints are not a proper reflection of the number of times consumers are dissatisfied with a product or service. They introduce what they call the "tip-of-the-iceberg" stating that "the complaints people make about their purchases of products and services represent only a fraction of the problems they perceive concerning those purchases" (Best & Andreasen, 1977, p. 701). In fact, in their study they found that 60% of the dissatisfied consumers did not take any action. Their findings align with the general belief in the CCB literature that the majority of dissatisfied consumers do not take any action (Andreassen, 2001; Singh & Pandya, 1991; TARP, 1996). Hence, silence (doing nothing) seems to be the prevalent response towards dissatisfaction.

Su and Bowen (2001) found that these percentages do not stand within a restaurant context. They found that dissatisfied consumers who chose to stay silent (42%) are fewer than those who complained directly to the management (58%). In a more recent study Namkung et al. (2011) found that regardless of the service stage, consumers at restaurants have a high tendency to voice their complaints (65.1 – 83.1%) when they encounter a service failure. These findings confirm an earlier study conducted by Day and Ash (1979). They reported differences in the types of responses chosen to act upon dissatisfaction between durable and non-durable goods. More consumers for

non-durable goods (for instance services) voiced their complaints directly to the seller than with durable good. However, the percentages of consumers who warned their families and friends were very close with both types of goods. Similarly, Warland, Herrmann, and Willits (1975) reported that personally complaining directly to the service provider was the most frequent activity undertaken by dissatisfied consumers.

Best and Andreasen (1977) and Warland et al. (1975) both found that *exit*; was the next most common type of action following voice. In particular, Best and Andreasen (1977) indicated that about half of the dissatisfied consumers who choose to exit switched to other brands or service providers. In Warland et al. (1975) complaining to family and friends (NWOM) came third followed by taking a third party action.

Halstead (2002) found that dissatisfied consumers who have voiced their complaints are more prone to engage in negative word of mouth, hence, classifying NWOM as a secondary response as per Boote's (1998) classification. Similarly, Bolting (1989) reported that the percentage of consumers who engaged in NWOM was more if they had already voiced their complaint. Hence, this can lead to a conclusion that NWOM is more common as a secondary type of response that occurs when dissatisfied consumers are not happy with how their complaints were handled. In contrast, Jones, McCleary, and Lepisto (2002) suggest that dissatisfied consumers in a restaurant would spread NWOM if they choose not to voice their complaint directly to the management. This confirms earlier findings from Blodgett et al. (1995) stating that dissatisfied consumers who had already voiced their complaints are less likely to engage in other forms of responses such as NWOM.

Taking third party action was almost non-existent in Best and Andreasen (1977) with only 0.5%. The reasons why third party action is the last option for dissatisfied consumers is because it involves more effort and time than the other responses. Hence fewer consumers choose it especially as a primary response (Emir, 2011). Within the restaurant context and in response to regular service failures related to operations, third party actions are believed to be irrelevant (Jones et al., 2002).

To sum up, the five CCB responses identified in the literature are: voice, NWOM, exit, no action and third party action. There have been a number of studies that investigated the propensity of the dissatisfied consumers to engage in any of these responses and what stimulates these responses. However, it appears to be interesting to have a closer look at how consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents they encounter in restaurants and see how it can widen the understanding of CCB in services.

3.3.2 What stimulates CCB responses?

There is a general agreement in the CCB literature that dissatisfaction alone is not sufficient to trigger a complaint and only a small fraction of dissatisfied consumers voice a complaint. It is also argued that the consumer's decision to engage in a complaint response when experiencing a dissatisfactory episode is influenced by other factors. Many CCB scholars have attempted to identify these triggers. Table 6 summarises some of these attempts (e.g. Bolting, 1989; Crie, 2003; Day, 1984; Jacoby & Jaccard, 1981; Singh, 1990a).

Table 6: A review of various triggers to dissatisfaction

Author(s)	Date	Triggers of dissatisfaction
Jacoby and Jaccard	1981	Marketing channel factors: reputation, ease of access, willingness to provide redress, perception of firm's intention. Consumer variables: personality, attitudes, motives, perceived value of time, information level, and socio-demographics. Situational factors: importance of the situation, social climate.
Singh	1990a	Consumer characteristics: demographics, personality characteristics. Episode specific characteristics: cost/benefit evaluation, attribution of blame, probability of successful redress, type of product or service.
Day	1984	What product feature/situation aspects caused the dissatisfaction? Who is responsible for the failure? What can the seller/service provider do to make things better? What can the customer do to make the seller/provider respond? What is the cost (time and money) of the action? What does the customer expect to gain? Comparison of the costs and benefits.
Bolfing	1989	Consumer characteristics: demographics, personality traits. Characteristics of the consumption experience: the severity of the dissatisfaction, the importance of the situation, attribution of blame, perceived benefits and costs of complaining. Perception of the redress environment: responsiveness of the service provider to correct problems, ease of complaining.
Crie	2003	Psychological sphere: sociocultural factors, frustration/assurance, learning, attribution, attitude/complaint, experiences, educational level. Economic sphere: structure of the market, frequency of purchases, interactions buyer/seller, costs of the complaint, probability of success, expected profit, incomes, switching barriers. Ethical sphere: equity, loyalty, information.

Although minor differences can be spotted between the different lists of triggers, there seems to be a high level of consistency between them. All authors agree that the “likelihood that a consumer will complain when experiencing product or service defects or deficiencies depends on the person as well as the situation” (Thøgersen et al., 2009, p. 773). Situational factors refer to the issues related to the dissatisfactory episode such as the importance of the situation and how easy it is to complain. Personal factors are related to the individual (e.g. demographics, attitude towards complaining, and personality traits). Furthermore, the attribution to blame factor (deciding on who is responsible for the failure) was also identified as a trigger to complaining.

Hence, and as a result of reviewing previous literature, Boote (1998) compiled an extensive list of eight triggers believed to significantly influence and predict complaint responses. This section will be framed around this structure while acknowledging related antecedents identified by other authors as well as factors specifically significant in a restaurant context.

3.3.2.1 Situational factors

The dissatisfying episode is one of the key entities of CCB. Some of its characteristics will influence how the consumer responds to the dissatisfaction. These characteristics are referred to in the literature as situational factors. Thøgersen et al. (2009) state that these factors are significant predictors of CCB. Similarly, Day (1980) notes that the “*lion’s share*” of voicing complaint seem to be triggered by factors related to the dissatisfying situation. A number of situational triggers have been identified in the literature. To name some: the importance of the product or service (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2002), the intensity of the dissatisfaction (Prakash, 1991; Singh & Pandya, 1991), the perceived costs and benefits of complaining (Singh & Wilkes, 1996), the cost of the product or service (Kolodinsky, 1993), easiness to complain (Mattila & Wirtz, 2004) and the likelihood of success (Stephens & Gwinner, 1998).

In particular, Su and Bowen (2001) proposed that within a restaurant context, the following situational factors motivate consumers' responses to dissatisfaction: (1) intensity of dissatisfaction, (2) the importance of the dining experience and (3) perceived assurance of receiving resolution (the likelihood of success). Similarly, Moliner-Velazquez, Contrí, Saura, and Blasco (2006) integrated these three situational determinants in their model.

Singh and Pandya (1991) researched the impact of the intensity of dissatisfaction on the type of response. They found that the type of complaining response varies with the intensity of dissatisfaction. They used the term "threshold effect" to indicate that consumers choose the type of responses based on how dissatisfied they are with a situation. Hence, low intensity dissatisfaction might lead to exit and negative word of mouth. Such responses do not require immense efforts. As the intensity of dissatisfaction increases the consumer will be motivated to engage in CCB responses that require more effort such as voicing a complaint directly to the service provider. However, with situations when consumers feel high intensity of dissatisfaction they will be more willing to engage in CCB responses that involve substantial time and effort. In such situations, they might choose to combine private, public and third party responses.

Similarly Johnston (1998, p.74) found that "the number and types of responses made by a dissatisfied consumer will be proportional to the intensity of dissatisfaction". Hence, as the dissatisfaction intensity increased the number of responses engaged in increased. Furthermore, even when choosing to use negative word of mouth, the number of people told about the negative incident increased proportionately with the intensity of dissatisfaction. Slightly dissatisfied consumers would tell on average one person about their experience whereas the number rises to an average of 10 with extremely annoyed consumers and to an average of 20 with absolutely furious consumers (Johnston, 1998).

How important the dining occasion is to the consumer has a significant role in determining what complaint response to take (Day & Bodur, 1978; Singh, 1990b). Consumers will more probably complain directly to the seller when they are dissatisfied with a product important to them (Hirschman, 1970). Blodgett and Granbois (1992, p.98) further explain “given dissatisfaction, the decision to seek redress is dependent upon whether the product is ‘important’ enough to warrant the time and emotional energy that it takes to complain to the retailer”. Hence, when the product is important the consumer will be motivated to engage in a CCB response, whereas with a less important product the consumer will not be as motivated. Bloch and Richins (1983) indicate that the importance of the product is related to how much ‘worth’ a person ascribes to a product or service. Thus, it is subjective in nature. It can be about its high price, how vital it is in daily life or the joy it gives to the person (Blodgett et al., 1995).

Within restaurants, Su and Bowen (2001) point out that the amount of worth consumers attach to their dining experiences influences their intensity of dissatisfaction, which in turn influences their complaint response. The findings of Kim and Chen (2010) indicate that: dissatisfied consumers in dining occasions that were highly important to them were more likely to engage in both public and private responses such as voicing their complaint directly to the service provider, spreading negative word of mouth and choosing to exit. Similarly Chang et al. (2012, p. 612) argue “customers, when dining on occasions they perceive to be important, tend to react more strongly to service failures”. To illustrate, a person has organised a family re-union to celebrate the 50th anniversary of her parents. She has chosen the best restaurant to her knowledge and has taken care of all the details in order to make her family happy and create a day to remember. In this case this person has attached a lot of worth to this dining occasion and it is very important to her. If any problem occurs (e.g. delay in the service), her level of dissatisfaction will be very high and consequently she will be highly motivated to take action.

Perceived assurance of receiving resolution, also referred to in the literature as the likelihood of success, also affects the complaint response. Blodgett and Granbois (1992, p.99) define it as “the perceived probability that the retailer will remedy the problem without protest”. Hirschman (1970) was the first to

postulate a positive strong relationship between voice (seek redress) and the perceived likelihood of the success of the complaint. Since then several empirical results have shown that dissatisfied consumers are motivated more to complain if they believe that there is a high likelihood of success with their complaint, i.e. the problem will be resolved (Moliner-Velazquez et al., 2010). Consequently, consumers who perceive that there is a low probability their complaint will lead to a resolution are more reluctant to voice a complaint and might engage in other types of responses such as exit and NWOM (Bodey & Grace, 2007).

This construct is believed to have a significant impact on complaint behaviour. Granbois, Summers, and Frazier (1977) found that the majority, 77% of people who believed that the retailer will resolve their problem complained directly to the retailer. Day et al. (1981) explain that a consumer who feels that the probability of success is low might choose not to respond to a dissatisfaction even if she believes that the benefit of complaining is high. In particular, Singh (1990a) posited that the type of complaint response is dependent on the perception of the likelihood of success. Hence, dissatisfied consumers voiced their complaints when they believed that the likelihood of success was high. On the other hand, they chose to spread negative word of mouth and/or exit when they perceived a low likelihood of success. Therefore, Su and Bowen (2001) suggest that it is to the advantage of service providers to assure consumers that their complaints would be properly handled and the problems resolved, and that there are benefits from complaining. This will motivate consumers to voice their complaints directly to the management even if it will require some time and effort.

3.3.2.2 Attribution

Attribution is a construct relevant to studying consumer satisfaction, dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour. It is involved in the appraisal processes along the course of a dissatisfactory event. As mentioned in Chapter Two, it is one of the models that explain dissatisfaction (cognitive appraisal). Attribution is also a dimension in the cognitive appraisal model of emotions, specifically blame or credit, and consequently has an impact on the elicited emotions.

Additionally, attribution is believed to influence the types of CCB responses undertaken.

When a service failure occurs, consumers will look for whom to blame for the problem. This issue is referred to in the literature as attribution. Responsibility, stability and controllability are the three dimensions of attribution (Weiner, 2000). Dissatisfied consumers may take responsibility for the failure (internal) or blame it on others (external). This dimension influences CCB and leads consumers to respond differently to dissatisfaction. Hence, consumers who blame themselves for the dissatisfaction usually do not engage in any form of CCB response. However, consumers who find others responsible for the service failure will respond to the dissatisfaction (Phau & Sari, 2004). For instance, if a consumer forgot to tell the waiter how she likes her steak (internal responsibility) she is more likely not to complain about it. But, if she clearly mentioned to the waiter that she wants it well done and she got something different (external responsibility), then she is more prone to respond to this dissatisfaction.

Controllability is another attribution dimension that influences CCB. This dimension refers to whether the organisation is able to prevent the failure from occurring. Consumers who believe that the organisation could have avoided the problem are more likely to boycott the service provider and spread NWOM than those who believe that the organisation had no control over the failure (Crie, 2003; Su & Bowen, 2001). For example, if the service was slow because of an unexpected problem in the kitchen the consumer would sympathise and respond differently than if the slow service was due to the fact that the waiters are chatting to each other and neglecting the customers (a problem that can be avoided).

Stability refers to the perception of the consumer whether the problem is permanent (will occur again) or temporary. Hence consumers who believe that the problem will arise again in the future are predicted to respond by warning friends about the organisation (NWOM) and avoiding it in the future (exit) (Blodgett et al., 1995; Matos, Rossi, Veiga & Vieira, 2009; Su & Bowen, 2001). In particular, Smith and Bolton (1998) found that consumers were more

dissatisfied and more willing to boycott a restaurant when they believed that the unavailability of a food item is due to a permanent neglect from the management.

3.3.2.3 Social Factors

Boote (1998) refers to *social factors* as one of the eight major determinants of CCB, however he doesn't elaborate much on this trigger. It constitutes the role of other people in influencing the CCB response and how much the customer is responsive to peer pressure. Jones et al. (2002, p. 109) define this variable as "an individual's likelihood of being influenced by family and friends in his or her complaint behaviour manifestation". They note that this factor is related to the personality of the customer and is closely relevant to CCB in restaurants as other people are present with the customer.

Bearden, Netemeyer, and Teel (1989) explain that this variable involves two dimensions. A consumer gathers information about a service or product by asking others for advice or observation; this is referred to as the informational dimension. The consumer may also be influenced by others to respond to dissatisfaction in a certain manner, and this is what Bearden et al. (1989) label as normative/socio-emotional support.

In particular, Malafi (1991) reports that the advice or information dissatisfied restaurant consumers receive influences their complaint behaviour. Hence, dissatisfied consumers who received advice from friends to complain were found to have complained significantly more than those who did not receive any information. Complainers are more likely to be open to listen to other's opinions such as people sitting with them at the table regarding how to respond (Jones et al., 2002). Therefore, dissatisfied consumers who are ready to complain to anyone such as the management and frontline staff are the most susceptible to interpersonal influence, they are followed by the consumers who choose to boycott the service provider and/or engage in NWOM, whereas consumers who are least likely to complain are the least susceptible to guidance from others (Gursoy et al., 2007; Jones et al., 2002).

Although the construct identified above is a personality trait it also acknowledges that during a restaurant-dining occasion the other customers sharing the service space with the focal consumer may influence the CCB response, directly and/or indirectly. According to Tombs and Mccoll-kennedy (2003, p. 448) “for many service organizations, such as restaurants, the influence of the physical setting may be minimal compared to the impact that other individuals (customers and service providers) have on the customer’s experience”. They have extended Bitner’s (1992) conceptual framework of ‘servicescape’ and included a social element. Their social-servicescape assumes that physical, contextual and social elements influence the customer’s “internal response and outward behaviour” (Tombs & Mccoll-kennedy, 2003, p. 451).

In services, whether it is restaurant, tourist location, public transportation or an amusement park, consumers do not experience these services in isolation. They share and interact with the physical, contextual and social elements of the service including the service provider and the other customers (Colm et al., 2017). These interactions are continuous and stretch along the duration of the service encounter (Wu, 2008). Specifically, Zhang et al. (2010) found in their study that the influence of other customers is the highest in restaurants among other service industries investigated.

Service and CCB literature has recognised the influence of the behaviour and attitude of the service provider on consumer satisfaction, dissatisfaction and complaint behaviour. Bitner et al. (1990, p. 80) conclude that “it is not the initial failure to deliver the core service alone that causes dissatisfaction, but rather the employee’s response to the failure”. Blodgett and Granbois (1992) emphasised the importance of taking into account the interaction between the customer and service provider when explaining complaint behaviour. The consumers’ complaint responses are influenced by their appraisal of the retailers’ or service providers’ (in a service context) responses to their complaints. Keaveney (1995) found that the behaviour and attitude of the staff members led dissatisfied consumers to switch service providers.

Furthermore, and as mentioned in Chapter Two, one of the five elements that ensure satisfaction in a restaurant is the attitude and behaviour of the service providers and the other customers (Andersson & Mossberg, 2004). In a service context, the consumer and the service provider are inseparable and together they make up the product (Kotler et al., 2014). Tronvoll (2007) argues that within the “service-dominant logic” approach, a service is the outcome of the ongoing interaction between a service provider and a consumer. The CCB response is integrated into this overall service interaction. Additionally, a number of studies as reviewed in Chapter Two showed that the attitude and behaviour of the employees in restaurants could be perceived as service failures that would consequently influence the CCB response (Loo et al., 2013; Ozdemir et al., 2015; Su & Bowen, 2001).

Thus, it is evident from the above review that a restaurant dining experience involves a dynamic and ongoing interaction between the consumer and the service provider (social element). The attitude and behaviour of the service provider whether during the initial serving or when responding to a complaint have an impact on the CCB response. Dissatisfied consumers may primarily engage in voice complaint and when they are dissatisfied with the response of the service provider they might resort to NWOM, exit, switching behaviours or third party action. Hence the social element is a relevant factor to consider having influence on CCB responses within a restaurant context.

Besides the service providers, service literature identifies that the other customers sharing the same service space are part of the social element and main influencers on the evaluation of the service experience. The awareness of the role other customers play in service production emerged with the servuction system model in 1977 (Eiglier & Langeard, 1977). This model was the first to identify the influence of the other customers present in a service environment. They were referred to as “Customer B”. Colm et al. (2017, p. 224) list some of the terms that were later used in the literature to refer to the other customers “participants (Booms & Bitner, 1981), audience (Grove & Fisk, 1983), the social factor (Baker 1986), co-actors (Aubert-Gamet & Cova, 1999) or fellow customers (Zomerdijs & Voss, 2010)”.

In the literature the interaction between the focal consumer and the other customers in the service space is commonly referred to as customer-to-customer interaction (CCI) (Nicholls, 2010). Most CCI research, since it started in the mid 1970s, has focused on understanding how it influences consumer satisfaction (Grove & Fisk 1997; Martin and Pranter, 1989), identifying the roles other customers play in influencing the service experience especially in a retail context (McGrath & Otnes, 1995; Parker & Ward, 2000), investigating the types of “dysfunctional behaviours” by the other customers that influence dissatisfaction (Harris & Reynolds 2003; Reynolds & Harris 2009), understanding how social distance influences service experience (Xu, Shen, & Wyer 2011; Zhou & Soman, 2003) and investigating the positive roles other customers can play such as emotional support (Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007). Nicholls (2010) presents a comprehensive review of CCI studies to date.

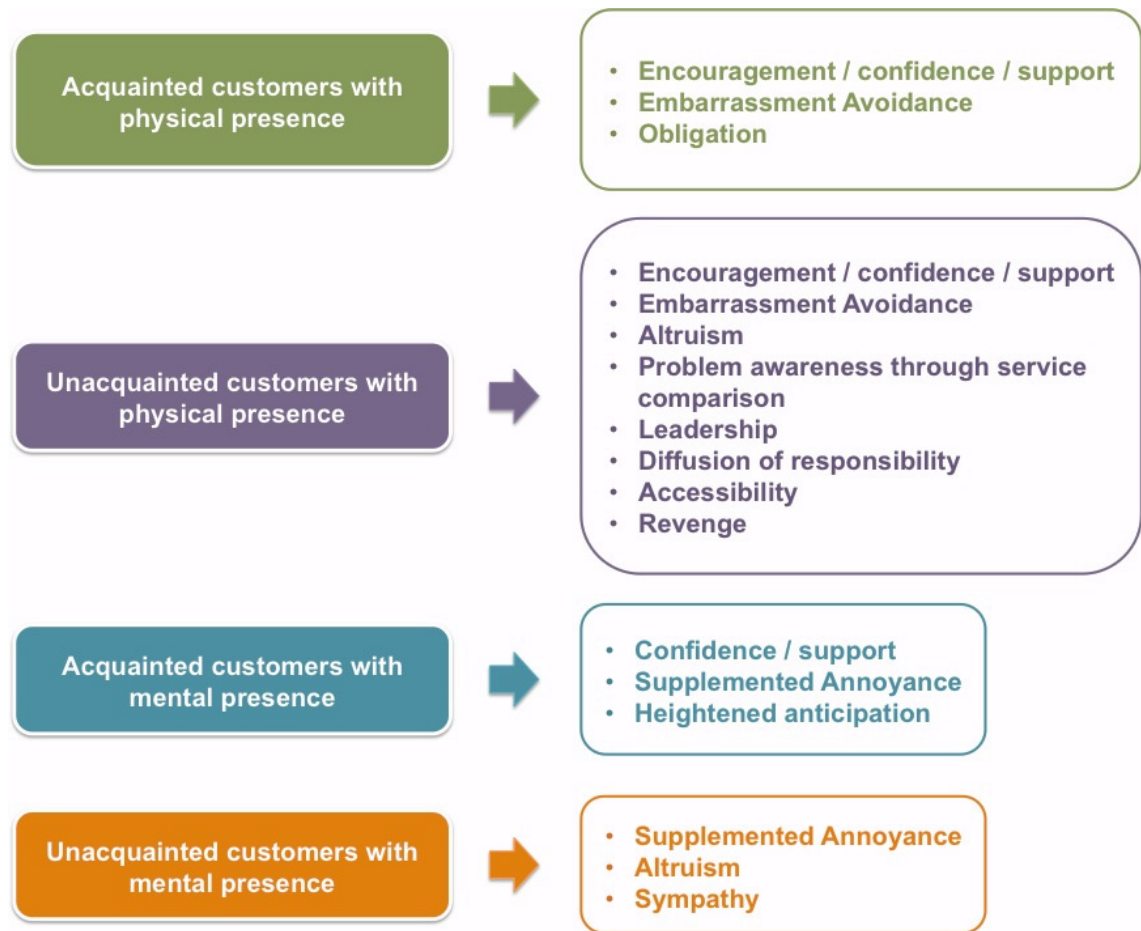
Despite the increasing interest in studying the role of other customers and CCI in service industries such as retail, leisure, hospitality, travel and education, little has been known about their specific influence on the behavioural and emotional responses of the focal consumer (Albrecht, 2016; Zhang et al., 2010). Specifically investigating the relationship between CCI and CCB has been neglected until very recently and the area is still at its infancy.

In the early 1990s, Malafi (1991) published a conceptual paper about how informal communication between the dissatisfied consumer and family and friends impacts CCB responses. He suggested that they could provide informational and emotional support that would have an influence on the likelihood of complaining. Malafi (1991, p. 147) argued “the information gained from informal others can have an impact on the complaint process in many ways”. It can influence their assessment of the dissatisfaction, perception of the severity of the failure, attribution judgment and evaluation of the likelihood of success of their complaint. On the other hand the socio-emotional support includes listening to the dissatisfied customer, agreeing to her decisions and beliefs and providing positive emotions. This influence is not as visible and direct as the informational support. Malafi (1991) concluded that the social factor should be further examined so that along with the other psychographic and demographic factors it can provide a better understanding of CCB.

However, only around 20 years later Yan and Lotz (2009) investigated how other customers influence CCB. In later studies Wei, Miao, Cai, and Adler, (2012) showed that the “co-consumption others” can influence the switching behaviour and Huang, Wu, Chuang, and Lin (2014) found that the CCB response of the focal consumer can be influenced by the size of the group and his/her relationship with the other customers. From the reviewed literature for this thesis only these papers were identified to have directly investigated the relationship between CCI and CCB.

Yan and Lotz (2009) conducted a qualitative study using critical incident technique to identify four categories of interpersonal influence on complaint behaviour. They mainly found that in a service context the presence of other customers has an impact (positively and/or negatively) on the decision to complain. In their study they distinguished between acquainted (e.g. family and friends) and unacquainted others (other customers at the time of the service failure). They also distinguished between physical and mental presence of the others. Figure 16 summarises the findings of their study.

Figure 16: Taxonomy of the influence of other customers on consumer complaint behaviour



Source: Yan and Lotz (2009, p. 113)

This study is significant to the understanding of the role of the social element in the CCB process as it was the first study to identify categories of how acquainted and unacquainted others can physically (directly) and mentally (indirectly) influence the complaint behaviour of the consumer. However, this study only investigated the influence of the other customers on the voice complaint (voicing a complaint or not voicing a complaint) and did not consider their influence on the other responses such as exit and NWOM.

Wei et al., (2012) empirically investigated the influence of self-construal and other customers (they refer to them as co-consumption others) on CCB following an occurrence of a service failure. Their results showed that both voice and switching behaviour responses are significantly influenced by 'self-construal'. Specifically, the switching behaviour is influenced strongly by both

the self-construal and co-consumption. They define self-construal as “how individuals perceive themselves in a relationship with others” (Wei et al., 2012, p. 764). This study helps to further understand the impact other customers dining with the focal consumer have on CCB. It highlights the importance of the interactions that occur during a dissatisfying incident in a service context. Although this study widens the knowledge regarding the role of co-consumption others it does not examine whether this impact varies with the strength of relationship between the consumer and the entourage. For example, would the influence be the same if the consumer were dining with a family member or a significant other or a potential client?

Huang et al., (2014) later addressed this gap. They found that consumers dining at a restaurant with others are more prone to complain than if they were dining alone. Furthermore, their results showed that consumers who have a close relationship among each other are predicted to complain more than those whose relationship is not as close. As with previous studies they confirmed that when studying CCB the interpersonal dynamics between the customer and others customers (acquainted or unacquainted) should be considered.

The review of these studies shows that the interest in acknowledging the social factor and CCI when studying CCB is increasing. Although the body of literature is still limited specifically concerning CCB it is growing and this discipline can benefit from the knowledge available in service studies. Specifically, there is a gap in understanding how the social element and the dynamics that occur during a dissatisfactory incident in services influence the CCB responses and the emotions experienced.

3.3.2.4 Psychographic

A review of the literature shows that a number of psychographic variables were speculated to have an impact on CCB. Stephens and Gwinner (1998, p. 173) note, “individual factors have had relatively low predictive value in determining when consumers will voice a complaint to the seller following a dissatisfying consumption experience”. Despite this, attitude towards complaining and personality traits are two of the factors that have been widely researched and

are most relevant to services (Jones et al., 2002; Moliner-Velazquez et al., 2006; Thøgersen et al., 2009).

Attitude towards complaining (ATC) is defined by Singh and Wilkes (1996, p. 353) as “the overall effect of ‘goodness’ or ‘badness’ of complaining to sellers and is not specific to a given episode of dissatisfaction”. Hence, individuals with a positive ATC consider complaining to be a fitting behaviour, whereas those who see it as hostile have a negative ATC (Richins, 1982). This determinant is significant for predicting consumer complaint responses (Halstead, 1991; Kim, et al., 2003; Matos et al., 2009; Singh & Wilkes, 1996). In particular, it is postulated that consumers with a positive ATC are most likely to voice their complaints directly to the seller (Singh, 1989), where, non-complainers or consumers who choose to engage in private responses (exit and/or NWOM) generally have a negative ATC (Blodgett et al., 1997; Bodey & Grace, 2007; Yuksel et al., 2006).

The personality traits of a consumer are yet additional factors that might help to explain CCB and predict how most likely they are to respond to a dissatisfactory incident (Kitapci & Dortyol, 2015). In the CCB literature, there are a number of studies that attempted to understand the possible relationship between complaint behaviour and personality types. Bodey and Grace (2006) reviewed some of these studies and summed up the main traits that differentiate between complainers and non-complainers.

- *Complainers*: in a hurry, lose their temper easily, engage in aggressive and verbal behaviour, feel more frustrated and angry, risk-takers, assertive, self-confident, individualistic and Type A personality.
- *Non-complainers*: conform to societal norms, listen to advice, avoid taking action, anxious, feel guilty, unassertive, lack self-esteem, do not take risks, highly conservative and Type B personality.

Furthermore, Bodey and Grace (2006) report that complainers believe they have more control over the environment than non-complainers. Similarly, Kowalski (1996) suggests that the locus of control also affects complaint

responses. He explains that people with internal locus of control believe their actions and the external events are under their full control. They are active, problem solvers and feel less anxious. On the other hand, consumers with an external locus of control usually get more frustrated and depressed. Consequently, and in relation to CCB, consumers with an external locus of control are postulated to complain more than consumers with an internal locus of control. Gursoy et al., (2007) reported similar findings with restaurant consumers. Kowalski (1996) argues that consumers with an internal locus of control complain less because they are ready to take responsibility for the failures and their actions and thus feel less frustrated. Not only do these two personalities differ in the frequency of complaining, but also in the reasons why they complain. "People with internal locus of control can be expected to issue instrumental, goal-directed complaints, whereas those with external locus of control may voice expressive, non-goal-directed complaints" (Kowalski, 1996, p. 183).

Kowalski (1996) also distinguishes between extrovert and introvert personality types of consumers and reports that this dimension has a significant impact on complaint behaviour. Extroverts are known to be sociable, outgoing, and assertive while introverts tend to be more reserved. Because of this Kowalski (1996) suggests that extroverts are keen at preserving their social bonds and thus are predicted to be less likely to complain in public when dissatisfied. Davidow and Dacin (1997) have a contrary opinion and they propose that introvert consumers choose private complaint responses such as exit and NWOM whereas, extroverts are more inclined to engage in public responses such as voicing the complaint directly to the seller, a third party, or take a legal action.

Price consciousness has also been found to influence CCB and particularly help explain why dissatisfied restaurant customers complain. It is a "measure of the role that price plays in a customer's evaluation of service" (Jones et al., 2002, p. 108). It is believed to have a stronger influence on CCB with services than with tangible goods. One main reason is because the pricing of a service is multi-dimensional and more complex than the pricing of goods (Gursoy et al., 2003). Specifically, restaurant consumers who have a high level of price

consciousness are more likely to complain when dissatisfied (Gursoy et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2002).

3.3.2.5 Demographic

Several studies have indicated a relationship between CCB and demographic factors such as age, education, income and gender, but there is no clear agreement about the strength and type of this relationship (e.g. Bearden & Mason, 1984; Day & Landon, 1977; Heung & Lam, 2003; Jacoby & Jaccard, 1981). In particular, age and complaining are believed to have an inverse relationship (Kowalski, 1996). Hence, younger dissatisfied consumers are more likely to voice their complaints directly to the seller than older consumers. On the other hand, research around gender proposes that women are prone to actively respond to dissatisfaction more than men. Kowalski (1996) suggests that this is because women are willing to express negative information more than men. Furthermore, education level influences CCB responses wherein consumers with a higher education level are inclined to respond to dissatisfaction more than others (Morganosky & Buckley, 1987). One explanation can be that consumers who are better educated have the necessary knowledge to file a complaint (Ngai, Heung, Wong, & Chan, 2007). Ndubisi and Ling (2006) found that complainers are usually young with high education, have a professional job and high income.

3.3.2.6 Other stimuli

In addition to the above-mentioned stimuli, Boote (1998) recognises that the relationship between the customer on one side and the company and marketplace on the other side also influences CCB responses. The relationship of the customer with the company involves factors such as consumer loyalty, the size of the company, and how easy it is to communicate with the company Boote (1998). Kim et al. (2014; p 889) refer to consumer loyalty as the “customer’s emotional attachment towards a certain service provider”. They argue that loyalty influences CCB responses. According to Kim et al. (2014) loyal customers will voice their complaints directly to the service provider. They are expected to be more lenient with the service provider when faced with a

service failure and not engage in NWOM as frequently (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Zhang, van Doorn, & Leeflang, 2014).

Furthermore, the relationship between the customer and marketplace that generally refers to the structure of the market is also believed to help predict CCB responses Boote (1998). Crie (2003) explains that within a highly competitive and open market, dissatisfied consumers have the choice to leave the service provider to switch to another. This is not possible in a restricted and monopolistic market where the consumer can only voice the complaint and spread NWOM.

Culture is the final trigger proposed by Boote (1998). Numerous studies have documented the effect of culture on attitudes and behaviours (for example see, Bodey & Grace, 2007; Day et al., 1981; Heung & Lam, 2003; Lee & Sparks, 2007; Richins, 1982). These studies were generally based on Hofstede's (1980) five-dimensional classification and examined CCB in non-western cultures, mainly Asian (Ekiz & Au, 2011; Lee & Sparks, 2007; Ngai et al., 2007). They attempted to understand how CCB elements differ across cultures. For instance, Lee and Sparks (2007) suggest that because Chinese people are culturally known to value respecting tradition and protecting "face", they are least likely to directly voice a complaint to a service provider. Similarly, a number of studies (e.g. Kim et al., 2010; Liu and McClure, 2001; Liu, Watkins, & Yi, 1997) report that dissatisfied consumers from individualistic cultures are more likely to complain than those from collectivist cultures. Culture is an interesting factor in the way it influences and explains CCB responses, however it lies outside the parameters of this study.

The above section has discussed a number of factors that might help predict consumers' responses to dissatisfaction. It is evident that there is no one factor that can completely explain the CCB process and thus it is difficult to develop one comprehensive list of antecedents (Day et al., 1981). The CCB responses are highly specific to the situation (event of service failure) and the person(s) involved and their interactions.

In brief, situational, personal and social factors along with other factors are stimuli of CCB responses. Situational and personal factors are established in the CCB literature to have an influence on CCB responses, however in a service context the role of social elements, especially the interpersonal relations and interactions between the consumer, the service provider and the other customers, is still a new area of research. Thus, investigating the factors that influence CCB responses and negative emotions in a restaurant context is a promising area of research. More specifically, understanding how the social dynamics and the interactions within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process appears to be an intriguing research area that would extend the CCB literature.

3.4 Putting it all together and developing a CCB model

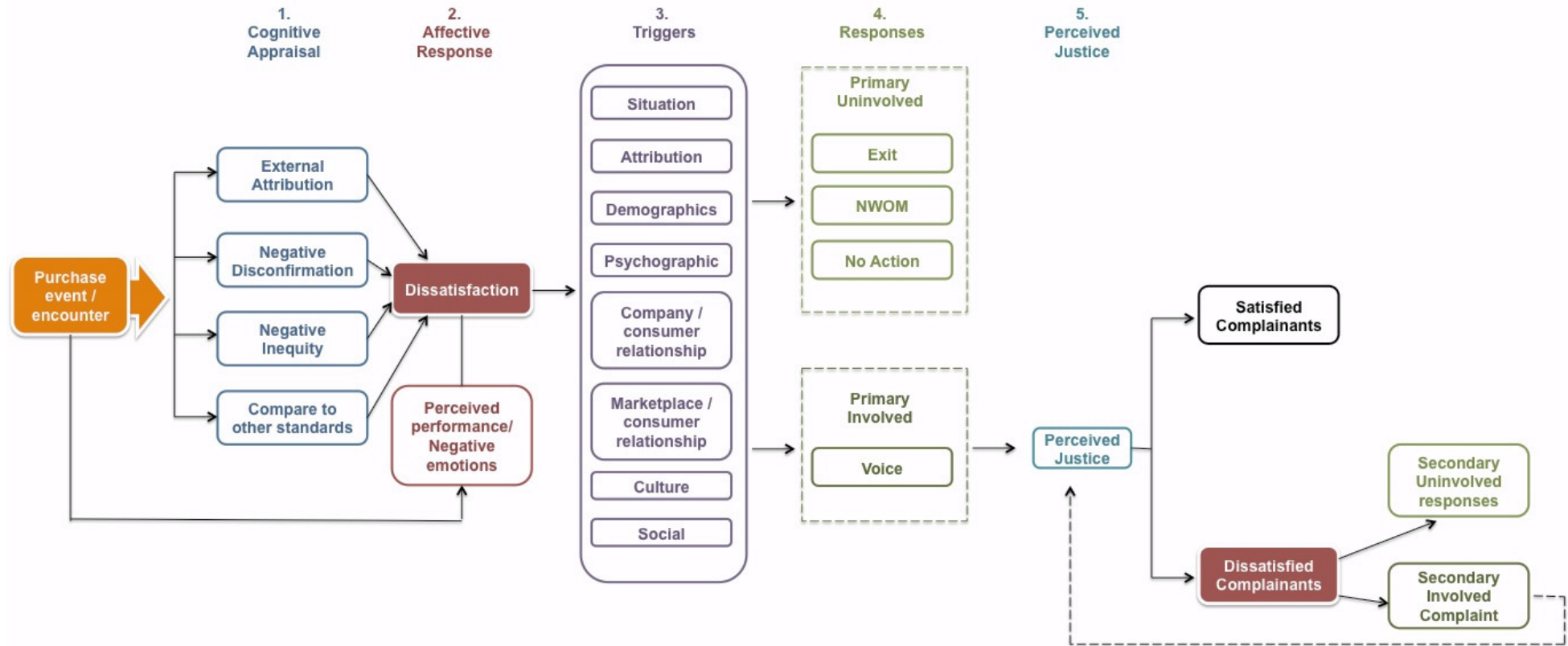
So far this chapter and Chapter Two have covered a number of models that explain dissatisfaction and its relationship with complaining. It has also discussed negative emotions and how they are elicited in the event of a dissatisfactory incident and how they influence CCB responses. It also presented and discussed the different responses the consumers choose when dissatisfied and the most common factors that stimulate these responses.

When reviewing the CCB literature, it is evident that a number of researchers have developed conceptual models in an attempt to explain the dynamic CCB process. The majority of these models have integrated dissatisfaction, emotions, triggers and responses. This section will present the model developed by Boote (1998) since it is comprehensive and appropriate to explain complaint behaviour as a process reflecting the dynamic and complex nature of services (Figure 17). Hence, this model will act as a summary for the main theories that have been discussed in this chapter and Chapter Two by putting them together in the form of a sequential process.

Boote's (1998) paper is a review of prior theory to date relevant to CCB. It presents a number of theories of dissatisfaction, extends the taxonomy of CCB responses developed by Singh (1988) and reviews a number of triggers acclaimed in the CCB literature. The paper concludes by presenting a "conceptual model for consumer dissatisfaction responses" that takes into

account cognitive reasoning, affective responses, triggers, responses and perceived justice. This section will follow the structure of the model covering these five main elements.

Figure 17: Boote's (1998) CCB model



Source: Boote (1998, p. 148)

There is a universal agreement that CCB would not exist without a dissatisfactory incident in the marketplace. Hence, Boote's (1998) model, similar to the other reviewed models, starts with the negative market place incident. Upon experiencing a negative encounter (e.g. a service failure) the consumer cognitively appraises the situation using the appraisal criteria reviewed earlier (Chapter 2, Section 2.3.1). The consumer may use one or multiple evaluation standards to decide if the event is dissatisfactory.

Boote (1998) has categorised dissatisfaction and negative emotions as affective responses. In fact a number of researchers suggest that dissatisfaction has both cognitive and affective components (Oliver, 1993, 1997; Westbrook, 1987). Furthermore, Boote (1998) directly links the negative incident with negative emotions without having to pass through the cognitive appraisal stage suggesting that it is possible for consumers to have negative emotions without cognitively evaluating the situation and feeling dissatisfied. This is justified as per the view proposing that the emotional state might occur before the cognitive appraisal process is initiated (e.g. Liljander & Strandvik, 1997). Section 2.4 in Chapter Two has discussed in some detail the negative emotions related to CCB and how they are generated as explained by the cognitive appraisal model (Lazarus, 1991).

As mentioned earlier, feeling dissatisfied is a necessary but not a sufficient factor for consumers to respond to dissatisfactory incidents (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992). The triggers (discussed in Section 3.3.2) influence the type of CCB responses consumers choose to engage in (Section 3.3.1). These triggers are mainly situational, personal and social. Furthermore, as Boote's (1998) model uses the taxonomy of responses he suggested differentiating between primary and secondary responses as well as involved and uninvolved responses (Section 3.3.1). Thus, influenced by the triggers, the consumer responds primarily to the dissatisfaction either by choosing uninvolved responses (exit, NWOM and/or no action) or involved responses (voice complaint).

Since with primary uninvolved responses the service provider is unaware of consumer's dissatisfaction, no further action will take place and the dissatisfactory episode ends at this point. However, with the primary involved response the service provider is made aware of the incident and has the opportunity to react. Boote (1998) incorporates in the model the perceived justice concept that occurs upon voicing a complaint. The scope of this thesis does not cover complaint handling and service recovery, however and since perceived justice is central to the CCB process and secondary responses depend on its outcome (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992), a brief explanation of this concept will be presented in the next two paragraphs.

Blodgett and Granbois (1992, p. 100) define perceived justice as "the complainant's level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the manner in which the retailer responded to the complaint". Boote (1998) further explains that the appraisal of perceived justice is bound by disconfirmation of expectations. Hence if the consumer perceives that the retailer's response exceeded the expectations and hence resulted in a positive disconfirmation, she is satisfied with the response and the dissatisfactory incident ends. However, if the response falls below her expectations leading to a negative disconfirmation and consequently dissatisfaction, she will more likely engage in secondary responses.

Perceived justice has three dimensions that Boote (1998, p. 144) explains as follows. Distributive justice refers to how much the consumer perceives the tangible outcome to be fair as compared to the service failure. Tangible outcomes in restaurants would include, for example, monetary compensation, change of the served food or a free invitation for a meal. Interactive justice is the consumers' evaluation of the quality of the interpersonal treatment they received from the service provider after voicing the complaint. For example, how clearly the employees communicated with the customer and/or the attitude of the employees. Finally, procedural justice includes the assessment of the fairness of the procedures used by the service providers during handling the complaint. Examples would include issues such as the amount of time the retailer took to attend to the complaint or the opportunity given to the consumer to clearly explain the reason for the dissatisfaction.

Back to Boote's (1998) model; if a consumer assesses perceived justice as positive and hence is satisfied with how the service provider handled her complaint, the dissatisfactory incident is closed. However, when the consumer assesses the complaint handling as dissatisfactory, she will engage in secondary responses depending on this assessment. The literature refers to such situations as double deviation scenarios. It is "a situation in which a customer experiences service failure twice in a row; the initial service failure and the failed service recovery" (Loo et al., 2013, p. 729). In particular it is when the organisation fails to take proper action to recover the initial failure. It is believed that customers experience higher dissatisfaction during a double deviation scenario than when they encounter a single failure (Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2007). These consumers would voice their complaints directly to the service providers, engage in NWOM, exit or resort to third party action (Casado-Díaz, Más-Ruiz, & Kasper, 2007). Boote (1998) distinguishes between secondary uninvolved responses (exit, avoidance, grudge-holding, NWOM, third party action and no further action) and secondary involved responses (voice and retaliation). Similar to primary responses, once a consumer chooses secondary uninvolved responses the incident ends since the provider is unaware of the consumer's dissatisfaction. However, in the case of secondary involved responses, the process might not end and the consumer might engage in further appraising of the service provider's handling of the voiced complaint.

After introducing the concepts of service failures, dissatisfaction (cognitive appraisal), negative emotion (affective responses), CCB triggers, CCB responses and perceived justice in Chapters Two and Three, Boote's (1998) conceptual model puts them all together and explains a connection between them.

3.5 Identifying the gaps

Literature Gap 1: Understanding the actual behaviours of the dissatisfied consumers.

The literature reviewed for this thesis shows that there have been numerous studies since the early 1980s to understand consumer dissatisfaction and the theory of consumer complaint behaviour. These studies developed taxonomies for responses, profiles of complainers and non complainers, motivations to complain, the triggers that influence these responses, the role of emotions during the CCB process, the difference between CCB in products and services and models that can explain this process.

However, the broad body of CCB literature was developed using quantitative methodologies that mostly resulted in understanding the behavioural intentions of the dissatisfied consumers as opposed to their actual behaviours. Although the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein, 1979; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) assume that the intention is the main predictor of a person's behaviour it has recently been challenged by what is referred to as the "intention-behaviour gap" (Sheeran, 2002; Sniehotta, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005). Particularly in CCB, Singh (1988) showed that there was a close consistency between intentions and behaviours with regards to complaining when engaging in private actions but not with the other types of behaviours such as voicing a complaint. Gursoy et al. (2007, p. 381) note "in some circumstances, intentions are not strong predictors of actual future behaviours". Therefore, it is limiting to use intentions rather than actual behaviours when investigating CCB because consumers in the 'real' situation might use or have other information when responding to dissatisfaction. Furthermore, Kim et al. (2014) challenge the validity of using scenario-based experiments when studying CCB in services. They note that in service contexts when there is an interaction between the customer and the service provider, research should be conducted in natural settings that allow for capturing the actual behaviours.

Therefore, there is a clear gap in the literature to investigate and understand the actual behaviours of the dissatisfied customers within a natural setting and not behavioural intentions expressed through vignettes and fictional scenarios.

Literature Gap 2: Understanding the specific negative emotions experienced in a restaurant context and their influence on CCB responses

Following a quantitative approach when studying CCB limits the understanding of the hidden and unspoken factors such as negative emotions experienced by the dissatisfied consumers. Furthermore, although the literature identifies a number of consumption negative emotions linked to market place experiences and how they influence behaviours in general, the knowledge regarding the negative emotions specific to a dining experience and CCB responses is still limited. Hence, there is a gap in the literature to understand what negative emotions the dissatisfied consumers experience within a restaurant context and how these impact their CCB responses.

Literature Gap 3: Understanding what stimulates the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by the dissatisfied customers within a restaurant context

CCB literature over the years has identified a number of ‘triggers’, ‘factors’ or ‘motivators’ of CCB responses. Some of these triggers were empirically tested for their relevance to a restaurant context. However, as mentioned above, the vast majority of these studies followed a quantitative approach that fails to present a holistic understanding of the CCB process and put forward the consumer’s subjective account of the situation. Hence, there is gap in the literature to understand what actually stimulates the responses and negative emotions within a restaurant context from the perspective of the dissatisfied consumer.

Literature Gap 4: Understanding how the social dynamics and interactions within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process

CCB studies have only recently started acknowledging the role of the social element in the CCB process. Yet the body of literature is still limited. Little is known about how the social dynamics and the ongoing interactions between the focal consumer, service provider and other customers in a service setting like a restaurant influence the entire CCB process (not just the responses). Hence, this study will address this gap in the literature and attempts to understand these dynamics and interactions within a restaurant natural setting.

This thesis identifies these gaps in the literature and attempts to close them and make theoretical contributions as well as contributions to the practice. This study will attempt to address the following research questions, as introduced in Chapter One:

- **RQ1:** What negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?
- **RQ2:** How do consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents encountered in restaurants?
- **RQ3:** What stimulates the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by consumers as a result of dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?
- **RQ4:** How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

Chapter Four will present and discuss how these research questions will be addressed. It will present the philosophical and theoretical underpinnings, the research methodology, the methods used to collect the data and the approach followed to analyse the data.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed and reviewed the major models that attempted to classify consumer complaint behaviours. It presented the factors that influence how consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents by focusing on those that are specifically applicable to the context of this research. This chapter concluded by identifying the gaps in the current knowledge of CCB that this study aims to address.

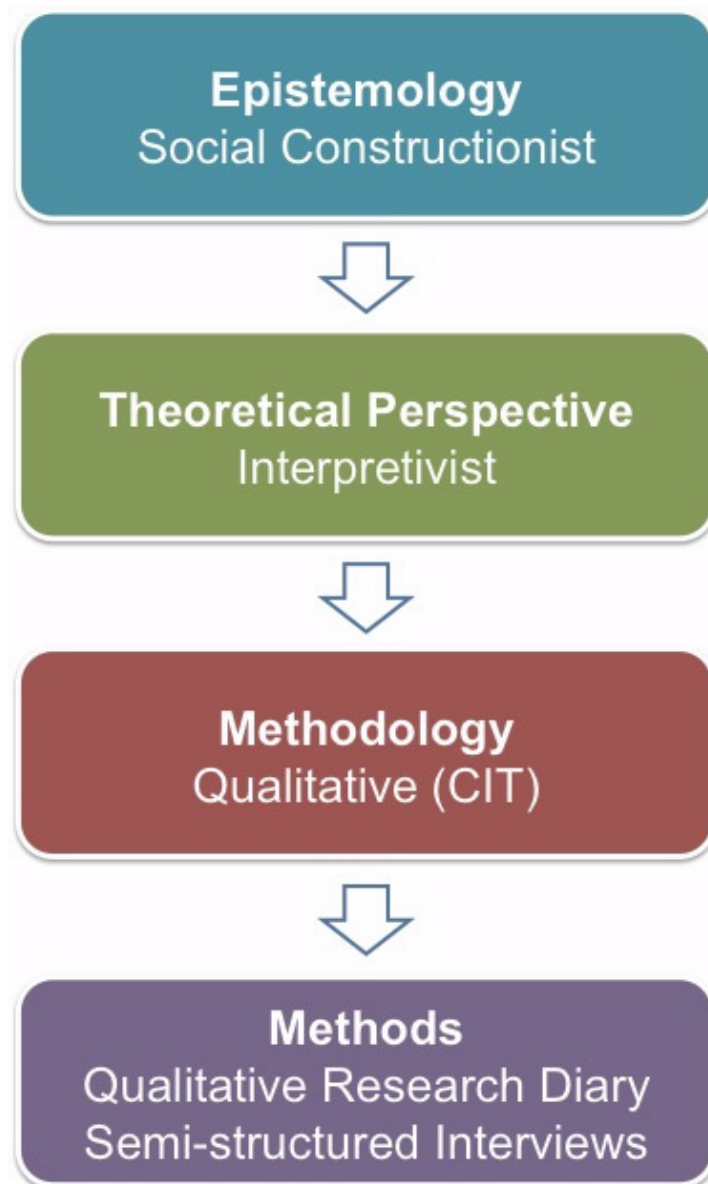
Chapter Four: Research methodology and methods

4.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter will start by presenting a detailed account of the philosophical and theoretical assumptions underpinning this study and justifying their appropriateness. It will then move to the discussion of the research methodology and methods including sampling, participant recruitment and the data collection tools. Following this it will describe how template analysis was used to analyse the collected data. It will conclude with a discussion about the criteria used to evaluate the quality of the research, how the ethical issues were considered and present a number of challenges associated with the data collection method used. In particular, this chapter will explain how these choices are consistent with and fit to address the four research questions outlined in the previous chapter.

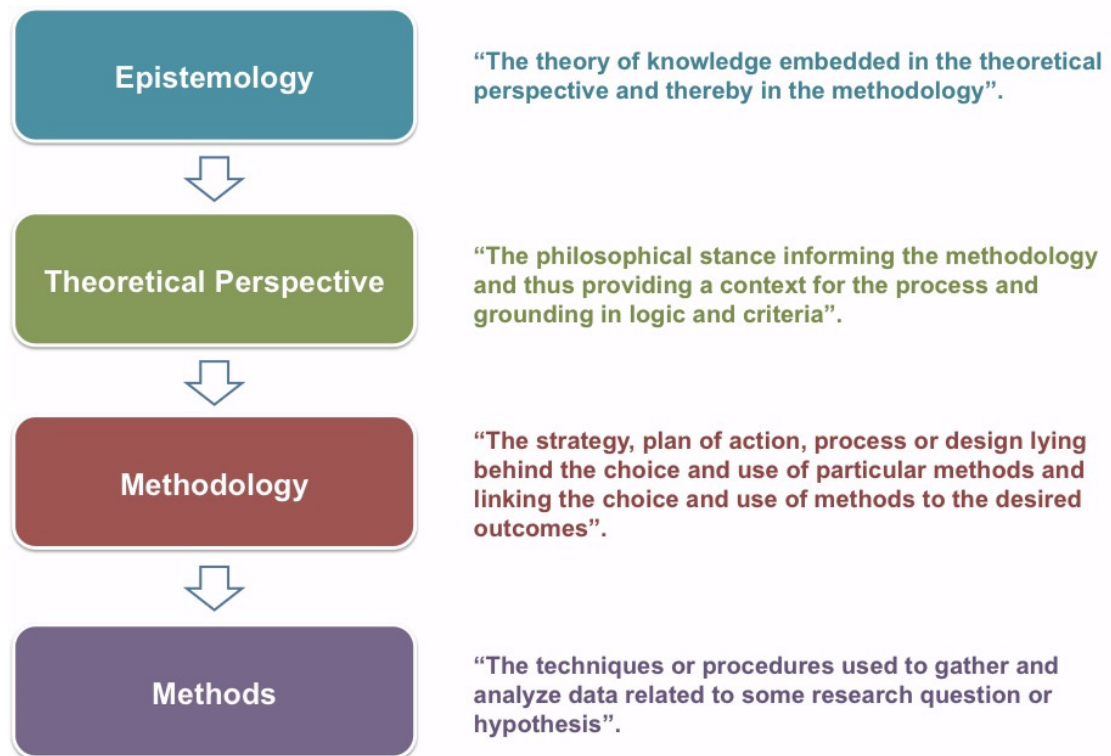
Figure 18 is a scheme adapted from Crotty (2009) and it introduces the philosophical and methodological assumptions underpinning this research.

Figure 18: Philosophical and methodological assumptions



According to Crotty (2009), epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and method are the four basic research process elements usually discussed in social research literature. However, he points out that these terms are often used as if they were all comparable. When reviewing the literature, it is obvious that there is inconsistency in how they are used. For instance *interpretivism* in Crotty (2009) is considered as a theoretical perspective while in Guest, Namey, & Mitchell (2013) it is considered an epistemological perspective. In order to avoid confusion, this thesis will follow the definitions and scheme set by Crotty (2009, p. 3) while acknowledging other authors when appropriate (see Figure 19).

Figure 19: Terminology definition



Source: Crotty (2009, p.3)

Ontology is another element that is frequently mentioned in the literature. It is concerned with the nature of existence and reality (Crotty, 2009). It is “the science or study of being” (Blaikie, 1993; p.6). According to King and Horrocks (2011) there are two ontological positions *realism* and *relativism*. Crotty (2009) believes that ontology and epistemology are closely linked and often arise together making it difficult for authors to keep them separated conceptually. For instance *realism* (ontological position) is often assumed as *objectivism* (an epistemological notion) by some authors. Hence, Crotty (2009, p. 11) suggests not to include ontology in his scheme but to “deal with the ontological issues as they emerge”.

4.2 Research philosophy

The researcher's philosophical assumptions about reality, view of the world and nature of knowledge influence significantly the choices of methodology and methods and shapes how the problem and research questions are formulated.

The epistemology is the researcher's theory of knowledge. It is concerned with how we know and how this knowledge is demonstrated (Mason, 2002), in other words, "how we know what we know" (Crotty, 2009; p.8). It is related to the choices made throughout the entire research process and should direct the researcher in how to collect or generate data. It influences the theoretical perspective assumed and the methodology and methods used. Therefore, identifying, explaining and justifying the epistemological stance are essential in any research project.

"Epistemology is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate" (Maynard, 1994, p. 10).

In his scheme Crotty (2009) proposed objectivism, constructionism and subjectivism as the main epistemological views. He defines constructionism as

"The view that all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context". (Crotty, 2009, p. 42)

In other words, meaning does not reside in an object waiting to be discovered. Objects themselves do not carry meaning, but they are partners in the process of generating meaning. Meaning is constructed and emerges when consciousness interacts with objects. It is conceived in the course of social exchange (Crotty, 2009; King & Horrocks, 2011; Merleau-Ponty, 1962). Therefore, it assumes that there is no single, unchanging and wholly known reality but multiple realities that are continuously constructed by people and contextually embedded. In particular, constructionists are interested in studying these multiple realities and how they affect the lives of these people and interactions with their society (Patton, 2002). In a constructionist approach "the

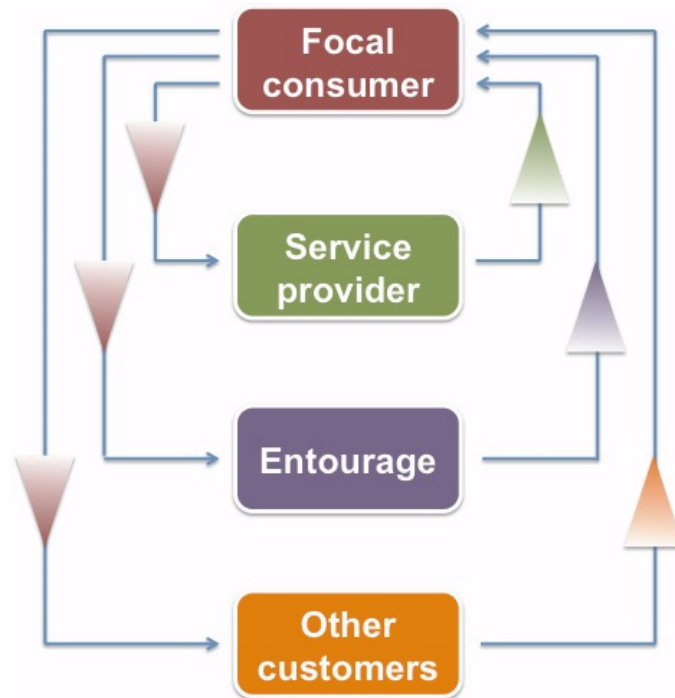
customer is no longer only a user of the physical environment, but also a co-builder of the service space” (Aubert-Gamet, 1997, p.39).

However to assume that individuals, one by one, construct the meaning of a phenomenon is not very accurate. As humans we are born in a world of meaning, enter a social milieu, inherit a system of symbols and are influenced by our culture. In this sense “all reality, as meaningful reality, is socially constructed” (Crotty, 2009, p. 54). Thus, social constructionism assumes that knowledge is constructed through the process of social interactions. Gergen explains its assumptions:

“The terms by which we account for the world and ourselves are not dictated by the stipulated objects of such accounts...The terms and forms by which we achieve understanding of the world and ourselves are social artefacts, products of historically and culturally situated interchanges among people.... The degree to which a given account of the world or self is sustained across time is not dependent on the objective validity of the account but on the vicissitudes of social processes....Language drives its significance in human affairs from the way in which it functions within patterns of relationships”. (Gergen, 1994, p. 49-50)

This study will follow a social constructionist approach as it is considered appropriate and a good fit to the research aims and questions. Precisely, the main research aim of this study seeks to understand the natural social dynamics occurring during a dissatisfying dining occasion and how they influence the negative emotions and responses. Figure 20 further explains these natural interactions between the focal consumer, the service provider, the entourage and the other customers.

Figure 20: Interactions between the focal consumer and the other players



In this research, the individual's response to dissatisfaction is not considered an isolated personal reaction but a constructed, dynamic and developing response influenced by the social setting and social exchange. The ongoing interaction throughout the dissatisfying dining occasion between the customer, the service provider and the other customers in addition to the other situational and personal factors shapes the negative emotions experienced and the response choice. While living this experience and interpreting the natural social dynamics, the focal consumer constructs new meanings that can create opportunities to improve services (Auber-Gamet, 1997).

4.3 Theoretical perspective

Crotty (2009, p. 3) defines theoretical perspective as "the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria. He continues to say that when we elaborate about our theoretical perspective assumptions we are explaining "our view of the human world and social life, within that world, wherein such assumptions are grounded" (Crotty, 2009, p. 7). Hence, it is all the assumptions guiding the methodology. Some of the theoretical perspectives identified by Crotty (2009)

are: positivism and post-positivism, interpretivism, critical inquiry, feminism and postmodernism.

Flick (2014) explains that constructionism often informs interpretivist perspectives and qualitative approaches because of its assumptions that realities are the product of social interactions between the different actors and institutions. Within this paradigm, experiences are constructed by the subject and understood through concepts and contexts. In interpretivist research, the researcher is interested in building an understanding of the social world by presenting a detailed picture of the social context, social actors, processes and relationships. The focus is on uncovering how people feel about and interpret their experiences in their own perspective (King & Horrocks, 2011). It is concerned with interpreting the deeper meanings represented in people's subjective accounts and the observation of their behaviours. Unlike in positivist research, commonly generalisability is not of high importance in interpretivist research. However, it is critical to discover the details of an individual's social experience in order to understand all facets of the subjective realities including the hidden ones.

Walsham summarises the assumptions of interpretivism and shows that it is informed by the constructionist epistemological view:

“Interpretive methods of research start from the position that our knowledge of reality, including the domain of human action, is a social construction by human actors and that this applies equally to researchers. Thus there is no objective reality which can be discovered by researchers and replicated by others, in contrast to the assumptions of positivist science”. (Walsham, 1993, p.5)

This study will investigate how people act in a certain social context (dissatisfactory incident in a restaurant) and how they interpret their experience and the role of the *actors* (such as: the focal consumer, the service provider, other customers and the dissatisfying encounter) within this social situation. The researcher will follow the interpretivist paradigm focusing on the meanings, perceptions and interpretations from the individuals' perspective. Hence, this is a good fit with this study.

4.4 Methodology

The term methodology, as defined by Crotty (2009, p. 3), is “the strategy, plan of action, process or design lying behind the choice and use of particular methods and linking the choice and use of methods to the desired outcome”. In other words it is the approach followed as to how research is conducted, it should be aligned with the philosophical and theoretical assumptions of the research, and it informs the methods used for collecting and analysing data (King & Horrocks, 2011). The two widely acknowledged research approaches are quantitative and qualitative research. In a broad sense, quantitative research is concerned with measuring concepts and describing them in numbers whereas qualitative research is concerned with understanding social phenomena from different perspectives and producing rich and subjective data (Collis & Hussey, 2009; King & Horrocks, 2011).

This study will follow a qualitative approach. This approach as it will be detailed later in this chapter complies with the philosophical and theoretical assumptions underpinning this study. King & Horrocks (2011) explain that interpretivism generally informs qualitative approaches as methodology.

In a simple definition qualitative research is “any research that uses data that do not indicate ordinal values” (Nkwi, Nyamongo, & Ryan, 2001, p.1). However, this definition only considers the data type criteria and neglects other aspects. Qualitative research is not only about non-numeric data like text, images or sounds. It is about providing a deep understanding of how people make sense of their world and experiences as well as the meanings they construct. The key aim is to understand a situation or an issue from the perspective of the individuals in their own expressions and within its natural contexts (Bryman, 1988; Flick, 2014; Harding, 2013; Silverman, 2013). Qualitative researchers “study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p.3).

Creswell (2013) identifies several common characteristics for qualitative research. These characteristics (presented in Figure 21) are often described in the literature as the strengths of qualitative research.

Figure 21: Characteristics for qualitative research



Source: Creswell (2013)

In particular, qualitative data is often collected in a *natural setting* by talking directly to the individuals or observing them behaving within their social setting. Although in many situations the researchers use instruments to help them collect the data such as interview guides and qualitative diaries they are the *key instruments*. They collect the data themselves by methods such as interviewing participants, observing behaviours and investigating documents. Consequently, they most often use *multiple methods* to collect different forms of data and do not rely on only one source of data.

Moreover, the qualitative research process requires that researchers practice *complex reasoning* alternating continuously between inductive and deductive logic. Researchers have to go back and forth between their data, the generated themes and the literature. In addition, the qualitative researcher has to be

flexible. The research process is not fixed rather it is *emergent*. The initial plan may change once the researcher starts collecting the data in order to achieve the best conditions for obtaining what participants have to share about a problem or an issue. Specifically, knowing the *participants' meanings* involved in the phenomena under study is the focus of qualitative research. Researchers adapting this approach are interested in hearing what people have to say and presenting their different perspectives more than bringing forward the researcher's ideas or the concepts discussed in the literature.

Reflexivity is another characteristic of qualitative research. This research approach is sensitive to the researcher's biographic and social background. Finally, qualitative research presents *a holistic account* and a complex picture for the problem under study. The researchers strive to sketch the bigger picture of the phenomena under study by identifying the complex relationships between the factors involved in a setting, understanding the meanings people create and reporting their multiple perspectives.

Although the strengths of qualitative research as presented above are many, the critics of this research approach point out some limitations. In qualitative research the sample size is usually small, sometimes limited to one case, and is not selected probabilistically (such as random sampling), as in the case of quantitative research, but purposefully. Thus the sample is not representative of the population and the findings cannot be statistically generalised (Guest et al., 2013; Patton, 2002). To qualitative researchers, this does not pose a problem because their goals are mainly to generate rich and detailed insights of a social phenomenon while identifying all its complexities and they are less concerned with generalisation (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Harding, 2013). Furthermore, qualitative researchers are accused of a lack of objectivity and the influence of their social context on the findings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Mason, 2002). Unlike in the quantitative approach where researchers do not necessarily have direct contact with the respondents, qualitative researchers are the key research instruments and they shape the research process. Their relationship with the participants is interactive and close. Hence, qualitative researchers face the dilemma of staying neutral throughout the process and not losing awareness that they are the researchers and not the participants (Bryman,

1988). Oakley (1984) believes that this is not to be considered a negative point because it allows for a better understanding of the participants and the entire contextual setting of the phenomenon under study. Janesick (2003) suggests that 'a good way' to tackle this challenge is through the researchers' self-reflexivity in the research journey as well as presenting an honest account of the research process.

4.4.1 Rationale for choosing a qualitative approach

The choice of methodology assumed should not be based only on the personal preference or intuitional appeal of the researcher. It must be informed by the philosophical and theoretical positions underpinning the research process as well as appropriateness to the research aims and questions (King & Horrocks, 2011). The research approach, whether quantitative or qualitative, should be a 'good fit' with the research question and reflect the overall research strategy (Silverman, 2013).

As indicated previously, this study assumes a social constructionist position and takes an interpretivist view. It focuses on understanding how people create meanings as well as identifying their perceptions and interpretation of their experiences. This has led the researcher to follow a qualitative methodological approach that allows for a holistic in-depth investigation of the phenomenon under study within its natural contextual setting.

Not all research questions are fit to be answered qualitatively. Creswell (2013) pinpoints some of the situations when it is appropriate for researchers to use a qualitative strategy. In particular, qualitative research is a 'good fit' when a phenomenon needs to be *explored* in-depth by identifying hidden and unquantifiable variables. Also it is used when researchers aim at a "*holistic understanding of a complex issue*" that can only be achieved by '*empowering*' the people and listening to them sharing their stories and expressing their views without any predisposed ideas informed by the literature. Furthermore, a qualitative approach allows the researcher to grasp an understanding of the "*context or natural setting*" of the studied issue. Conducting qualitative research is also appropriate when the objective is to *develop theories* because the existing theories do not capture the complexity of the phenomenon. Finally,

researchers use a qualitative approach “because quantitative measures and the statistical analysis simply do not fit the problem” (Creswell, 2013, p. 48).

The main objective of this research is to understand the natural social dynamics occurring during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants as well as exploring the negative emotions and the complaint behaviour responses experienced. In order to achieve this objective the researcher needs to have a holistic understanding of this phenomenon by identifying variables that are not easily measured such as emotions, social interactions and underlying triggers. The researcher must listen with an open mind to the participants’ stories and their perspectives of the problem. Drawing a holistic panorama of this phenomenon is not complete without understanding the natural setting and the context of these stories. Hence, a qualitative approach is a ‘good fit’ for this research question.

Yet, consumer complaint behaviour research traditionally assumes a positivist approach using quantitative strategies. The studies reviewed by the researcher show that the data collection method mainly used is self-administered questionnaires. Precisely, a typical questionnaire would include fictional scenarios of service or product failure situations, known as the vignette technique, followed by a set of questions to measure how the individual is likely to respond (e.g. Bodey & Grace, 2006; Maute & Forrester, 1993; Singh, 1988; Singh & Pandya, 1991; Thøgersen et al., 2009). Also the questionnaire would include other sets of items to measure personal and situations factors that are proposed to influence the complaint behaviour. Although this approach helped over the years to develop the CCB theory and design models that explain this phenomenon, as discussed previously it holds certain limitations.

Following a quantitative approach allows for the measurement of the behavioural intentions of participants in situations similar to the ones presented in the questionnaires. Nevertheless, it does not allow the researcher to grasp a holistic understanding of the actual behaviour of the participant in a natural setting. The theory of reasoned action (Fishbein, 1979; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) suggest that intention is the main predictor of a person’s behaviour. However this assumption has been

challenged in more recent research by what is referred to as the “intention-behaviour gap” (Sheeran, 2002; Sniehotta et al., 2005). The literature discusses different moderating factors for the intention-behaviour consistency that would cause a person to fail to behave as previously intended, such as the temporal stability of intentions (Sheeran, 2002). That is, intentions can change before performing the behaviour (Fishbein, 1979; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1980).

More precisely a study conducted by Singh (1988) showed that there was a close consistency between intentions and behaviours with regards to complaining when engaging in private actions such as negative word of mouth. This consistency was lower than the other types of behaviours such as actual public complaining because of factors like embarrassment. Singh (1988) further explains that a complete correspondence between the intention to complain and the actual behaviour engaged in cannot be expected due to situational variables. Hence, by adopting a qualitative approach and data collection methods (to be discussed in the following section) that capture the actual behaviour of participants in natural dissatisfactory situations that they have experienced the researcher will address this limitation posed in traditional CCB research.

In addition, several models have been developed (e.g. Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Day & Landon, 1977; Singh, 1988; Thøgersen et al., 2009) that explain the CCB process and the triggers and antecedents that lead to a certain response as well as the emotions associated with these situations. However, these models were developed based on studies following the quantitative approach and using fictional scenarios. Thus, they did not explore the contextual natural setting and the ongoing social dynamics in dissatisfying service encounters. In addition, they did not embrace the participants’ perspectives of the experiences. Herein, by assuming a qualitative strategy the researcher aims at addressing another limitation associated with the quantitative approach by exploring in-depth the CCB phenomenon and identifying any hidden unquantifiable factors. Furthermore, this approach will empower the participants by bringing forward their stories and allowing them to express their views in their own words.

4.4.2 Qualitative methodology – Critical Incident Technique

In this research the qualitative methodology assumed draws upon the principles of Critical Incident Technique (CIT) and hence it informs the data collection methods that are explained in detail in the next section.

Flanagan (1954) first used the Critical Incident Technique (CIT) in the industrial and organisational psychology field. Initially, CIT assumed a positivist approach that used subjective methods such as observations to collect data and converted the outcome into objective categories, thus using CIT as a quantitative method. Since then CIT has evolved and diverged from its roots. Beyond occupational psychology, it has been used in several disciplines such as communication, nursing and medicine, job analysis, education and teaching, marketing and marketing related research, organisational learning and performance appraisal, psychology and social work (for examples see Butterfield, Borgen, Amundson, & Maglio, 2005). Furthermore, Chell (2004) suggested that CIT is also appropriate with subjective philosophical assumptions including social constructionism by combining grounded theory and content analysis of the data.

Flanagan defined CIT as:

“A set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behaviors... By an incident is meant any specifiable human activity that is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act. To be critical the incident must occur in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer and where its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects”. (Flanagan, 1954, p. 327)

Although since its introduction CIT was assumed within the quantitative scope and researchers often used quantitative language and statistical forms to present findings, the definition presented by Flanagan (1954) bears some similarities with Cresswell's (2013) characteristics of qualitative methodology presented earlier (Butterfield et al., 2005). In CIT research the focus is on exploring an experience critical to the participants from their own perspective and in their own words. The incident is captured in its natural setting without altering the situation or controlling for external factors. When conducting the

interview the researcher in CIT aims at drawing the holistic image of the critical incident by probing, asking for details and taking into account the context of the *incident*. Furthermore, the researcher is the key instrument for data collection either by participant observations or conducting the interview. Furthermore, Flanagan (1954) encourages researchers using CIT to be flexible and use multi methods that suit the situation. He stresses that CIT “does not consist of a single rigid set of rules governing such data collection. Rather it should be thought of as a flexible set of principles which must be modified and adapted to meet the specific situation in hand” (Flanagan, 1954, p. 335).

Consequently and based on what has been presented CIT is appropriate within a qualitative approach. It has evolved through the years to become an exploratory and investigative tool fitting a social constructionist paradigm (Chell, 2004). Researchers using CIT are becoming more interested in exploring the incidents from the participants’ subjective perspectives and unfolding the hidden factors related to these incidents. They are not relying only on the simple description of the incident itself rather digging deep to capture the beliefs, thoughts, opinions, feelings and drivers for behaviours the participants experienced and which constitute the facets of the incident (Butterfield et al., 2005).

This research will adopt a definition for CIT developed by Chell (2004) that is appropriate with a qualitative strategy and assumes the social constructionist paradigm. The research methods and data collection tools will draw upon this definition.

“... a qualitative interview procedure which facilitates the investigation of significant occurrences (events, incidents, processes or issues) identified by the respondent, the way they are managed, and the outcomes in terms of perceived effects. The objective is to gain an understanding of the incident from the perspective of the individual taking into account cognitive, affective and behavioural elements”. (Chell, 2004, p. 48)

To sum up, CIT as an exploratory inductive method is well suited to this research that aims at understanding the negative emotions, consumer complaint behaviour responses and social dynamics occurring during

dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants within the natural context and from the participants' perspectives. Bitner et al. (1990, p. 73) explain that CIT fits “ when the purpose of the research is to increase knowledge of a phenomenon about which relatively little has been documented and/or describe a real-world phenomenon based on thorough understanding”. Furthermore, Burns, Williams, and Maxham (2000) explain that CIT can be used in service context research when the aim is to explore experiences encountered by the participants.

When used as an exploratory qualitative methodology, CIT offers a number of benefits to the researcher. The following is a list of these benefits adapted from Gremler (2004):

- CIT provides a rich source of data.
- CIT allows the participants to select which incidents they consider relevant to the phenomenon studied.
- CIT data collection tools such as interviews allow the participants to freely express their views, reflect their normal way of thinking and use their own language.
- The incident context is developed from the participant's perspective.
- CIT methods give the participants the chance to provide a detailed account of their experiences.
- CIT methods do not confine the researcher with a limited number of predetermined variables.
- CIT rules are flexible and can be modified to fit the objectives of the study.

In the past years the use of CIT in marketing, marketing and consumer related research and service research has increased. It is believed that Bitner et al.'s study in 1990 opened the door for more research in services. Since this study, according to Gremler's (2004) review more than 140 studies using CIT in the marketing literature have been published. There is no more recent published assessment about the popularity of CIT in marketing and service research however the researcher's review around CCB literature in particular implies that it has not been largely adopted in this particular field lately.

CIT is credible and appropriate to use in services research. It has been used in different ways, in a number of contexts, and covered several research topics. Gremler distinguishes three ways for applying CIT generated data:

“(a) studies in which data generated from CIT method are not directly analysed but rather combined with another method (e.g. a survey or an experiment), (b) studies analysing the CIT data primarily in an interpretive fashion, and (c) CIT studies employing content analytic methods”. (Gremler, 2004, p. 70)

The majority of the studies reviewed by Gremler (2004) followed content analytic procedures in sampling, data collection and data analysis.

Furthermore, although Flanagan (1954) suggested various methods to collect data in CIT, in service research the critical incidents are generally gathered by asking the participants *to tell a story about an experience they have had* (Gremler, 2004, p 66). The service related research topics investigated by the CIT studies reviewed by Gremler (2004) are: customer evaluations of services, service failures and recovery, service delivery and service employees.

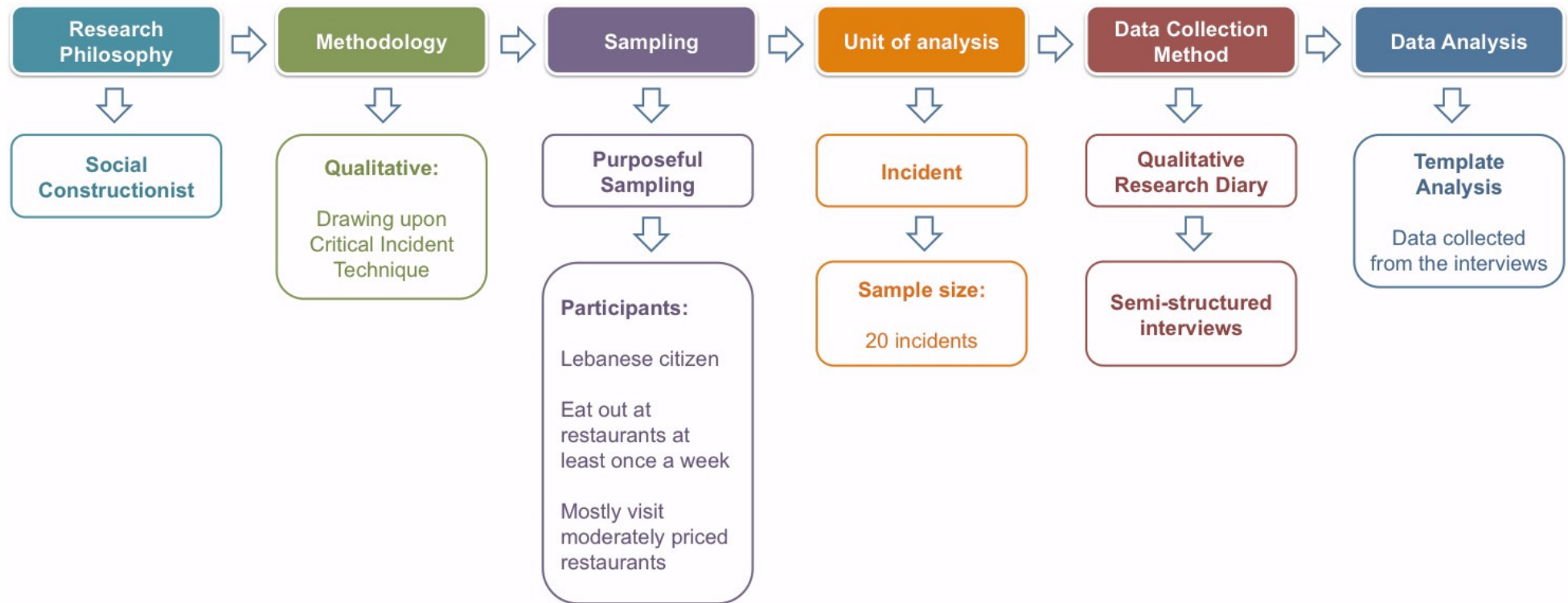
Within service failures and recovery, five studies employed CIT to research consumer complaint behaviour. In two of these studies (Folkes, 1984; Sing & Wilkes, 1996) CIT was not the primary method but was used in combination with other methods to *create a frame of reference for the respondent* (Gremler, 2004, p. 70). The other three studies (Schulp, 1999; Snellman & Vihtkari, 2003; van Dolen, Lemmink, Mattsson, & Rhoen, 2001) fall into the category of content analysis studies (see Gremler, 2004 for a complete list of reviewed studies). Hence, this study will be the first to draw upon CIT as a primary methodology to investigate consumer complaint behaviour while assuming an interpretivist perspective. This methodological contribution will be presented in Chapter 8 Section 8.3.2. Furthermore, despite the advantages linked to CIT it has some limitations. These limitations will be highlighted throughout this chapter while discussing how the data collection tools addressed them.

To conclude, up to this point this chapter has provided an overview of the philosophical and methodological assumptions of this study. It has discussed why a social constructionist paradigm, interpretivist approach and a qualitative methodology are a good fit for this research project. Furthermore, it introduced

CIT and explained how it can be used within a qualitative strategy. In addition, it presented its advantages and appropriateness for the current research objectives. The following sections of this chapter will describe in detail the research methods including sampling, data collection tools, data analysis and the ethical issues considered in this study.

Figure 22, presents an overall view of the philosophical and methodological underpinnings of this current study including details of the research methods and tools of analysis that will be detailed in the next sections.

Figure 22: Methodology and method flow chart



4.5 Methods

In this section the procedures and techniques for collecting the data will be described in detail. It will start by identifying the sampling strategies followed and justifying how it fits the research objectives. The two data collection tools (Qualitative Research Diaries and In-depth Interviews) will be presented and the rationale behind choosing them will be explained. Furthermore, it will describe how template analysis was used to analyse the data collected from the interviews. This chapter will conclude with presenting the criteria used to evaluate the quality of the research and how the ethical issues were considered.

4.5.1 Sampling

Sampling is deciding how to select cases from the population appropriate to the research aims. The sampling approaches used in qualitative and quantitative approaches are different. Qualitative research aims at generating rich and exploratory data about how people make sense of their lived experiences within their natural settings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Guest et al., 2013; Merriam, 2009).

Patton (2002) suggests that all types of sampling in qualitative research may fall under the umbrella of “purposeful sampling” (also sometimes called purposive or judgment sampling). The strength of this sampling approach is that it focuses on participants who can help the researcher learn more about the investigated phenomenon. He further explains that studying “information-rich cases” allows for gaining meaningful insights and in-depth understanding. The sample does not need to be representative and the results are not generalisable as is the case of quantitative research.

As previously stated, this study will investigate the negative emotions, CCB responses and social dynamics occurring during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants. Hereby, the individual experiences of the consumers provide the researcher with subjective and rich information about what negative emotions they experience and how they respond to dissatisfactory dining encounters as well as what stimulates these emotions and responses including the role of the

ongoing social interactions within these encounters. In contrast to other CCB studies that follow the tradition of assuming a positivist approach and using quantitative data collection tools where the investigation is mainly based on *hypothetical* situations and controlled external factors, this study is concerned with the *lived* experiences and the subjective accounts of the encounters within their natural settings. The research is interested in capturing the diverse variations of incidents, emotions, responses and stimuli, as well as identifying common patterns among the different accounts.

In alignment with these objectives, the participants were selected purposefully, seeking to demonstrate richness within lived experiences. Guba and Lincoln (1989, as cited in Kuzel, 1999, p.39) state that this sampling strategy fits investigations adopting a constructivist epistemology; it challenges the researcher's "own preconceived (and developed) understandings of the phenomenon under study".

The data collection methods followed (detailed in Section 4.5.2) required that participants report dissatisfactory incidents they encounter at restaurants. In order to increase the probability of capturing such incidents only participants who commonly eat out at least once per week were considered. Furthermore, because of the scope of the study and the fact that the data was collected in Lebanon, all the participants were Lebanese citizens living in Lebanon. They were above the age of 18.

In addition to the above two criteria, only the dissatisfactory incidents reported by the participants to have happened at moderately priced restaurants were considered. Although there are no official figures in Lebanon for the distribution of restaurants by star ranking or menu price, the researcher personally communicated with Mr. Ziad Kamel (a board member in the Syndicate of Owners of Restaurants, Cafés, Nightclubs and Pastry shops in Lebanon in 2013) in order to gather information about the restaurant sector. According to Kamel, moderately priced, full service restaurants are believed to constitute the highest percentage of the total number of restaurants in Lebanon. He explains that restaurant owners/managers use the average price per person to determine what price category their restaurant falls under. This is not an

officially acknowledged rule, rather an unwritten rule used by restaurant owners. The following scale (Figure 23) is used to categorise full service restaurants in Lebanon:

Figure 23: Classification of full service restaurants in Lebanon based on average price per person

Affordable:	Moderately priced:	High moderate:	High:
\$15 - \$25	\$25 - \$45	\$45 - \$65	Over \$65

Furthermore and drawing upon the equity paradigm to explain dissatisfaction (Section 2.3.1.3) which assumes that consumers are dissatisfied or satisfied after they compare their input to acquire the service (cost) and the outcome they receive from the transaction (benefit). Therefore, a factor such as the price of the meal would influence the evaluation process and consequently, dissatisfaction perception. Thus in order to limit discrepancies in perceptions and prior expectations between input and output, the data collected in this thesis was restricted to incidents experienced in moderately priced restaurants.

Deciding on the sample size in qualitative studies is related to the purpose and rationale of the study. Patton (2002, p. 245) explains, “the validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher than with sample size”. Thus, there are no defined rules for deciding on sample size for qualitative investigations nor a minimum or a maximum number of cases. However the concept of theoretical saturation, or as Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to it, the “point of redundancy” is a recommended strategy in most relevant literature (e.g., Byrne, 2001; Guest et al., 2013; Kuzel, 1999; Patton, 2002). Theoretical saturation is the point where no new information is being extracted from new cases. The sampling strategy followed and when the point of theoretical saturation or redundancy is reached influence the sample size (Kuzel, 1999).

Patton (2002) recommends that a researcher start with a minimum sample that can cover the phenomenon under study. However this decision is flexible and

evolves along the research process. As the fieldwork progresses, the researcher might add more participants or even change the sample. Specifically, Kuzel (1999) states that for a homogenous sample, five to eight cases or sampling units are sufficient. However, 12 to 20 cases allow capturing the diversity as well as identifying common patterns.

Furthermore according to Flanagan (1954) the sample size in a CIT study is determined by the number of critical incidents observed or reported and not by the number of participants. Hence, following this recommendation and since the methodology in this research draws upon CIT, the sample size is not the number of participants recruited but the number of dissatisfactory incidents reported by the recruited participants. Therefore the sampling unit is the incident itself. An incident is defined by Bitner et al. (1990, p. 73) as “an observed human activity that is complete enough in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act”. As explained later, participants can report more than one incident, provided that it satisfies the incident selection criteria (detailed in Section 4.5.1.2).

With the above considerations in mind, the researcher initially decided on a sample size of 15 incidents. In order to reach this target she recruited 15 participants as a start. The pilot study conducted between December 2013 and January 2014 showed that some recruited participants did not report any dissatisfactory incident during this period, while others reported two incidents. Hence, it was concluded that the number of participants recruited should be more than the number of incidents needed. The following section *Participant Recruitment* will explain in detail the recruitment process of the participants.

As the fieldwork unfolded, the research progressed and no new themes emerged from the interviews (i.e. reaching the point of theoretical saturation). The final sample size (number of incidents) considered for this research was 20 incidents provided by 16 participants.

4.5.1.1 Participant recruitment

The participants for both the pilot study and the main study were recruited via personal networking. This approach provides a number of advantages, including helping to increase the involvement of the participants in the research and fostering a trustful relationship between the participant and the researcher (Curasi, 2001; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). In particular, the participants were recruited through the social networking sites Facebook and Twitter, and WhatsApp chat groups, by posting short messages seeking interested participants. People who showed interest directly contacted the researcher through private messages.

Once the researcher and participants were in contact, the researcher explained to the participants the objectives of the study as well as the data collection procedure, including the role of the participant in this process. The researcher also assessed whether the volunteering participants fit the selection criteria and were willing to commit to the data collection procedure that stretched over a period of two months.

Participants who agreed to take part were given a guide that explained in detail the data collection procedure. A copy of the guide is featured in Appendix A and it is elaborated on when describing the data collection method in Section 4.5.2.2.

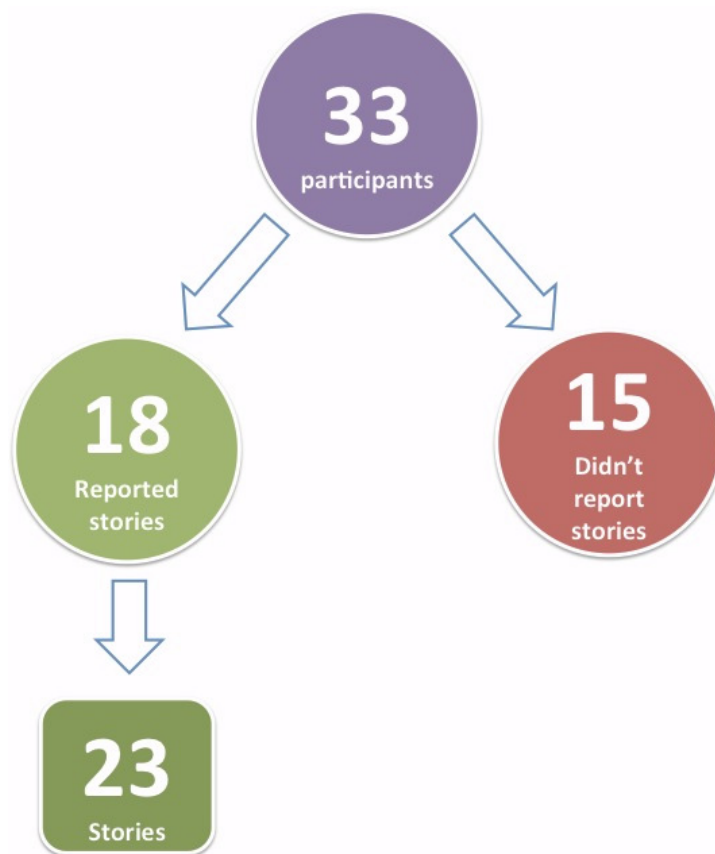
Thirty-three participants were recruited in total (11 for the pilot study and 22 for the main study). They all voluntarily accepted to commit to the time period they were recruited for and their active role in the process of collecting the data.

All participants recruited fit the selection criteria. They were Lebanese citizens, commonly ate out at restaurants at least once a week and the restaurants they mostly visit were moderately priced.

Out of these 33 recruited participants, only 18 reported to have experienced dissatisfactory incidents at restaurants during the time period they were recruited for. They reported 23 incidents (referred to in the thesis as stories) in

total. Five of these participants reported two stories each. The remaining 15 participants did not report any incidents (see Figure 24).

Figure 24: Number of recruited participants



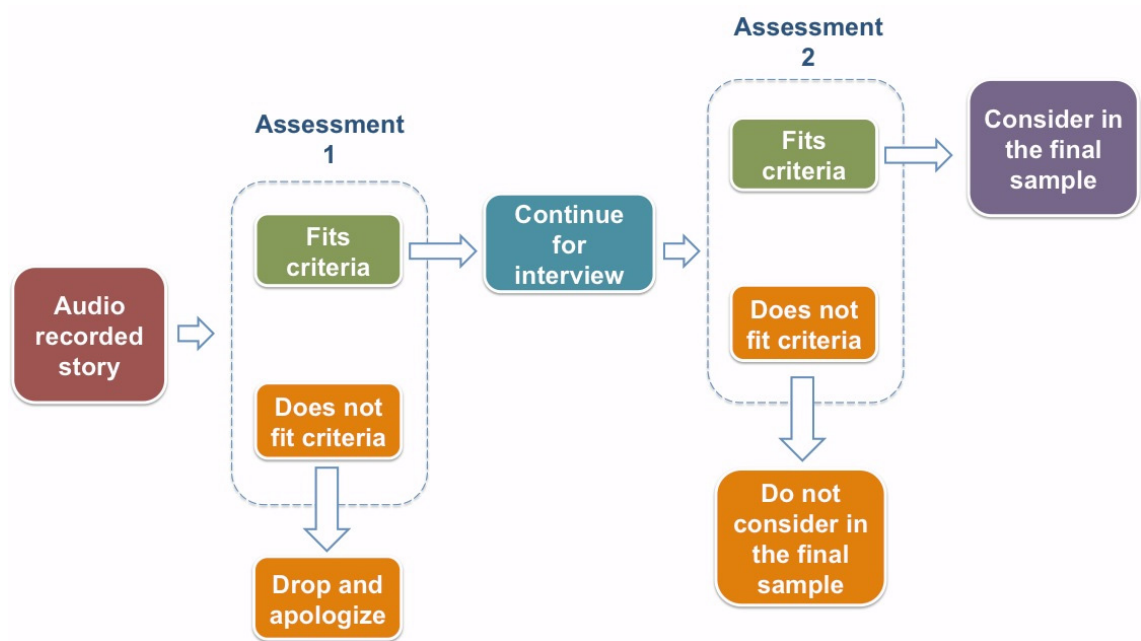
4.5.1.2 Selection of the final 20 stories

The final number of stories considered for this study was 20. Similar to the participants, the stories also had to fit certain selection criteria below and make a significant contribution to the phenomenon:

- Follow the guidelines set for the data collection procedures (detailed in Section 4.5.2), such as the time frames for reporting the story and conducting the interview.
- At least one service failure during the incident led to dissatisfaction.
- Encounter took place at a moderately priced restaurant.

All the stories were assessed at two different points (as shown in Figure 25). The first was as soon as the researcher received the audio-recorded story from the participant and the second was after conducting the interview.

Figure 25: Process for story assessment



Following this assessment procedure, three stories out of the original 23 stories were not considered because they did not fit one or more of these criteria as explained in the next paragraphs.

Participant Gadz provided a very rich audio-recorded story, which was relevant to the research question. However the interview was not scheduled within the time limit (four weeks from reporting the story) as set in the data collection due to logistic matters, specifically travel plans for both the participant and the researcher. As a result, the researcher decided to not conduct the interview and not to consider this story within the final sample as it did not adhere to the data collection procedure.

Both participants Raffa and Roro provided two stories that the researcher found after conducting the interviews not to be information-rich cases and could not add to the understanding of the phenomenon under study. They both encountered a service failure during their dining occasion but as they explained during the interview they did not consider these service failures dissatisfying; they ignored them and continued their meal without experiencing any negative emotions or engaging in any CCB response.

Furthermore, the pilot study revealed that the sampling strategy and data collection procedure followed did not need to be changed, therefore the stories collected and the interviews conducted in the pilot study were treated like those in the main study.

Table 7 provides a brief profile for each of the 20 stories. It consists of three columns. Column 1 (story) is the name given to the incident/story and will be used throughout the thesis to refer to it. Column 2 (participant) is the name given to the participant who reported the story. These are not the real names of the participants. They were chosen by the participants to refer to them in the thesis in order to make their identities anonymous. Column 3 (No. of service failures) is the number of failures that happened during the same reported dining occasion with the same participant. This parameter will be used during data analysis and interpretation to differentiate between single and multiple failure encounters and investigate its impact on negative emotions and responses.

Table 7: Profile of the final stories considered

Story	Participant	No. of Service Failures
Attitude	Nadz	Multiple Failures
Pizza	Laura	Multiple Failures
Sushi	Julz	Multiple Failures
Night	Julz	Multiple Failures
Sanfoura	Jade	Single Failure
Halloume	Jade	Single Failure
Black Spot	Ray	Multiple Failures
Latte	Leyla	Multiple Failures
Napkin	Pap	Single Failure
Fly	Yara	Single Failure
Glass	John	Multiple Failure
Slow	June	Single Failure
Quatro	Mia	Multiple Failures
Birthday	Mia	Multiple Failures
Carrots	Rita	Multiple Failures
Blue	Raffa	Multiple Failures
No Service	Joelle	Multiple Failure
Bubbly soda	Naya	Multiple Failures
Cold Service	Leyla	Single Failure
Lime Water	Grace	Single Failure

4.5.2 Data collection method

The data was collected over two phases using two methods. Qualitative research diaries (QRD) were used in the first phase, followed by semi-structured interviews drawn upon CIT in the second phase.

4.5.2.1 Multi-method approach

One of the key attributes of qualitative research is the assumption that people create meaning through social interactions and they interpret their experiences and the realities differently. The qualitative researcher is committed to exploring, understanding and describing all the facets of a phenomenon in order to fully understand it. Sherrod (2006) states that this commitment drives the researcher to use different data collection methods as needed. As Speziale and Carpenter (2003) explain, qualitative research allows the flexibility of varying in approaches where the exploring process drives the selected data collection method. They continue to explain that in some cases a single data collection method is not enough to holistically understand a phenomenon, rather it is necessary to mix methods and use multi-methods. Multi-method is a form of triangulation. According to Patton:

“The logic of triangulation is based on the premise that no single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival explanations. Because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multiple of data collection and analysis provide more grist for the research mill”. (Patton (1999, p. 1192)

Denzin (1970) distinguishes four types of triangulation; *data triangulation*, *investigator triangulation*, *theory triangulation* and *methodological triangulation*.

Methodological triangulation in particular has been referred to in the literature as multi-method, mixed-method or methods triangulation (Thurmond, 2001) and is classified into within-method and between-method triangulation. Within-method triangulation is using two data collection procedures from the same design approach such as combining observation and focus groups in qualitative study, whereas between-method triangulation is using both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods in the same study (Flick, 2014).

Using methodological triangulation extends the approaches for exploring knowledge, which in turn increases scope, depth and consistency of the collected data and adds validity to the findings (Flick, 2014). To Hall and Rist (1999), triangulation is the key for good qualitative research; it gives it strength. Patton emphasises the effect of using multi-method approaches on the research quality:

“Studies that use only one method are more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method (e.g., loaded interview questions, biased or untrue responses) than are studies that use multiple methods in which different type of data provide cross-data validity check”. (Patton, 1999, p.1192)

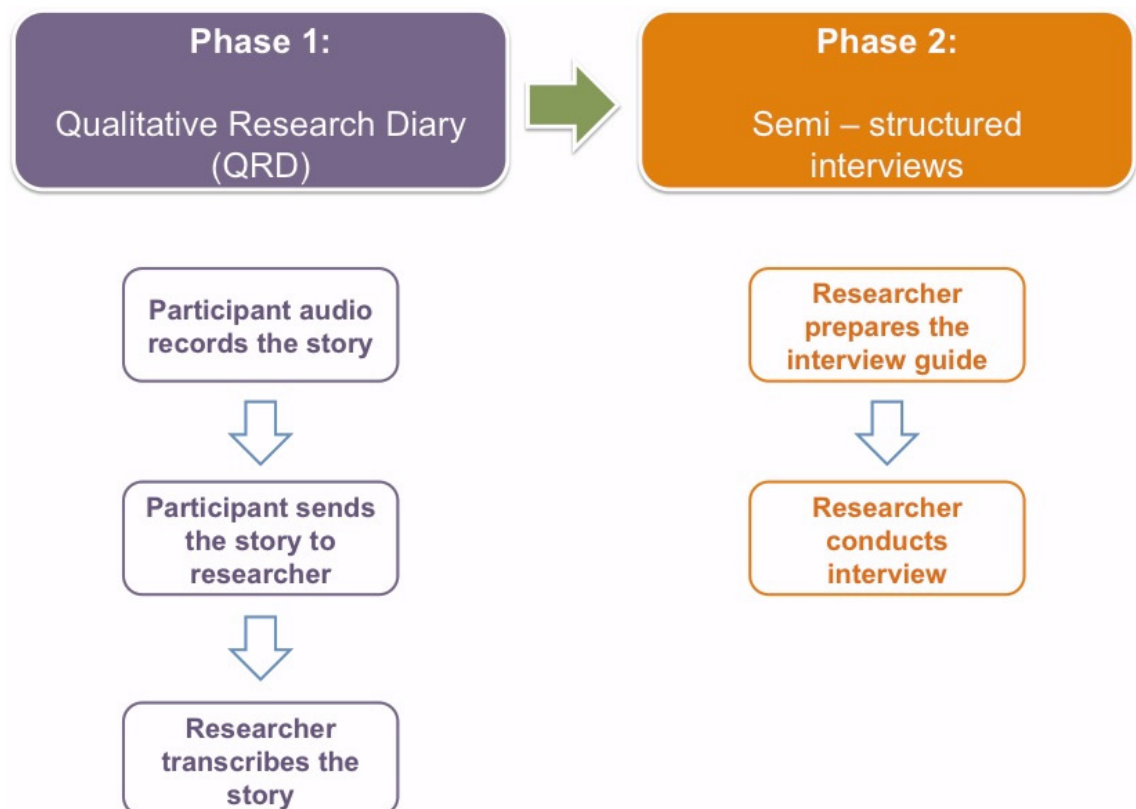
As mentioned previously, the main objective of this study is to understand the negative emotions, responses and social dynamics occurring during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants. At the early stages of the research design, the researcher decided on using only semi-structured interviews drawing upon CIT to collect the data. However these types of interviews are commonly associated with recall bias. This limitation is due to the fact that they are retrospective in nature; asking participants to recall incidents that happened sometime in the past. These incidents might vary in criticality and impact on the participant, and thus there is always the risk that the individuals will forget the details and will evaluate their responses and emotions differently. Hence, in order to address this limitation and minimise this bias, a multi-method research design was adopted using two qualitative data collection methods, therefore providing within-method triangulation.

Qualitative research diaries (QRD) were introduced as a first phase for data collection before semi-structured interviews were conducted in the second phase. The QRD allow the capture of an incident's fine points soon after it happens: these are details that might otherwise be lost, changed or forgotten by the time the interview could be conducted. Also, they helped the researcher design a guide specific for every interview by identifying the important elements of the incident, to probe further when conducting the interview.

This research design shares some similarities with the diary-interview methods used previously by Zimmerman and Wieder (1977) and Elliott (1997) as explained in Alaszewski (2006). In brief, this approach is composed of three major components: briefing the participants and giving them the diary, collecting the first recorded account and finally conducting an in-depth interview. Elliott (1997, p. 9) notes that some of her participants referred to the diaries as *aides-memoire* and that the interviews “were grounded in the texts mainly authorized by informants and reiterated informants’ own terms for describing their experiences”. The difference between these two studies and this current research is that in these two studies the main data collection method was the diary and the purpose of the interview was to fill the gaps of any missed information as well as help the researcher develop an understanding of the meanings participants attribute to certain events.

Figure 26 demonstrates this multi-method approach followed in this study describing the procedures within each phase. These procedures will be detailed in the next sections.

Figure 26: Multi-method approach



4.5.2.2 Qualitative research diary (QRD)

The use of the diary method in marketing and consumer research has increased over the years. It was first known within the positivist paradigm as a quantitative method, however diaries are also qualitative data collection tools suited to the interpretivist paradigm (Alaszewski, 2006; Patterson, 2005; Symon, 2004).

A qualitative research diary (QRD) “is an innovative way to capture rich insights into processes, relationships, settings, products and consumers” (Patterson, 2005, p. 142). Individuals personally construct diaries by recording their experiences, events, interactions, impressions and feelings (Alaszewski, 2006). One of the major advantages of using diaries is that it allows examination of the events and experiences individuals report in their natural and spontaneous contexts. Another advantage is that because the records are made at a time very close to the time the event or experience occurred, the likelihood of retrospection and recall is dramatically reduced; hence overcoming memory problems (Alaszewski, 2006; Bolger, Davis, & Rafaeli, 2003).

Rationale for using Qualitative Research Diary

The decision to use QRD in the first phase of data collection was based on the following rationale. One of the fundamental benefits of diaries is minimising the retrospection and problems of recall because diarists record the account of an experience at a time very close to when it happens (Alaszewski, 2006; Bolger et al., 2003). As previously stated, the main data was collected using semi-structured interviews drawing upon CIT which are known to being retrospective in nature and having high probability of recall bias. Thus introducing a diary when collecting the data will help capture the current cognitive and affective particularities of the incident and address this limitation.

Furthermore, it is debated that when participants are asked to recall certain ‘incidents’, they only remember the most memorable and extreme events and not the usual or ordinary ones (Gremier, 2004). This study aims at understanding how consumers respond to all dissatisfactory incidents they encounter at restaurants regardless of the severity, type of the incident and the response they undertook. Hence, using a QRD and asking the participants to

record every dissatisfying incident they encountered close to the time when it happened allows for reporting extreme as well as ordinary events.

Given that the purpose of the study is to understand the negative emotions, CCB responses and social dynamics occurring during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants, and that this research is carried out within a social-constructionist epistemology and interpretivist paradigm, the individual and subjective accounts are extremely relevant. According to Alaszewski (2006), diary is one of the methods that allow the capturing of processes individuals use to make sense of everyday experiences in their natural and spontaneous language and context.

Design of the diary study

The qualitative diary used in this study was event based. In an event based type of diary the participants are asked to record a report every time an incident occurs. What constitutes an incident relevant to the study must be defined clearly by the researcher and shared with the participants in order to remove any ambiguity (Bolger et al., 2003). The researcher should define “a single class of events as focal” (Bolger et al., 2003, p. 591). In this study the incident was defined as “every time the participant has a dissatisfying or unhappy dining experience at a restaurant”. The researcher deliberately chose to define the incident using everyday words so as to be clear to participants.

Qualitative research diaries can vary in their level of structure and thus the type of information recorded. At one extreme they can be unstructured where participants record any kind of information they consider relevant. At the other extreme they can be structured in which the researcher specifies what events, issues, and details to be covered (Alaszewski, 2006; Symon, 2004). In this study the diary was structured, asking the participants to record certain details of the incident of interest to the researcher such as the context of the dining experience, what made the dining experience unhappy or dissatisfying, the emotions they felt, their response towards the incident and the reaction of the restaurant staff.

Paper and pencil diary is the most commonly used form in diary research. Recently and because of technological developments, other forms are being used such as handheld devices equipped with custom-designed software or applications, as well as mobile communication and audio recording (Alaszewski, 2006; Bolger et al., 2003).

The diaries in this research were audio recorded instead of using paper and pen. Audio-recorded diaries were chosen for two main reasons. First, the incidents are in the form of short stories where the participant is telling the researcher what happened during a certain dining experience. In a natural and spontaneous situation, such a story is commonly 'told' and not 'written', thus the researcher wanted to maintain this natural situation and ensure that the participants recorded their stories spontaneously and using their natural language.

Bolger et al. (2003, p. 580) stress "a fundamental benefit of diary method is that they permit the examination of reported events and experiences in their natural, spontaneous context". In order to verify the use of audio-recorded diary over paper and pencil, the researcher personally underwent an experiment. After encountering a dissatisfying incident at a restaurant she recorded the incident twice, once by using paper and pencil and a second time by audio recording it. After assessing the two means, she realised that when she was audio recording her story, she felt she was telling a friend what happened and the details of the incident flowed easily, which was not the case when she wrote down her experience. Writing the story felt 'artificial'.

Second, the study aims at exploring the emotions engendered during a dissatisfying incident encountered at a restaurant, thus it was important to be able to capture these emotions. Back to the researcher's personal experiment, she also found that when she audio-recorded her experience, she expressed her feelings freely and spontaneously. In addition, when she replayed the recorded story, she was able to spot how the tone of her voice changed at every stage of the incident. Although, as explained later, the data gathered from the QRD was not analysed, it was used instead to design the interview guide. Hence, knowing how the participant felt throughout the different stages of the

incident through the changes in the tone of voice, helped the researcher structure the questions and probe when necessary while conducting the interview. These two characteristics, spontaneity and engendered emotions, could not be captured in paper and pencil diaries. Therefore, the data provided by audio-recorded diaries was richer. Figure 27 summarises the characteristics of the QRD used in this research.

Figure 27: The characteristics of the QRD



Alaszewski (2006) gives guidelines for the use of qualitative diaries that the researcher in this study has followed:

- (1): The diary itself should be user-friendly.
- (2): The researcher should provide face-to-face explanation and written guidance to diarists.
- (3): The researcher should maintain contact with the diarists.
- (4): It is recommended that a pilot study be conducted.

Design a user-friendly diary

The researcher asked the participants to audio-record their stories. They were free to record in any language they felt comfortable with. Although Arabic is the native language in Lebanon, the majority of the population is either bilingual (speaking Arabic and French or Arabic and English) or trilingual (speaking Arabic, French and English), and it is very common for people to spontaneously mix these languages when speaking. Hence, all diaries were recorded using

Arabic as the main language, but many words and phrases were said either in English or French. This did not pose any problem to the researcher, as she herself is bilingual, fluently speaking Arabic and English, with some basic knowledge of French.

Also the participants were asked to digitally audio-record their stories but they were not limited to a certain device. They had the choice to use digital audio recording devices offered by the researcher or their own devices. They were also given different options to share their stories with the researcher (via email, to a special email account, upload it to a website or the researcher physically picks up the audio recorded file). Eventually, all the participants used their mobile phones to record their stories. They either used voice recording apps or the voice recording option on WhatsApp. They also used WhatsApp to send their files to the researcher. The average length of the voice recorded stories was three minutes per story, making the file size feasible to be sent via mobile. This method proved to be user-friendly, easy, accessible and feasible.

Subscribing to WhatsApp in Lebanon is free and it is a widely used application for sending messages and chatting on smartphones. It does not require the user to be highly technologically knowledgeable, as it resembles ordinary text on mobile phones. Precisely, a report about media use in the Middle East published by Mideastmedia (2016) shows that smartphone penetration in Lebanon is 90%, and 98% of smartphone users use WhatsApp; making it the most popular app in the country. This same report notes that using WhatsApp is not restricted to one age group but it overcomes “generational divides”.

In particular, all participants during the pilot study provided positive feedback and reported that the entire data collection procedure was clear, easy and did not require much effort from their end.

Provide guidance to participants

Second, the researcher provided both written guidance and face-to-face explanation to participants. A guide was prepared and given to the participants once they were recruited, either in hard copy or soft copy (in PDF). The guide explained in detail the data collection procedure of the diary study phase and

briefly the semi-structured interviews phase. A copy of the guide is in Appendix A. Furthermore; the researcher briefed the participants about the guide in face-to-face meetings in order to ensure that they fully comprehended the objectives and procedure.

The guide answered over three sections questions on *what will be recorded, when the participants will record their stories, for how long they will be recruited, what details they should include, how they will record their incidents and share them with the researcher, and what the next phase will be.*

In the guide the term '*incident*' was referred to as '*story*'. Using the term '*stories*' made it easier for the participants to understand what is required from them to report: *share their dissatisfactory 'stories' with the researcher.*

The guide started by explaining to the participants that during a span of two months every time they are faced with a dissatisfying or unhappy dining experience (referred to as incident) they are required to audio record *their story* within 24 hours of the incident and share it with the researcher. The primary aim was to record these dissatisfying incidents as soon as possible in order to capture the emotions and minimise the problem of recall accuracy (Bolger et al., 2003). However, since these incidents happen at a restaurant and it might not be feasible or appropriate for the participants to record them on the spot, they were asked to audio record their stories within a maximum of 24 hours. All the participants audio recorded their stories as soon as they left the restaurant and shared them instantly with the researcher. Participant Mia, for instance, recorded one of her stories (Mia_quatro) while she was still at the restaurant.

Additionally, the researcher asked the participants to record all the dissatisfying incidents they encountered no matter whether they took an action or decided to say or do nothing. In order to remove any ambiguity of what a dissatisfying or unhappy dining experience meant, some examples of failures were included. It also included a number of context related and incident related questions that served as guidelines for the participants. Additionally, the guide explained how the participants could digitally audio record their stories and share their files with the researcher. The final section introduced the interview phase clarifying what

would be discussed, the approximate length of the interview, and when and where it would take place.

Maintain personal contact with the participants

Bolger et al. (2003, p. 591) suggest “in order to obtain reliable and valid data, diary-studies must achieve a level of participant commitment and dedication”. They continue to advise that maintaining continuous personal contact with the participants helps in retaining them more than with monetary incentives. According to Alaszewski (2006), it is very important to keep contact with participants not only to retain them but also to quickly identify any problems and listen to their feedback. In this study the participants were very disciplined and showed a deep commitment to this research. They were not offered nor given any monetary or material incentives. The researcher maintained personal contact with the participants during the period of data collection. The contact was on weekly basis by using WhatsApp texts at appropriate times of the day. Furthermore, and in order to make the participants feel more involved in the data collection process, the researcher asked them to choose the names that would be used to refer to them throughout the research. They welcomed this idea and chose names that are neither their real names nor nicknames they usually use.

Piloting

Following the guidelines of Alaszewski (2006), a pilot was considered. The pilot was not only restricted to the diary phase but also covered all the data collection procedures as well as data analysis. A pilot study is crucial to any research study because it helps the researcher identify difficulties that might arise once data collection commences (Harding, 2013).

In particular, the pilot for this study was conducted between December 2013 and January 2014. Eleven participants were recruited for the pilot and five of them reported incidents. Following are the main reasons for considering this step:

1. Assessing the sampling strategy and recruitment method.
2. Understanding the incident rate of dissatisfying incidents over a given period (two months) in order to determine the sample size.

3. Assessing the ability of participants to commit to a data collection procedure stretching over two months without any monetary or material incentives given to them.
4. Testing the adequacy of the research instruments.
5. Experimenting around logistical issues such as means to electronically record the stories by the participants, methods to share the digital files with the researcher, handling the files and scheduling the interviews.
6. Assessing the proposed data analysis framework.

The pilot study revealed that the sampling strategy, recruitment method, data collection procedure and data analysis framework did not need to be changed during the main study. In particular, the same recruitment strategy was extended to the main study. Furthermore the research instruments proved to be adequate and thus they were used in the main study with no changes. Logistically, all participants during the pilot used their mobile phones, specifically WhatsApp to audio record their stories and send them to the researcher. Because of this, when briefing the new participants in the main study, the researcher mentioned to them specifically that others used WhatsApp in case they prefer using it as well.

In addition, the pilot study has influenced how the interview phase was conducted, especially the design of the interview guide. This will be further detailed in the next section. Finally, during the pilot the researcher experimented around techniques to illustrate the incidents and highlight the dynamics that occur during these dissatisfying episodes. As a result of these experimentations, a diagram with four tiers was developed to map the complaint journey of all the participants. These diagrams allowed capturing the dynamic interplay between the consumer, the service provider and other customers, and giving deeper insights into CCB in restaurants.

4.5.2.3 Interviews

In depth interviews were conducted following the collection of the qualitative research diaries. This section will explain the interview phase in details.

Kvale (2007) explains that a research interview is a professional conversation between two persons where one (the interviewer) sets its purpose and structure. It is a powerful tool that allows exploration of how people experience and understand their world by describing in their own words and from their own perspective their activities, emotions, behaviours and opinions. Kvale (2007) further describes the interview as a platform where knowledge is actively constructed by the interaction and exchange of views between the interviewer and interviewee about a certain phenomenon. Thus, an interview fits a social constructionist framework.

According to Patton (2002, p. 341) “we interview to find out what is in and on someone else’s mind, to gather their stories”. Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey sum up cases when interviews are appropriate to use:

“in determining how people make decisions; in examining people’s beliefs and perceptions; in identifying motivations for behaviour; in determining the meanings that people attach to their experiences; in examining people’s feelings and emotions; in extracting people’s personal stories or biographies; when covering sensitive issues; and in examining the context surrounding people’s lives”.
(Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey, 2010, p. 109-110)

Furthermore, the research questions in an interview study should focus on subjective meaning, experience, people’s voices and stories (Hennink et al., 2010; King & Horrocks, 2011).

This study aims at understanding the behaviours, opinions and emotions of the participants within a certain context by listening to their subjective accounts of their stories. Therefore using interviews as a data collection method is suitable to answer the research questions in this study.

In particular, interviews drawing upon CIT were adopted to collect the data. As explained previously in Section 4.4.2, these types of interviews help “gain understanding of an incident from the perspective of the individual, taking into account cognitive, affective and behavioural elements” (Chell, 2004, p.48). These types of interviews also allow exploring how participants interpret their behaviours.

The participants in this phase were asked to talk in detail about the dissatisfying incidents they previously encountered at a restaurant and shared with the researcher through the audio-recorded diary in the first phase. The questions the researcher asked during the interview were derived from the information provided in the diary and aimed at exploring in-depth the particularities of the story from the participant's perspective (see Appendix B for an example of the research guide).

All the interviews were conducted face to face. Brinkman (2013) argues that this type of interview is a rich source of knowledge. During face-to-face interviews "people are present not only as conversing minds, but as flesh and blood creatures that may laugh, cry, smile, tremble and otherwise give away much information in terms of gestures, body languages and facial expressions" (Brinkman, 2013, p.28). It is important to note here, although this study did not record in detail the participants' gestures, body language and facial expressions, this type of interview and the physical presence of the participant helped the researcher better observe the participants' reactions and expressions while recalling details of the incident. Furthermore, and since the researcher transcribed the interviews herself, she included comments about such expressions in the transcripts, making them richer.

In this research the interviews were semi-structured. Van Teijlingen and Forrest (2004, p. 171) define these interviews as "guided conversation with purpose". Open-ended questions are used to explore the themes. Key questions are predetermined, however the order of the questions can be modified according to the interview flow. Also the question wording can be changed as well as questions being added or omitted depending on the interview (van Teijlingen & Forrest, 2004). In other words, all the participants are asked the same key questions, but the interviewer is flexible in choosing how and when to ask them and what follow-up or probing questions to use.

In a semi-structured interview the guide includes an outline of the topics that will be covered during the interview along with some suggested questions (Kvale, 2007). For this study a unique interview guide was developed for each interview. The questions and their sequence varied from one interview to

another based on the incident and followed the natural flow of the conversation, however the main topics were the same across all interviews and reflected the research questions. These main topics were: the service failures, the participant's responses and what motivated them, and the participant's emotions and what engendered them.

In order to develop the interview guide, the researcher transcribed the audio-recorded story (the QRD) verbatim and printed it with a wide right hand margin to allow space for notes and comments. On the printed transcript she highlighted the key words, events and topics, and wrote in the right hand margin her questions and comments. She then used this printed transcript as the interview guide. This method helped her conduct an easy flowing interview without missing any detail in the story while capturing the data needed to answer the research questions. An example of an interview guide is featured in Appendix B.

Throughout the interview the researcher used probing techniques to encourage the participants to further elaborate the information shared earlier in the audio-recorded file. She tried to balance between following the interview guide and giving the participants space to elaborate about their experience. The purpose of probing was to add depth to the data gathered by elaborating on an issue, clarifying accounts and completing stories (King & Horrocks, 2011). Furthermore, probing enhances the quality of the interview along with the questions asked, the interviewer's reaction to answers such as giving space for participants to elaborate and verifying the answers (Kvale, 2007). The researcher used during the interview some of the probing techniques described in Russeii (2000) such as silent, echo, verbal agreement, long question, leading and baiting.

The key questions the researcher asked during the interview revolved around explaining what happened during this dissatisfying dining experience, describing the participant's feelings caused by the events of this incident, the perceived causes of these emotions, the drivers they believe stimulated certain behaviours, their understanding of the whole incident and assessment of their behaviour, as well as their appraisal of the restaurant's way of handling the incident. Furthermore, the researcher asked questions to confirm context

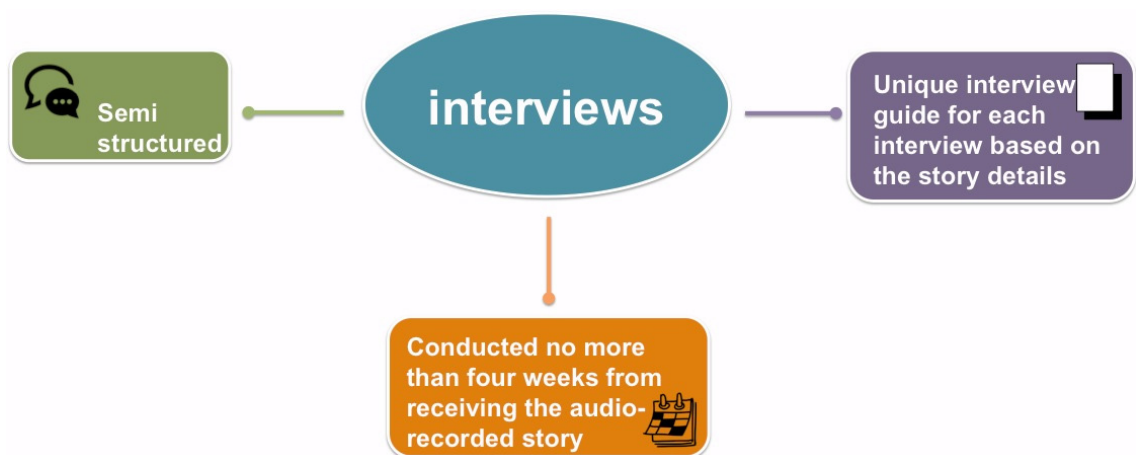
related details mentioned in the diary, such as the day, when and where the incident took place, the occasion of the dining experience, who were present and some other factual data.

The interviews were conducted in Arabic (the native language in Lebanon) in order to allow the participants to freely share their experience and express their views and emotions. Belk, Fischer, and Kozinets (2012) recommend that the language used during the interview is comfortable for both the interviewer and interviewee. The interviews were not strictly in Arabic, as the interviewees would use some terms and phrases in English or French.

The interviews were scheduled on a date agreed between the participant and the researcher. Although in the research design it was decided that the interviews would be conducted no more than four weeks from receiving the audio-recorded story, all the interviews were conducted within only one week of receiving the diary. This relatively short lapse of time between the occurrence of the incident and conducting the interview further diminished the retrospection bias and the recall problems.

The length of the interviews varied depending on the incident, specifically the number of failures within the same incident and the response of the participant to the failure(s). On average each interview lasted for 15 minutes. Figure 28 summarises the main characteristics of the interviews.

Figure 28: Main characteristics of the interviews



The interviews were conducted in locations convenient to participants and easy to travel to such as their house, offices and public areas. The researcher was concerned with creating an informal environment to ease the flow of the conversation and at the same time considering a setting that ensured privacy and high recording quality. Interview venues should be quiet, private and comfortable (Burns & Grove, 2005; Clarke, 2006; Whiting, 2008). Therefore, noisy settings were avoided and mobile devices were put on silent mode during the interview. The researcher took measures to ensure her physical safety and welfare as per the guidelines presented by King and Horrocks (2011). She always carried a charged mobile phone, informed someone about the time and place of the interview and called this person once she finished the interview and stayed attentive of any unusual cues in the environment that might threaten her safety.

The interviews were recorded using a mobile phone, specifically the Android application *Voice Recorder*. Prior to choosing this method, the recording quality was tested during a mock interview and the results were very positive. Audio-recording an interview creates a relaxed atmosphere, allows the interviewer to focus on the interview and not be distracted by taking notes, and enables accurate and verbatim transcription of the interview (Whiting, 2008).

Before conducting the interview, the researcher informed the participants that her mobile phone would be used as a voice recorder and would be placed in a position allowing a high quality recording. The researcher did not start the interview before confirming that the participant agreed on this method and is not bothered by the mobile phone. Furthermore, and to ensure no disturbance during the interview, the researcher's mobile battery was fully charged before the interview and an extra charged battery was available as a precaution.

During the interview, the researcher maintained an informal, friendly, open and interested attitude, creating a comfortable environment for the participants to share their experience. Furthermore, since they are recalling details of an incident that might bring back some negative emotions, the researcher showed a high level of empathy during the interview and was keen to put them at ease and ensure that they are not upset. In particular, when participant John was

recalling how he chewed a piece of glass and injured his mouth, the researcher stopped the interview and asked him how he was doing and whether he could continue the interview.

At the end of the interviews the researcher was keen to thank the participants for their time, valuable input, commitment and active role in this research. She would ask the participants if they have any other information that they would like to add or discuss something related to the incident that had not been covered during the interview. This helped to end the interview in a comfortable environment and on a positive note as recommended by Clarke (2006). Also, since it was possible that participants report more than one story during the time they were recruited, the researcher reminded them to share with her any new incident they encounter in the near future.

4.5.3 Transcription of the interviews

The researcher herself transcribed the interviews. Kvale (2007) states that when transcribing their own interviews, researchers learn more about their interviewing skills, recall the social and emotional aspects of the interview and start their first step of analysing the data.

All interviews were transcribed within 24 hours of conducting them. This approach followed the recommendations of Brinkman (2013) suggesting that transcribing the interviews very close to the time of conducting them helps recall the non-verbal signs and gestures that cannot be transcribed. The interviews were transcribed verbatim. In addition, the researcher's questions and comments were included in the transcripts.

During transcription, all names of persons mentioned as well as names of restaurants and places were made anonymous and all other information that could lead to the identification of the participants was removed. In order to make the participants' identities anonymous, the names used in the transcripts and throughout the study were the names by which they chose to be referred to.

4.5.4 Translation of the interviews

As all the interviews were conducted in Arabic, translation of the transcripts into English was required for the following reasons. Language difference may affect the understanding and interpretation of meaning, which is crucial in qualitative research (van Nes, Abma, Jonsson, & Deeg, 2010). Thus, if translation is not adequately thought of and considered at the early stages of the research, meaning might be lost while transferring it from phase to phase until it reaches the reader (van Nes et al., 2010).

The researcher is bilingual, fluent in both Arabic (her native language) and English (the language she has been studying since primary school). Thus, she translated the interviews. When it was difficult to translate word by word or find the most accurate translation for the Arabic terms, these terms were kept in Arabic in the transcripts so that the true meaning of the words did not get lost. Throughout this process the researcher was keen to genuinely translate the participant's account. Due to time limitation, it was not possible to do back translation for the interviews. However, for every transcribed interview, the researcher re-listened to the audio while reading the transcript in order to confirm the accuracy of the translation.

Once the interviews were transcribed and translated from Arabic, the researcher followed the recommendations set by van Nes et al. (2010) and worked in collaboration with a professional translator who is experienced in consumer and market research. Due to the high cost of the professional translators and the time limitation set for this PhD study, the translator double-checked parts of the translated transcripts. The researcher and translator worked side-by-side where the researcher would explain the intended meaning to the translator and they would discuss the possible wordings in order to decide on the best translation. This procedure was applied on the transcripts and the analysis template.

4.6 Data Analysis – Template Analysis

Qualitative analysis involves the interpretation and classification of data on several levels, such as explicit and implicit levels of meaning (Flick, 2014). It is not a linear process that starts right after data collection, rather it is an interwoven and iterative procedure where the researcher continuously moves between data collection, coding (data reduction), data display and drawing conclusions (Flick, 2014; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Template Analysis

Template analysis is used to analyse the data in this research. It is an alternative style of thematic analysis. It was first described by Crabtree and Miller (1992) and then further developed by King (2004). In this thesis the approach presented by King and Brooks (2017) will be followed. “The term ‘template analysis’ does not describe a single, clearly delineated method; it refers rather to a varied but related group of techniques for thematically organizing and analysing textual data” (King, 2004, p. 256).

Following this technique, the researcher first develops a template (list of codes) that represents themes identified in the textual data. It combines concept-driven and data-driven coding approaches since some of the codes in the template are defined *a priori* based on sources such as the literature and interview schedule (concept-driven coding). This template is revised and modified as the researcher reads through the transcripts and interprets the text (data-driven coding). The template is characterised by a hierarchical structure that represents the relationships between the themes and aids the analytical process (Gibbs, 2007; King, 2004). This analysis approach is a flexible technique that allows researchers to customize it as to fit their requirements. It facilitates within and across case analysis making it well suited to projects where there are two or more distinct groups that will be compared (King, 2004).

Template analysis may be used within a range of epistemological positions in particular within the constructionist approach. In this approach the researcher assumes that there are always multiple interpretations to be made of any phenomenon reflecting the interplay between the researcher and the participant (Gibbs, 2007; King, 2004).

The rationale behind using template analysis in this research can be summed up as follows. It is an analysis approach consistent with the philosophical assumption of the study. Additionally, analysis can be done within and across cases thus it fits the research questions and allows the researcher to provide a detailed account of the data and rich interpretation. Further, the activity of developing a template leads to a well-structured manner in handling the data and eventually producing a clear and organised account of the study (King, 2004).

In this research, template analysis was applied on the data collected from the 20 semi-structured interviews. The data collected from the interviews (which were based on QRDs in the first phase) is rich and allows gaining insights and in-depth understanding of the subjective accounts and hence addresses the research questions. As mentioned earlier, during these interviews the participants were able to elaborate further on their experiences that they recorded during the QRD phase and explain their accounts of the incidents. The researcher used the data collected from the QRDs to develop the unique guides for each interview. These guides allowed her to conduct a thorough interview that follows the particulars of each 'story', which covered the main topics, probe for details and ask questions that can fill in gaps missed from the QRD.

4.6.1 Coding in template analysis

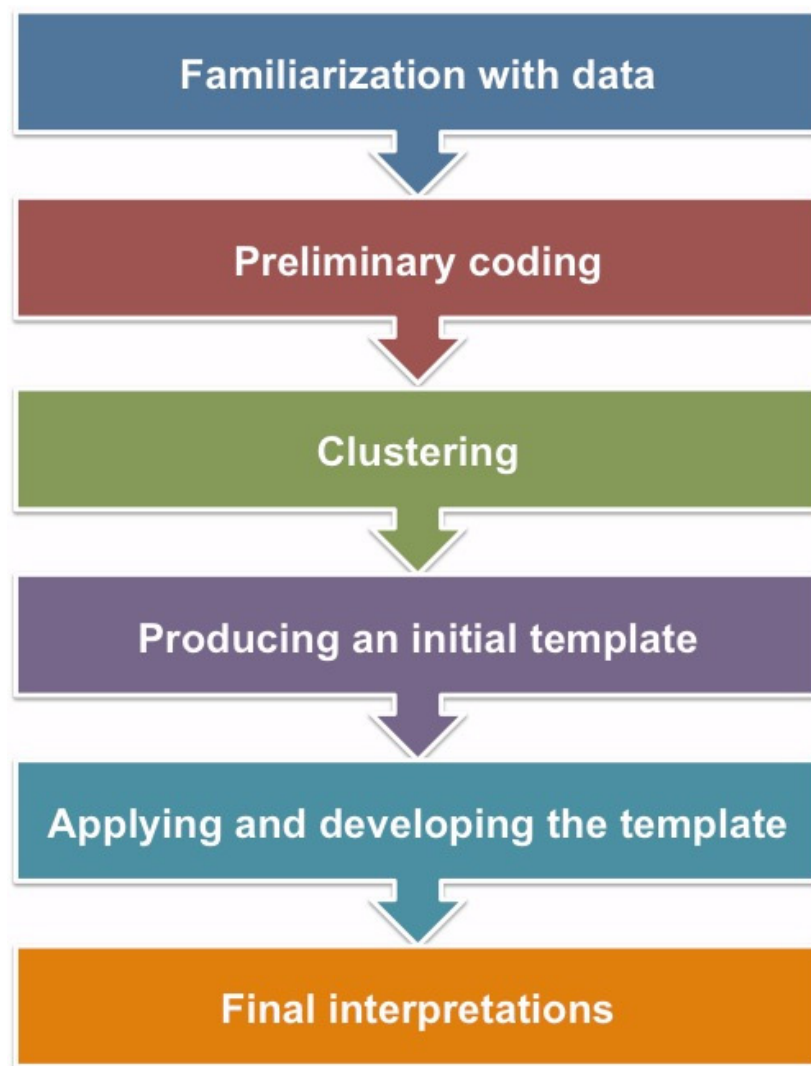
King (2004, p.257) defines a code as "label attached to a section of text to index it as relating to a theme or issue in the data which the researcher has identified as important to his or her interpretation". In the basic versions of thematic analysis codes are either 'descriptive' or 'interpretive'. King and Horrocks (2011) argue that this differentiation is not always possible because these two types of codes can never be totally separated. "Any theme must be grounded in what is actually present in the data" (King & Horrocks, 2011, p. 168). They do not reject that there is a distinction between them but they treat them as the poles of a dimension more than a dichotomy. Thus, the hierarchy of themes in template analysis is not based on moving to more abstraction (from descriptive codes to interpretive codes) but on scope; lower-level themes to higher-level themes. Hence, in template analysis the placement of the themes within the template is not determined by how interpretive the theme is (King & Horrocks, 2011).

In particular, codes in template analysis follow a hierarchical organisation. Lower-level codes are grouped together to produce a more general higher-level code. Higher-level codes represent the general direction of the interview whereas the lower-level codes highlight the distinctions within and between cases (King, 2004). There is no fixed number of hierarchical code levels in template analysis. Researchers can use as many levels as they find useful to capture and organise the meanings in the data. Hence, template analysis encourages depth in coding and in order to show fine differences within a theme a template may have four or more hierarchical coding levels (King, 2004; King & Brooks, 2017; King & Horrocks, 2011).

4.6.2 Conducting the analysis

The data analysis in this study followed the procedures for template analysis detailed in King and Brooks (2017). Figure 29 summaries this procedure.

Figure 29: Template analysis procedure



Sources: King and Brooks (2017)

Step one: Familiarisation with the data

The first step in qualitative analysis is familiarising oneself with the data.

Transcribing the recorded interviews is considered the first milestone to engage with and reflect on the data. The researcher followed the recommendations in the literature (see Gibbs, 2007; King & Brooks, 2017; King & Horrocks, 2011; Kvale, 2007) and transcribed the interviews herself which helped her become fully immersed in the data and familiar with it. Furthermore she read through the transcripts more than once and listened to the audio-recorded interviews that helped her generate new ideas from the data. Figure 30 is an example from a transcript.

Figure 30: Example of the transcript

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	
		Leyla_cold Service					
			Theme	Sub themes			
Notes	Line	Text	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	
	1	H. So on Sunday night and it was with your					
	2	cousin. Was there any special occasion.					
	3	L. No we were hungry, we wanted to have					
	4	dinner.					
	5	H. so it was not any special occasion -					
	6	L. we heard that it is a good sushi place so					
	7	we went there. And it was in our area in					
	8	Ashrafieh. We wanted to watch a movie.					
	9	Before we went to the movie we said that					
	10	we will grab a bite and we didn't want					
	11	anything greasy at night. We said sushi is					
	12	good -					
	13	H. and from the conveyor it is easy-					
	14	L. yes it is practical and fast. We assumed					
	15	that we grab a bite and we go to the					
	16	movies.					
	17	H. you heard that it was a good place. So					
	18	once you entered you said that the					
	19	greeting was very bad. Can you tell me					
	20	more?					
	21	L. the waiter didn't talk much she was did					
	22	say hello how are you , she just said hi in a					
	23	very timid way.					

Step two: Preliminary coding

For carrying out preliminary coding, the researcher, as per the recommendations of King and Brooks (2017), went through the transcripts and highlighted parts in the text she believed are important in addressing the research questions and wrote brief explanations.

Following this, she started defining a number of potential *a priori themes*. These themes are identified before starting the coding process. It is not obligatory to use them in template analysis but they are allowed. They are usually generated from the literature or interview guide and represent key theoretical concepts on which the study was designed (King, 2004). When using *a priori* themes King and Brooks (2017) recommend that the number of themes be limited in order to minimise what they call the unwanted “blinkering effect” on the analysis. They also advise that the themes correspond to the research aim and questions. Finally, *a priori* themes are tentative themes. During the course of the analysis they might be considered irrelevant, meaningless or require redefining. Therefore the researcher must be open when using them.

In this study, seven key *a priori* themes were derived from the research questions, interview guides and a subset of the data: *context of the dining occasion, service failure, emotions, response, complaint channel, response trigger* and *complaint handling*. Other lower-level codes were identified based on the literature.

Step three: Clustering

This step involves thinking of how the themes relate to each other and organising them in clusters. The researcher followed the method used by King and Brooks (2017) and wrote the theme on coloured sticky notes and placed them on a large size paper to facilitate moving them around and experimenting with different relationships.

Step four: Producing an initial template

In template analysis, developing the template is not a one-step activity, rather it is an iterative process linked to the ongoing analysis. The initial template is applied to the text, then it is revised in the light of emergence of new codes and

then it is re-applied. This process continues until the researcher feels that the template is clear and thorough enough to capture the key themes and relationships in the data and generate rich conclusions (King & Horrocks, 2011).

After applying preliminary coding and clustering on a subset of the data the initial template can be developed. King and Brooks (2017) note that in template analysis the boundaries between the main steps are not clear and this applies to moving from clustering to producing the initial template. In this study the researcher developed the initial template (Table 8) after implementing preliminary coding and clustering on four transcripts out of the 20.

The initial template included the seven high order themes identified during the preliminary coding step. These themes are relevant to the research questions. Lower level themes fall under each of these main key themes in order to elaborate in depth on them and further explore the research areas.

Table 8: The initial template

- 1. Context of the dining occasion (CO)**
 - 1.1. Type of occasion
 - 1.2. Day of the week
 - 1.3. Company
 - 1.4. Restaurant occupancy
- 2. Service failure (SF)**
 - 2.1. Type of the service failure
 - 2.1.1. *Service*
 - 2.1.2. *Cleanliness*
 - 2.1.3. *Food*
 - 2.1.4. *Environment*
 - 2.1.5. *Staff attitude*
 - 2.2. Number of service failures
 - 2.2.1. *Single failure*
 - 2.2.2. *Multiple failures*
- 3. Negative emotions (OM)**
 - 3.1. Towards staff
 - 3.2. Towards food
 - 3.3. Towards self
 - 3.4. Towards environment
- 4. Response (RS)**
 - 4.1. Inside the restaurant
 - 4.1.1. *Do something*
 - 4.1.2. *Do nothing*
 - 4.2. Outside the restaurant
 - 4.2.1. *Do something*
 - 4.2.2. *Do nothing*
- 5. Complaint channel (CC)**
 - 5.1. Inside the restaurant
 - 5.1.1. *Offline*
 - 5.1.2. *Online*
 - 5.2. Outside the restaurant
 - 5.2.1. *Offline*
 - 5.2.2. *Online*
- 6. Response trigger (RT)**
 - 6.1. Do something
 - 6.1.1. *Restaurant related*
 - 6.1.2. *Service failure related*
 - 6.1.3. *Individual related*
 - 6.2. Do nothing
 - 6.2.1. *Restaurant related*
 - 6.2.2. *Service failure related*
 - 6.2.3. *Individual related*
- 7. Complaint handling (CH)**
 - 7.1. Positive
 - 7.2. Negative

Step five: Applying and developing the template

This initial template was applied on a sub-sample of the data. As recommended by King and Horrocks (2011) six transcripts out of 20 were coded based on this template. During this process some inadequacies were revealed which required changes of various kinds. King (2004) describes four main types of modifications that can be made while revising an initial template: *insertion*, *deletion*, *changing scope* and *changing higher-order classification*.

While revising the above initial template new codes both of higher-level and lower level were added. An example of this is the higher-level code *emotions drivers*. Also initially defined codes were deleted because either the researcher found that there is no need to use it or it overlapped with other codes. For example the higher-level code *complaint channel* was deleted because the researcher found that it overlapped with the higher-level code *response*. The fourth level code *pressure from friends to complain* which was under the higher-level code *response triggers* was found to be narrowly defined and needed to be re-defined into a higher-level code. Hence in the revised template it was re-defined into a first level code as *companion contribution*. The revised template is featured in Appendix C.

This revised template was applied on the data and underwent several modifications as well. Again the newly revised template was in turn re-applied to the data and more amendments were introduced. Some of these major modifications are: joining the two high-level codes *emotions drivers* and *response drivers* under one high-level code *stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses*; the first level code *companion contribution* was further re-defined as a second level code under *stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses*; and the two key themes *complaint handling* and *assessment of complaint handling* were deleted because they overlapped with other codes.

This process was repeated five times resulting in five revised versions of the template before reaching the 'final template'. King and Brookes (2017) note that there is no pre-defined number for this iterative process (applying and revising the template). The researcher must keep applying the template and modifying it when necessary until satisfied with a 'final template' that reflects the data. All

these versions of the template were dated with comments and reflexive notes about the major changes that were introduced and the rationale behind them. This provides a clear trail to audit the quality of the data analysis process (King and Brooks, 2017).

King (2004, p.263) explains that “one of the most difficult decisions to make when constructing an analytical template is where to stop the process of development”. No template can be considered ‘final’ if there remains un-coded text relevant to the research question. Also before calling a template ‘final’, all text should have been read and the coding scrutinised at least twice (King, 2004). In this study the researcher decided on the ‘final template’ after applying the template on all 20 transcripts and no new themes (high or low order themes) emerged from the data set. Furthermore, she once more applied the ‘final version’ on the entire data as recommended by King and Brooks (2017).

In addition, before moving to the next step and in order to further ensure the quality of the analysis process, the researcher asked an outside expert (an experienced qualitative market researcher) to independently code a sample of the data (six transcripts) using the final template. King and Harrocks (2011) suggest using three out of 10 transcripts during quality check. The researcher then met with the independent coder to compare, contrast and discuss the coding. The independent expert believed that the template was clear and comprehensive enough and that no modifications were needed (King, 2004; King & Brooks, 2017). Table 9 displays a subset of the final template only showing the top two level themes (first and second level). The complete template is presented in Appendix D.

Table 9: The key themes of the final template

1. Incident Context (CO)

- 1.1. Type of occasion
- 1.2. Day of the week
- 1.3. Companion
- 1.4. Restaurant occupancy
- 1.5. Purpose of the meal
- 1.6. Past experience

2. Type of service failure (SF)

- 2.1. Process
- 2.2. Product
- 2.3. People
- 2.4. Physical evidence

3. Negative emotions emerged based on causal agency (EM)

- 3.1. Other attributed
- 3.2. Situational attributed
- 3.3. Self attributed

4. Type of CCB response (RS)

- 4.1. Primary involved
- 4.2. Primary uninvolved
- 4.3. Secondary involved
- 4.4. Secondary uninvolved

5. Stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses (SER)

- 5.1. Situation related
- 5.2. Attribution
- 5.3. Psychographics
- 5.4. Relationship between consumer and restaurant
- 5.5. Social

Step Six: Final interpretations

In template analysis, developing the template is not the final purpose but it is a “means to an end” (King & Brooks, 2017). Once the final template is confirmed and all transcripts are coded accordingly, the researcher must interpret these findings. King and Brooks (2017) list a number of guidelines to achieve this (1) examining patterns of themes in the data, (2) prioritising themes and (3) findings and developing connections.

In this study a comprehensive document of themes was developed in order to explore and understand how the codes are distributed among the stories and within the same story. This document allowed the researcher to have a holistic view of all the coded data. It helped her observe patterns in the themes and highlight the recurrent and less recurrent ones. Also this document enabled the researcher to draw comparisons between stories and participants and examine the relationships between the themes as well as identify the themes that provide deep insights and are relevant to the research questions.

The document was prepared using MS Excel. It constituted five sheets each representing a key theme. In each sheet, the stories were in the columns and the themes and subthemes were in the rows. For each lowest level subtheme, the extract from the story along with the line number from the original transcript was displayed in the respective cell. Figure 31 is an extract from this document featuring the theme *Type of CCB response*.

Figure 31: Extract from the comprehensive themes document

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Jade_Sanfoura	Jade_Halloume	Julz_sushi
5 types of CCB response (RS)	5.1 primary involved	5.1.1 primary voice complaint	5.1.1.1 complain directly to the waiter	I called him and told him I am not sure if the sauce is spoiled or anything but the taste is really horrible and disgusting.(83 - 85)	and I called the waiter (45) so the waiter came and asked me what is the matter. I told him look at the hair in the pan it is a bit big (52 - 53)	we told the waiter or manager and he brought some but a different type. But we asked for them ((confirmed tone))(100 - 102)
			5.1.1.2 complain directly to the supervisor / manager			
			5.1.1.3 fill a feedback card			
	5.2 primary uninvolved	5.2.3 No action / do nothing			so I felt ewwww ((very disgusted)). First I moved it to the side and covered it with a tissue so that I don't have to see it. Here all my friends looked at me in a way surprised that I didn't call the waiter and asked if I am not going to . (40 - 44)	H: you didn't say anything to the manager or waitress regarding the dim light? J: we looked up, it is not that there are lights but are not on, simply there are no lights. (52 - 55) I was slightly annoyed but I didn't do any comment (67 - 68) H: so all that time you didn't think of saying anything to the waitress J: Honestly I felt so sorry for her. Alone serving all tables. Going from one table to another (90 - 93)

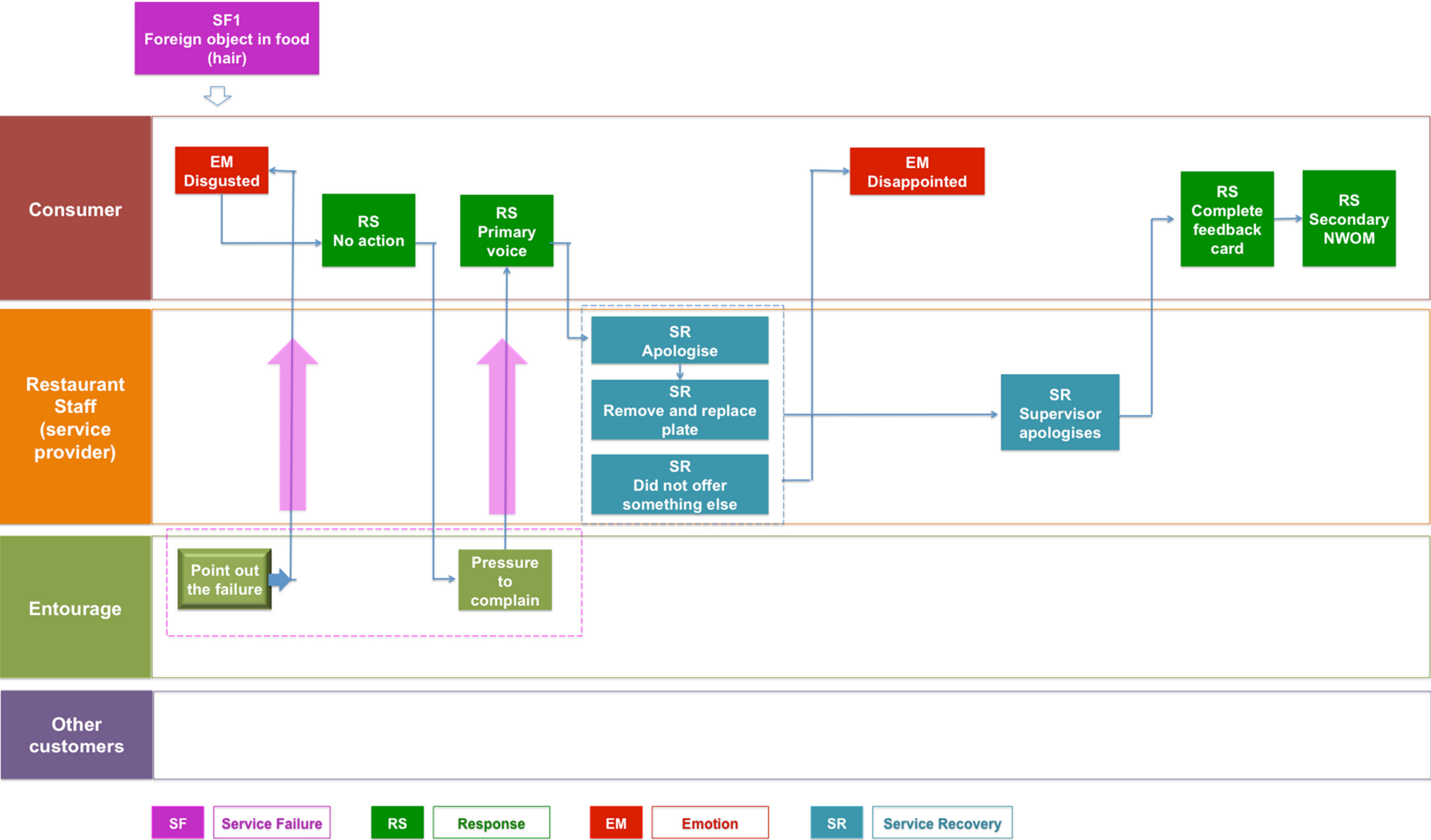
In addition to the above document and in order to further explore the relationships between the themes and acquire a deeper understanding of the negative emotions, CCB responses and social dynamics that occur during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants, the researcher incorporated alongside the template analysis case summaries. King and Brooks (2017) suggest that it is a useful approach when the researcher aims at a deeper analysis of the data.

Understanding the natural dynamics that occur in the stories is essential to the interpretation of the data in this study as well as the chronology and the causes of events. In particular case studies can be used to help explain complex causal events (Yin, 1989). The researcher has followed some of the strategies Bazeley (2013) suggests to work with cases.

For every story, a vignette was developed that summarised the dissatisfactory dining occasion as reported by the participants and included particular points or incidents that are relevant to the research questions and of interest to the study. Examples of some of these vignettes are displayed in Chapter Six.

In addition to the vignettes, visual models were developed that showed chronologically the critical events as well as the negative emotions and the responses as reported by the participants. They represented a mapping of the complaint journey of every participant. These visual maps allowed the researcher to explore and have an in-depth understanding about the flow of the events during these dissatisfactory incidents and how events and players involved influenced each other. Figure 32 displays an example of these four-tier complaint journey mappings. The tiers represent (1) the consumer, (2) service provider, (3) the entourage and (4) the other customers. These mappings are explained and interpreted in Chapter Six.

Figure 32: Complaint journey mapping of Jade_halloume



Finally, a comprehensible account of the data interpretation must be presented drawing out conclusions from the findings (King & Brooks, 2017). The findings will be presented and discussed in Chapters Five, Six and Seven.

Chapter Five will present in detail the key themes that emerged from the analysis of the data and that address research questions one, two and three.

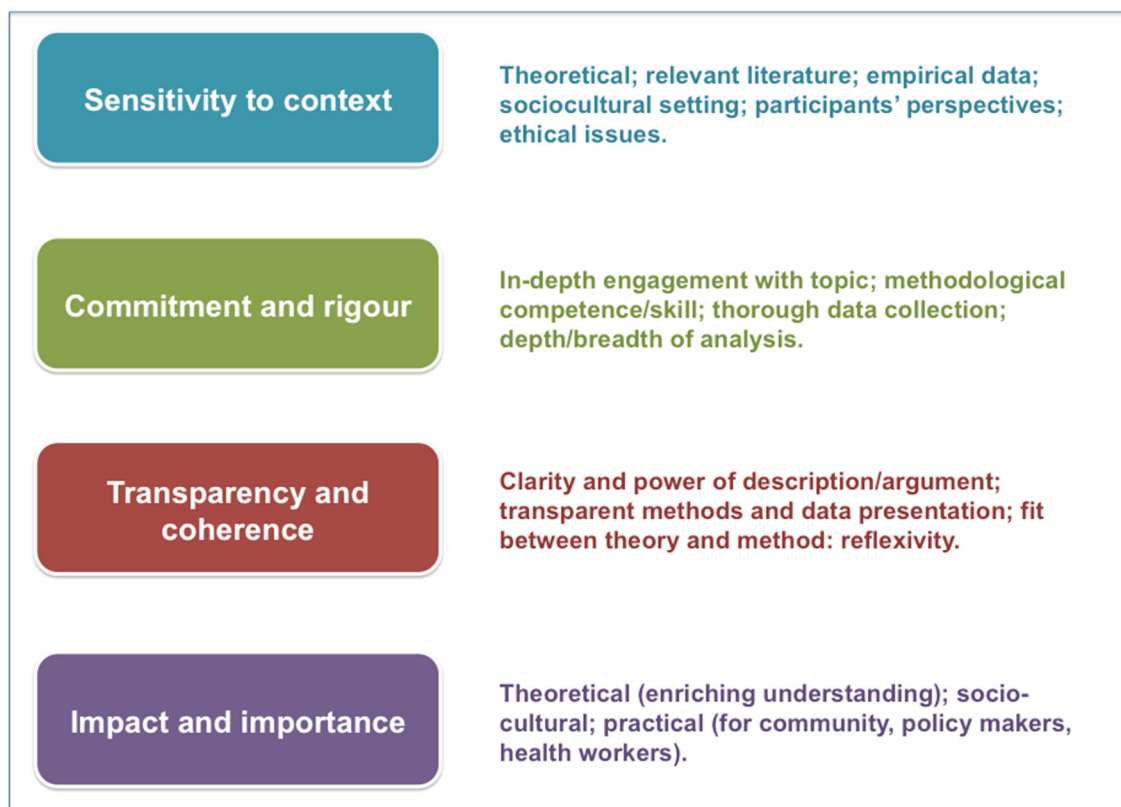
Chapter Six will present the findings relevant to research question four. It will present and explore through the participants' accounts and stories the social dynamics that occur during a customer complaint episode in a restaurant context.

Chapter Seven will discuss these findings in light of the relevant literature and research objectives and draw out the conclusions.

4.7 Evaluation of the research

The assessment of the quality of qualitative research has raised many questions and various guidelines have been developed. Hence, there is no general consensus about which criteria to use or how to apply them (King & Horrocks, 2011). This thesis uses the guidelines suggested by Yardley (2000) for judging the validity of qualitative research. Yardley (2000) distinguishes four characteristics of good qualitative research: *sensitivity to context, commitment and rigour, transparency and coherence*, and *impact and importance* as featured in Figure 33.

Figure 33: Characteristics of good (qualitative) research



Source: Yardley (2000)

Sensitivity to context:

The researcher was aware of relevant and pre-existing literature of the investigated topic as shown in previous chapters. She further demonstrated sensitivity to context by acknowledging the socio-cultural setting of the study and reporting the participants' perspectives. The nature of the data collection process provided space to the participants to express their subjective accounts about specific incidents and experiences. In addition, the data collection stretched over a period of two months allowing the emergence of an interactional relationship between the researcher and the participants. Furthermore, the researcher and the participants shared the same culture and this helped the researcher to be more consciously sensitive to issues such as language, beliefs and expectations during research design, data collection, analysis and reporting. Finally, all ethical issues were considered throughout the study as shown in 4.8.

Commitment and rigour

The researcher has been engaged with this research since the beginning of her PhD journey. She is deeply immersed in the data through personally designing the data collection procedure, collecting the data, transcribing and translating the interviews, coding and analysing the data. Specifically, the data collection process required high commitment. It stretched over a period of two months during which diaries should be collected and face-to-face interviews conducted. In order to achieve this and motivate participants to share their stories and maintain them, the researcher did continuous weekly follow-ups with all recruited participants. Throughout the process starting with recruitment and ending with the interview, the researcher was keen to treat the participants in a polite, kind and considerate way, making it clear that their experiences and time are appreciated. In addition, the use of diaries and interviews (multi-methods) enhanced the thoroughness of the collected data. Data analysis is described in detail in Section 4.6 and shows the systematic and thorough procedure followed. Finally, Chapters Five and Six demonstrate the rich and deep interpretation of the findings.

Transparency and coherence

Throughout this thesis the procedures followed and findings were presented and interpreted in a clear and coherent manner. In particular, Section 4.5.1.1 describes how the participants were recruited. Section 4.5.1.2 explains how the incidents were selected. Section 4.5.2 details the data collection procedure. Finally Section 4.6 demonstrates the data analysis process explaining every step followed and the measures taken to ensure transparency and audit the quality. In addition, relevant tables and figures have been included in the Appendices.

Impact and importance

Any piece of research has value if it has impact on the audience and its findings are relevant to the community. The theoretical and practical implications of this study are addressed in Chapter 8. Briefly, the findings of this study will extend the knowledge relevant to CCB within restaurants. This topic will address gaps in the literature specifically understanding the natural social dynamics that occur in such contexts and their influence on the entire CCB process. These findings

will help restaurants better understand the complaint behaviour in this sector and build effective strategies for service recovery and complaint management.

4.8 Ethical issues

The formal ethical approval for this research was granted in May 2013 by the Research Ethics Committee of Newcastle Business School, University of Northumbria at Newcastle, Newcastle upon Tyne.

4.8.1 Informed consent

All recruited participants received brief information about the nature and aim of the study. Also they were told about their role in the research and in the data collection process, as well as the length of the period they will be recruited for. All consent forms were signed and collected before starting the data collection process. An example is included in Appendix E.

Prior to the interview, permission to record the interview was obtained. Also the researcher informed the participants that they were free to withdraw from the interview at any time and that the recordings would be transcribed.

4.8.2 Confidentiality and anonymity

In order to ensure anonymity, the names of participants, restaurants and locations mentioned during the interview were changed. As explained earlier, throughout this study the participants were referred to by names that are not their real names or nicknames they usually use.

Directly before starting the interview, the researcher reminded the participants that all names mentioned of people, restaurants and locations would be made anonymous and that they will be referred to by the names they have chosen. They were also reminded that confidentiality would be maintained in terms of storing and handling data.

4.9 Research method challenges

At the end of this chapter it is important to acknowledge some challenges that might be associated with the research method and present how they were addressed and how they could influence the interpretation of the findings.

Purposeful sampling was adopted. The researcher was keen to initially diversify the sample within the set criteria when recruiting the participants in terms of the basic demographic factors such as age, gender, education, occupation and place of living in order to gather a variation of experiences and accounts. However, because not all these participants reported dissatisfying incidents to the researcher she had limited control over the profile diversity of the final sample of participants; for instance more female than male participants reported incidents. In order to address this issue, she continuously monitored the demographic profile of the participants with incidents and recruited more participants with demographic profiles that were missing.

The qualitative research diary played a crucial role in weakening the recall bias associated with interviews following the CIT. However, some participants shared with the researcher that because they were asked to record the dissatisfying incidents, they became more aware of and alert to service failures than they normally were. Particularly, Alaszewski (2006) points out that engaging in research diaries might affect the behaviour of the research participants. Hence, the semi-structured interview after the recording of the diaries allowed the researcher to further investigate whether that was the case with the participant. Furthermore, during data analysis and interpretation of the findings the researcher closely considered this limitation.

Furthermore, the use of a multi-method consisting of a qualitative research diary and semi-structured interviews had some logistical challenges. First, the two-month time span for which each participant was recruited and asked to audio record all dissatisfying incidents he/she encountered within this period required high commitment from both the participant and the researcher. The researcher had to continuously maintain personal contact with all recruited participants throughout this two-month period in order to motivate them and make sure they were not facing any problems related to the research. Second, the data

collection tools used were bound by a strict deadline; participants had to record their stories within a maximum of 24 hours from the incident and the researcher must conduct the interview within a maximum of four weeks from receiving the voice recorded story. These deadlines posed further logistical challenges and required the researcher to be physically present close to the participants (in this case be present in Lebanon) for the entire data collection period. These issues should be considered if the same method were to be used in future research.

4.10 Reflexivity of the research

Reflexivity is central in qualitative research. A qualitative text is not independent from the researcher (Creswell, 2013). Therefore the researcher should explicitly clarify his or her position and consciously acknowledge the cultural, social and personal stances for the effects they would have on the interpretations of the findings (Creswell, 2013). The qualitative researcher according to Flick (2014) should be aware that he or she plays an active role in co-constructing the object of study.

This study has assumed an interpretivist approach and followed a qualitative methodology in order to explore CCB is restaurants. The researcher, myself, had a substantial role in the entire research process. In an attempt to acknowledge this role the following two sections will discuss both autobiographical reflexivity and research process reflexivity.

4.10.1 Autobiographical reflexivity

Autobiographical reflexivity tells the reader more about the researcher as a person; where he/she comes from, experiences, beliefs and interests that might have impact on the research (King and Horrocks, 2011).

I was born and raised in Lebanon. Both my parents are Lebanese. I came first to the UK in 2006 to pursue my postgraduate degree and upon graduation I returned to Lebanon to join a market research company as a senior quantitative market researcher. My aim was always to further continue my higher education in marketing and consumer behaviour and attain a PhD. I achieved this when I returned to the UK in 2012 to start my doctorate journey. However my stay in

the UK was cut short because of health issues I experienced with my eye in 2014 that forced me to interrupt my studies for a year and return as a part time PhD student. Currently I live in Lebanon.

Before starting this research, my experience with restaurants was merely that of a consumer. I had little knowledge of the service industry and the particularities of restaurants. However, as I explain in Chapter One, my interest in the topic emerged when I was volunteering with a local organisation that was working at that time on building awareness around food safety issues. The question that intrigued me was why people do not complain as often despite the severe food safety failures they experience. I tried to find studies or research done in the Lebanese context in order to explain this phenomenon first to myself and second to my colleagues at the organisation, but I failed. This was a major influence for my choice of topic. However along the course of this PhD my interest in the topic advanced tremendously. I was no longer only interested in explaining the phenomenon within a Lebanese context but I wanted to uncover aspects of CCB that were not yet explored.

I am a Lebanese consumer who on occasions experienced service failures at restaurants in Lebanon that had an impact on my emotions and responses before being a researcher. Therefore because of my past experiences, views and opinions, I can relate to the findings of this study; for example, how the entourage can influence the CCB process. I am aware that this might create some bias in the interpretation and conclusions drawn, but I believe that I conducted this study with as much impartiality and transparency as possible. I only interpreted data that was derived from the interviews and did not let any personal experience influence the analysis process.

4.10.2 Research process reflexivity

My PhD journey was very enlightening and challenged some of my views, skills and even my personal capabilities. I joined the PhD program after working as a quantitative market researcher for five years. My first challenge was to adjust into my new position as an academic researcher as opposed to a researcher in the industry. One thing I learnt is how important the philosophical assumptions

in research are and how they influence the entire study and our awareness of reality.

As a quantitative market researcher, it went without saying that I would be assuming a positivist stance and following a quantitative methodology. However when I started engaging more with my topic and raising questions about CCB and what I am really interested in exploring, I realised that my original stance did not fit. I had to make the decision of following a qualitative methodology, a totally new route for me but one that is appropriate to my research objective and questions. This was another challenge in this journey. This thesis is my first direct experience in qualitative research. It has taught me that the research methodology is indeed driven by the research questions and as researchers we must be open to methodologies and methods that help us achieve our objectives.

I conducted my pilot study between December 2013 and January 2014. I was exuberant about how it went and the data I collected. I was ready to start my main study. However, in January 2014 I suffered from a problem in my right eye that kept me struggling for months. Between February and April 2014, I underwent four surgical interventions that eventually left me with no vision in my right eye. The impact of this was immense, not just physically and psychologically, but also on my research. I had to take a break from my studies for one year to undergo therapy and recover, which significantly affected the research process.

During my recovery period I was unable to use any computers or screens, yet I wanted to stay close to my research. Thus, I listened and re-listened to the audio-recorded interviews of the pilot study and I took notes of issues to work on and of the important themes that emerged. This proved very helpful when later conducting the interviews for the main study and when analysing the data.

In addition, during this same period, and after I became aware that I lost the vision in my right eye, I realised that it would be difficult for me to use computer analysis software such as NVIVO to analyse the data. I started experimenting around alternative methods of analysis such as using paper and pen, coloured

sticky notes, cards, coloured pens and so on. Eventually I opted not to use software because of my physical limitations and I used sticky notes to develop my initial template and MS Excel for coding. I am not in a position to assess which of the two options is better but I can confidently say that using the paper and pen method was enriching to my research. It made me feel closer to my data and helped me explore new areas in depth such as understanding the social dynamics through developing the complaint journey mappings.

4.11 Chapter summary

This chapter presented a detailed account of the philosophical assumptions and methods adopted in this study. It clarified the research approach and explained how the research was conducted. It commenced with justifying why assuming a social constructionist approach is suitable for this research. The choice of using qualitative research and specifically, drawing upon Critical Incident Technique was detailed.

It also explained how the participants were recruited and the data collected. It detailed the two data collection methods used: QRD and in-depth interviews. Further it described how template analysis was used to analyse the data collected from the interviews. This chapter concluded with a discussion about the criteria used to evaluate the quality of the research, how the ethical issues were considered, the limitations associated with the research method and the researcher's reflexivity statement.

Chapter Five: Findings and analysis of interviews; Negative emotions, CCB responses and stimuli

5.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter and the next chapter will present the findings that emerged from the analysis of the 20 interviews and answer the study research questions. This chapter will address research questions one, two and three:

- **Research Question 1 (RQ1):** What negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?
- **Research Question 2 (RQ2):** How do consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents encountered in restaurants?
- **Research Question 3 (RQ3):** What stimulates the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by consumers as a result of dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

Chapter 6 will present the data that will answer research question four:

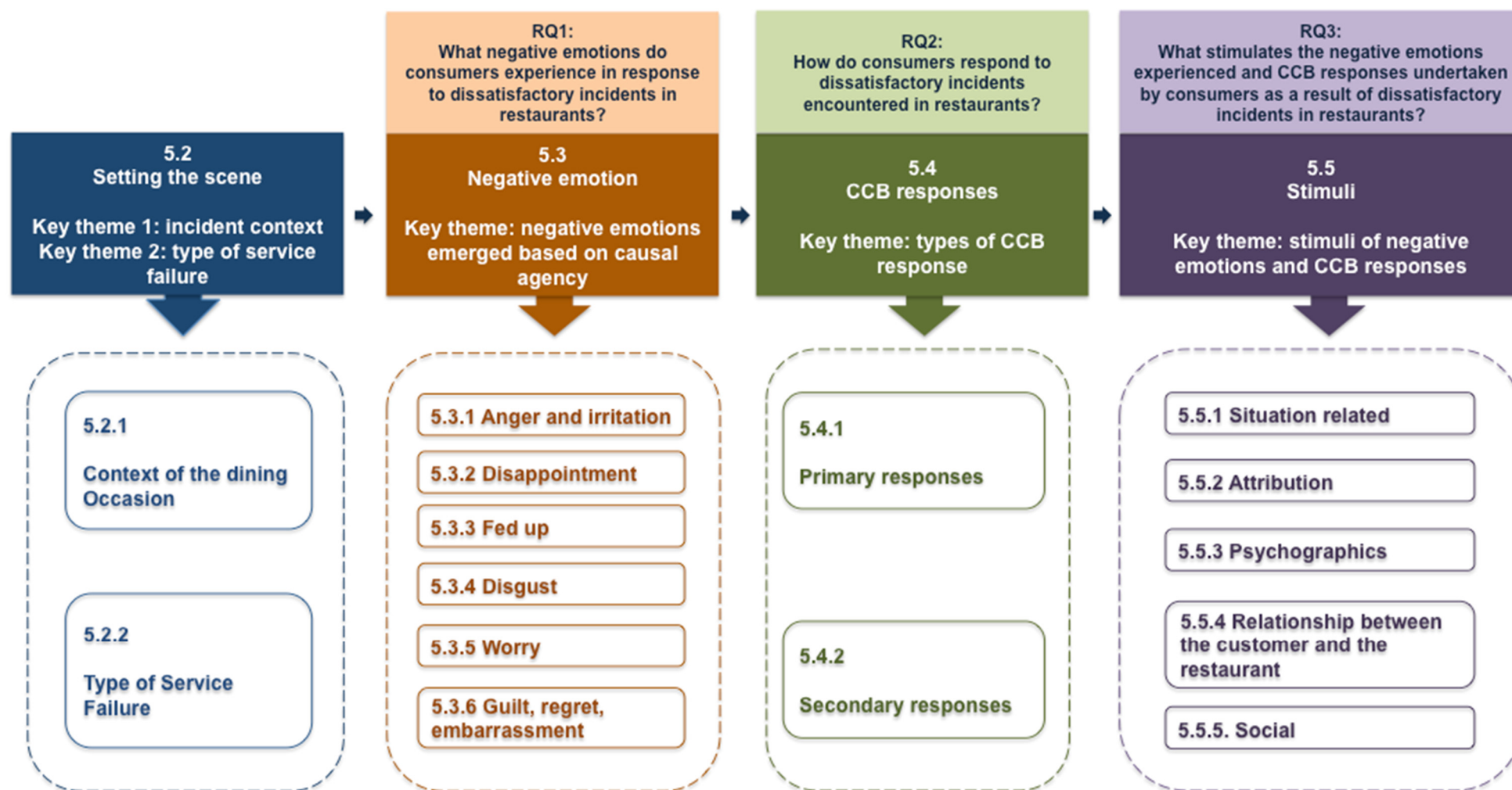
- **Research Question 4 (RQ4):** How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

In particular, Chapter 6 will explore the social dynamics that occur during a consumer complaint episode in a restaurant context, specifically between the customer, restaurant staff, people dining with the customer and other people dining in the restaurant. In addition to the findings from the analysed stories, this chapter will present four-tier visual mappings of the complaint journey of a selected number of stories that exemplify how the ongoing interactions between the involved parties influence the CCB process. The chapter will conclude by proposing a model that acknowledges the role of the social factor within the CCB process.

As presented in Figure 34, Chapter 5 will be divided into four main sections (5.2, 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5). It will start in Section 5.2 by introducing the findings related to the context of the dining occasions as well as the types of service failures that were encountered by the participants, in such a way “setting the scene” for the sections that will follow. It will then move to provide in Sections

5.3, 5.4 and 5.5 the findings that answer research questions one (RQ1), two (RQ2) and three (RQ3) respectively.

Figure 34: Chapter Structure



5.2 Setting the scene

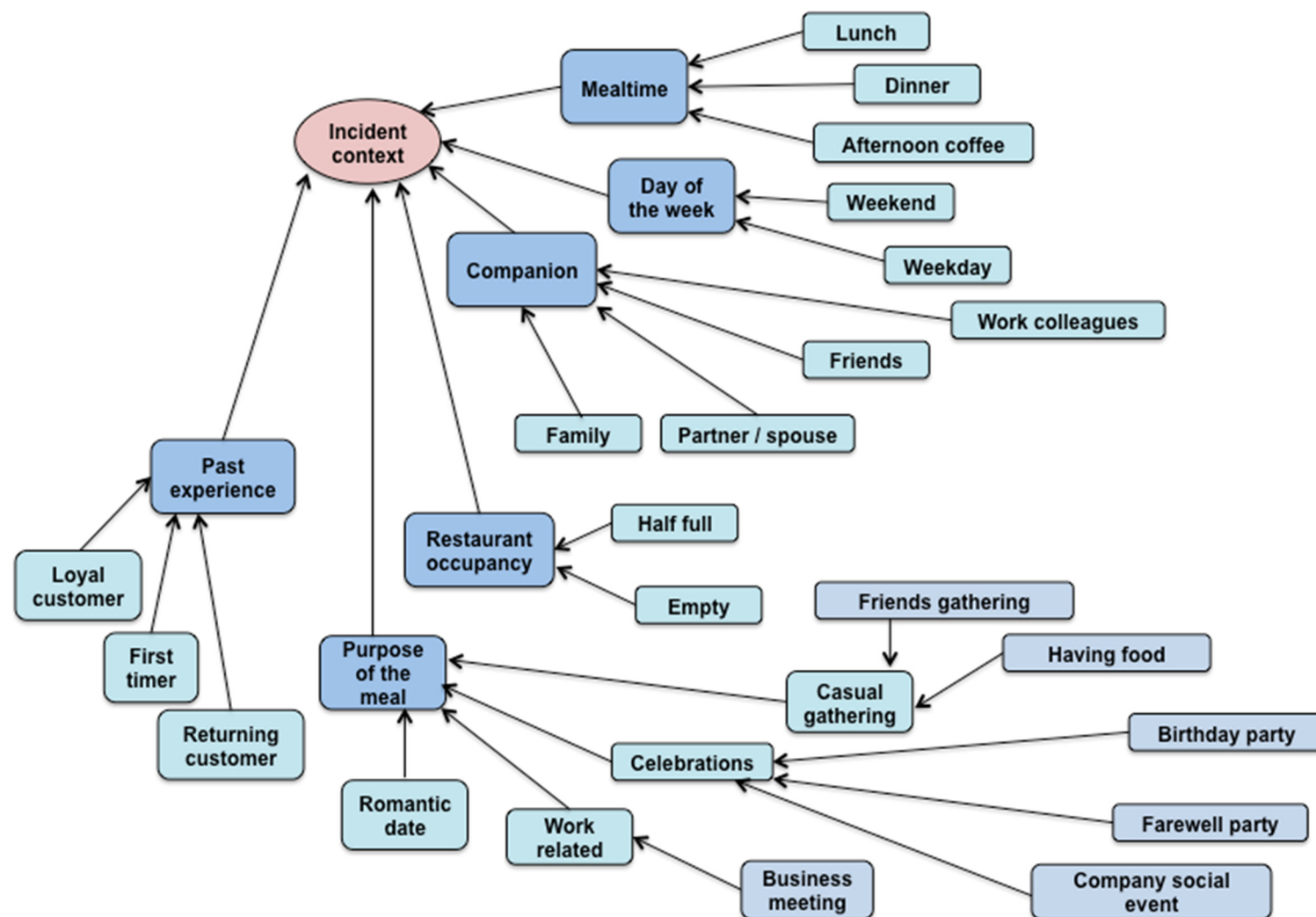
As explained in the introduction, the following section moves on to describe the context of the dissatisfactory dining occasions (Section 5.2.1) as well as the types of service failures occurring during these occasions (Section 5.2.2).

These two key themes provide a contextual frame that will support the analysis and interpretations of the other themes that emerged from the interviews.

5.2.1 Context of the dining occasion

With respect to understanding the context of the dining occasions, the 20 participants were asked to indicate while audio recording their stories (Phase 1 of data collection – QRD) the (1) time of the day of the meal (breakfast, lunch, dinner, etc.), (2) the day of the week (weekday or weekend), (3) who they were dining with (their companion/s), (4) their perceived occupancy of the restaurant (half full, full, etc.), (5) the purpose of the meal (friends gathering, romantic date, company event, etc.) and (6) their past experience with the restaurant (first time, returning customer and loyal customer). During the interviews the participants were again asked about these contextual details in order to either confirm the information provided earlier, probe it or fill the gaps in case of missing information. A number of subthemes emerged from the interviews. Figure 35 is an extract from the final template featuring key theme no. 1: Incident context.

Figure 35: An extract from the final template: Incident Context



i. Mealtimes

The stories indicate that the participants in this study went out to restaurants to have dinner or lunch. Specifically, 18 out of the 20 dissatisfactory incidents happened during lunch or dinner. Afternoon coffee was rare (two incidents) and none of the participants reported dissatisfactory incidents during breakfast.

ii. Day of the week

The incidents reported by the participants mainly happened during weekends (12 out of the 20 incidents). Friday evenings were considered in this study as part of the weekend since for Lebanese people the weekend starts Friday afternoon.

iii. Companion

The data from the analysed stories demonstrates that participants did not go out to dine alone. They mainly dined with friends, work colleagues, spouse or family. In particular eating out with work colleagues usually occurred during weekdays and at lunch. For example in the stories Jade_halloume and Julz_night, Jade and Julz reported that they went out with their work colleagues during the lunch break, whereas in her story June_slow, June organised a company event for her team on a weekday.

iv. Restaurant occupancy

The participants reported that most of restaurants where the dissatisfactory incidents happened were half full at the time of the incidents. The occupancy of the restaurant is a subjective evaluation based on the participants' perceptions.

v. Purpose of the meal

The analysis of the interviews reveals that most of the dissatisfactory incidents reported occurred when the participants went out to restaurants for casual gatherings, to catch up with friends or simply to have food because they were feeling hungry. They also happened during celebrations such as birthdays, farewells and company social events. Others occurred during a business lunch or a romantic date.

vi. Past experience

When the participants reported their past experience with the restaurant where the dissatisfactory incident occurred, three subthemes emerged: (1) a first timer, (2) a returning customer and (3) loyal customer. For example Mia in her story Mia_quatro explained that she is a loyal customer to this specific restaurant she and her friends went to. She further elaborates that they even think of it as their extended kitchen. On the other hand, when John experienced the dissatisfactory incident (John_glass) it was during his first visit to the restaurant. Whereas participants such as Ray (Ray_black spot) and Grace (Grace_lime water) were returning customers to the restaurants where the incidents happened.

Summary

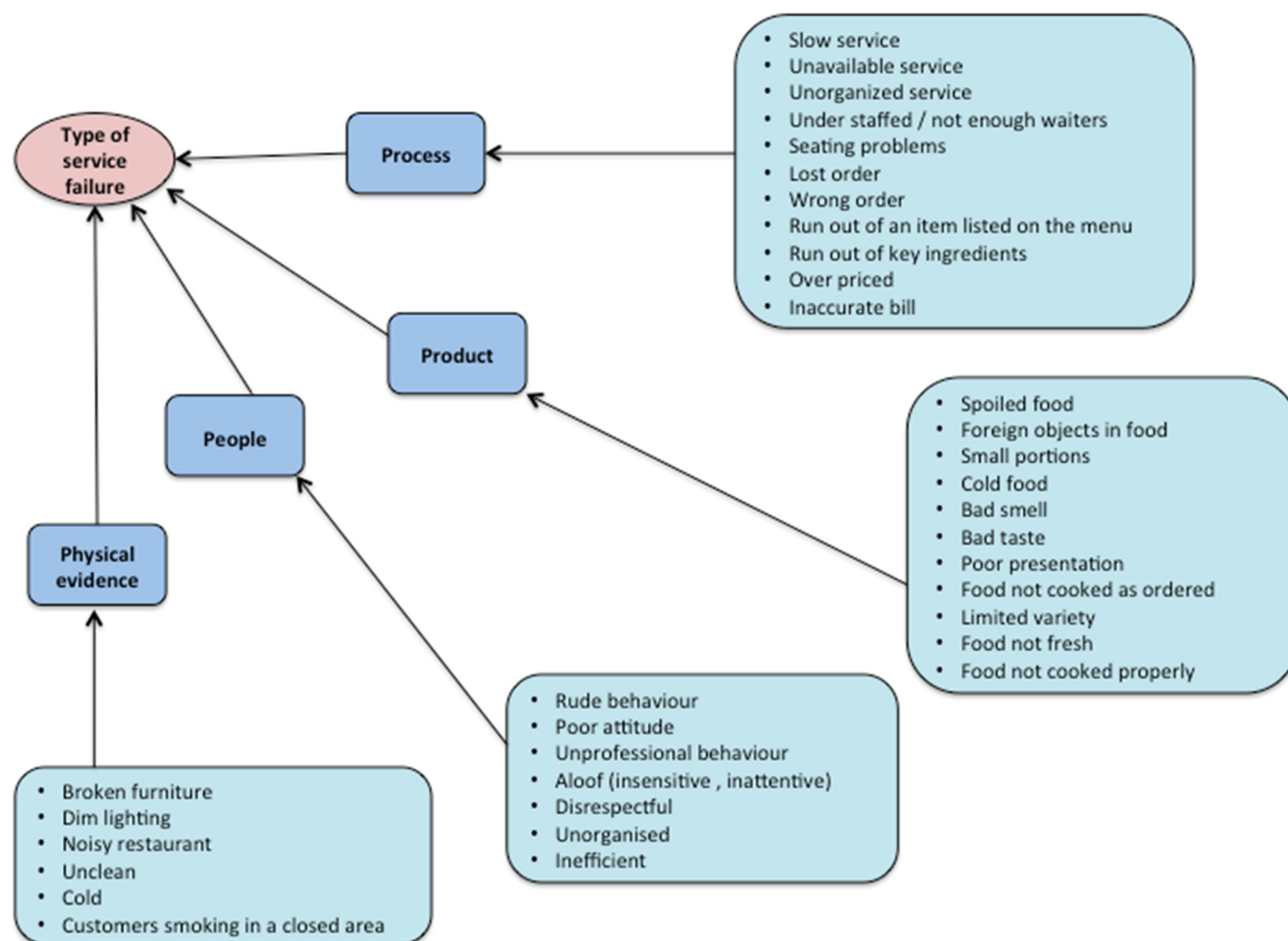
The data suggests that the dissatisfactory incidents happened when participants mainly were out for lunch or dinner, during weekends, with friends or work colleagues for casual gatherings. Knowing the context of the incident, especially the purpose of the meal, who was dining with the customer at the time of the incident and the customer's past experience with the restaurant will help better understand the subsequent negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken that will be presented later in this chapter. It will also help to reflect on the social dynamics that will be further explored in Chapter Six.

5.2.2 Type of service failures

All the participants were asked to tell the researcher what made their dining experience dissatisfactory. Hence the stories naturally started with the participants explaining what went wrong (the service failure). In some of the stories, the participants only experienced a single failure whereas others suffered from multiple failures during the same occasion. Furthermore, and as mentioned previously in Chapter Four the participants were provided with some examples of failures that can happen during a dining occasion in the guide they received when they were recruited. The purpose of this was to remove any ambiguity of what constitutes a service failure and clarify what the participants should report.

This thesis used the classification of service failures suggested by Loo et al. (2013) since it is comprehensive, clearly differentiates between service failures and was able to incorporate all service failures that emerged from analysing the 20 interviews. Hence the four categories of service failures are: process related (service), product related (food), people related (staff) and physical evidence (environment) related failures. Figure 36 is an extract from the final template featuring key theme no. 2: Type of service failure.

Figure 36: An extract from the final template: Type of service failure



i. Process

The data suggests that process related failures more than the other types of failures are most likely to occur during dining occasions. In particular, slow service emerged as a key subtheme featuring in many stories and causing dissatisfaction. Most of these failures were not considered as significant problems and were solved by talking to the waiters or simply waiting.

Participants Laura (Laura_pizza), Ray (Ray_black spot) and Rita (Rita_carrots) reported some of these incidents. However some other failures were perceived as severe and the participants reported to feeling angry and engaging in NWOM. For example Nadz in her story Nadz_attitude went out for lunch with her friends on a Saturday and they stayed in the restaurant for three hours because of slow service:

They (her friends) were waiting for their appetizers; the shrimps; and they were not coming. They (the shrimps) came after half an hour. We stayed in the restaurant from 2 to 5 (PM): imagine! (Nadz_attitude).

ii. Product

The findings suggest that product related failures include foreign objects found in the food, the food qualities such as taste, smell or temperature, small portions and limited varieties, as well as the cooking and presentation of the served food. Examples of foreign objects found in food are hair (Jade_halloume, Ray_black spot and Nadz_attitude), fly (Yara_fly), napkin (Pap_napkin) and a piece of glass (John_glass).

What happened, since I don't eat sushi, I took one salad and they were sharing the other three salads. And while I was eating, I took the upper layer and when I was opening the crab. You know the crab are sliced and are tangled to each other. Inside the plate there I saw a hair; a hair from the arm or something. I called the waiter. (Nadz_attitude)

Furthermore, other recurrent product failures that emerged are: spoiled food served (for example, Naya_bubbly soda and Jade_sanfoura), cold food served (for example Nadz_attitude and Raffa_Blue) and food smelling and tasting bad (for example Jade_sanfoura):

When the pasta came, its presentation was very good. But when I smelled it; it smelled a bit weird, not appetizing. Not this smell that invites you to eat. (Jade_sanfoura)

iii. People

People related failures involved the behaviour and attitude of the staff working at the time of the reported incident. In particular the participants reported certain behaviours and attitudes that they perceived as failures and caused them dissatisfaction. For instance, some participants were unhappy with the waiters being aloof and acting in an insensitive and inattentive manner.

Layla in her story Layla_latte explains that what irritated her and her friends was the waiter's behaviour and attitude while serving them. He seemed uninterested and unfocused.

Come on, we are customers, at least show a bit of interest or show a bit of emotion, not emotion but at least let him show us that he is interested. It was a way below neutral service. It was not professional, it wasn't good, it wasn't respectful. (Layla_latte)

Other participants stated that the staff behaved in an unprofessional manner that irritated them. For example Laura (Laura_pizza) and her fiancé believed that the manager behaved unprofessionally when she scolded a waitress in a loud voice in front of the customers. Laura and her fiancé found this behaviour to be very unprofessional and it irritated them. Nadz (Nadz_attitude) and Layla (Layla_latte) reported their experiences with waiters having rude and poor attitudes and being disrespectful. Others such as Ray (Ray_black spot) and Rita (Rita_carrots) were dissatisfied with the waiters being unorganised and inefficient in doing their job.

iv. Physical evidence

These refer to the failures related to the place itself or the environment. Lack of cleanliness emerged as one of these issues. As will be demonstrated in the next sections, the participants perceived these failures as severe.

Here is enough. The others were service. Just being late. But this is dirty. It is lack of hygiene. It is dirty. You cannot use it. It is not that like a better service to make you feel good. It is very bad. It is not good. Not acceptable. On the glass from the outside there is stuff that are "mowey" and lemon. You know the stuff that comes from inside the lemon. Yes. They were on one of the glasses from the outside. (Grace_lemon)

Another failure that was considered by the participants as lack of cleanliness is not replacing the dirty ashtrays with clean ones. This can be understood within a Lebanese context since having ashtrays on restaurant tables is a common thing and waiters removing the dirty ashtrays and replacing them with clean ones is the norm. Hence, the participants perceived not doing this as a failure.

The ashtrays had tissues and ash. No one was coming to check on us and change the ashtrays. (Joelle_no service)

Summary

Service failures are categorised into four main groups: process, product, people and physical evidence. In particular, problems related to the service itself are the most commonly occurring failures such as slow service. Furthermore, foreign objects found in the food as well as issues related to food quality (taste, smell and temperature) emerged as product related failures. In regards to people, the participants perceived the unprofessional behaviour of the staff members as well as their rude and poor attitude as failures. Finally, the participants considered the lack of cleanliness as major physical evidence related failure.

Having set the scene in this section by presenting the data related to the context of the dissatisfactory incidents and the service failures occurring during these incidents, the next section will address Research Question One.

5.3 Negative emotions

This section will focus on the negative emotions experienced during the dissatisfactory incidents as reported by the participants. Thus, it will present data from the analysed 20 stories and address Research Question One:

- **Research Question 1 (RQ1):** What negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

As discussed in Chapter Two, consumers experience negative emotions following a service failure. According to the cognitive appraisal approach these negative emotions emerge as a result of cognitive appraisal of the event. In particular, a considerable number of scholars have suggested that appraising a situation based on what and who caused the negative episode (causal agency dimension) provides an accurate distinction between negative emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Tronvoll, 2011; Watson & Spence, 2007).

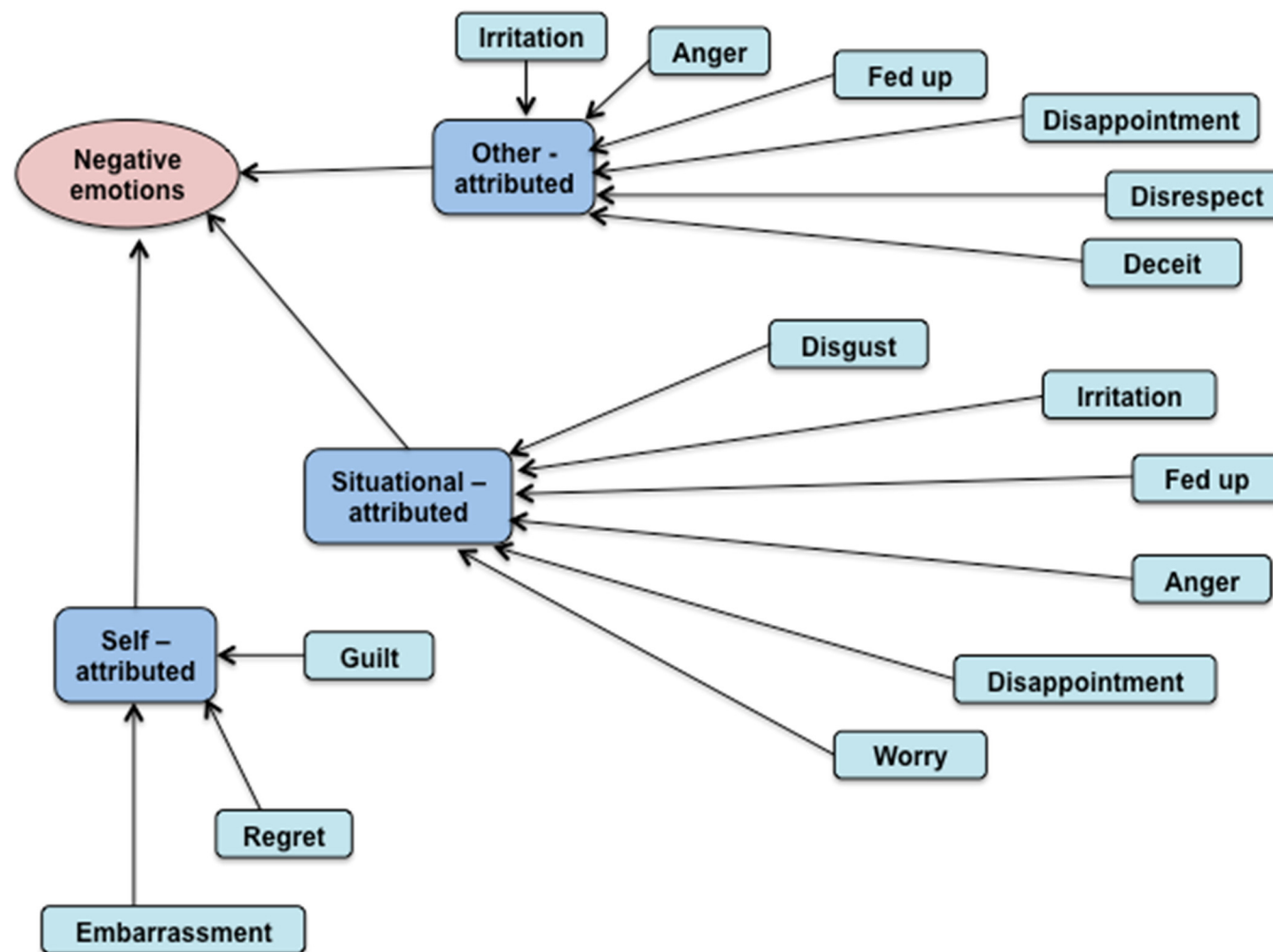
In this study the participants were asked to describe how they felt when the service failure occurred and what they thought caused this feeling. Consequently, the negative emotions reported by the participants were categorised into three groups of subthemes based on who and what caused them as perceived by the participants (Oliver, 1989; 1993). These three groups are:

- Other-attributed: negative emotions reported by the participants as being caused by others (the restaurant staff members and other people dining in the restaurant).
- Situational-attributed: negative emotions caused by the environment and the situation as a whole.
- Self-attributed: negative emotions that the participants perceive to be caused by them.

It is important to note here that this study did not test emotions, measure their intensity or report any emotions that the participants were not willing to share with the interviewer. This is in accordance with the social constructionist approach assumed within the entirety of the research.

Figure 37 is an extract from the final template featuring key theme no. 3: Negative emotions based on causal agency.

Figure 37: An extract from the final template: Negative emotions emerged based on causal agency



5.3.1 Anger and irritation

Literature around consumption emotions has continually stated that anger is strongly related to service failures and has a significant influence on post-purchase consumer responses. The data in this study further supports these findings and demonstrates that anger as well as irritation are two dominant negative emotions reported by the participants and are identified as both other and situational attributed.

In the literature, irritation is commonly included under anger. These two negative emotions are differentiated based on their arousal levels ranging from mild irritation to anger, outrage and aggression (Diener et al., 1995; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). In addition to this, in this study they were differentiated on the basis of how they influenced the post-consumption response of the participants. Typically, angry customers chose to complain directly to the service providers whereas most irritated participants chose to do nothing about their source of irritation.

Laura, in her story *Laura_pizza*, expressed that her fiancé was irritated because of the situation as a whole (situational attributed emotion) and chose to take no direct action with the service provider at the restaurant. She explains that they went for dinner at an Italian restaurant. Her fiancé first ordered a pizza but the waitress told him that it wasn't available. He then ordered another type of pizza, again the waitress informed him that some key ingredients were not available as well. This situation irritated him especially because he is at an Italian restaurant and pizza is their speciality.

He was annoyed because it is not a good start. You go to a restaurant and two of the main items are not available. (Laura_pizza)

However, angry participants as opposed to irritated participants mainly choose to voice their complaints directly to the service providers while they are still in the restaurant. The following extract from Naya's story *Naya_bubbly soda* serves as an example of anger experienced because of others (other attributed emotion) and consequently leading to voicing the complaint.

Naya and her friends were having lunch, one of her friends asked for a room temperature soft drink. The waitress served her the can of soft drink “heated in the microwave”. As Naya explains her friend’s reaction:

She went crazy. It is impossible and unacceptable. Imagine, it can be harmful! A soft drink heated in the microwave! And add to that heated in the can! We called the waitress and told her about it. (Naya_bubbly soda)

On the other hand, Joelle became angry because of multiple failures that happened with her during the same meal. Hence blaming the situation for the negative emotion (situational attributed emotion). As she explains that generally she doesn’t complain but this time she had to.

I started “etnakwat” (getting outraged, mad, get into a very bad mood). And I am someone who doesn’t talk in a bad way with waiters but here I couldn’t help it. I was angry. (Joelle_no service)

5.3.2 Disappointment

Like anger, disappointment is a negative emotion recognised in the literature to emerge after a service failure and to influence consumer response (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). What is particular about disappointment is that it is mostly engendered when the consumer has certain expectations that are not met. In this study, disappointment emerged as both an other-attributed and a situational attributed emotion. Specifically in the case of other-attributed emotions, it is related to the participants’ expectations of the staff.

For instance in Pap’s story (Pap_napkin) he explains that he expected the chef to be professional. He was having lunch at a restaurant he knows and believed to have high standards. While eating his salad he found a piece of green napkin in the salad. He complained to the waiter and he was told that it is the chef’s fault; he dropped it while he was washing his hands. Pap reported that he was disappointed with the chef’s expertise:

The whole procedure in the restaurant is wrong. And I was disappointed. It seems the chef is not professional. He is drying his hand over the plate.
(Pap_napkin)

When disappointment emerged as a situational attributed negative emotion, the participants had certain expectations for their dining experience as a whole and they failed to have them. For instance, Julz (Julz_night) and his friends were celebrating the farewell of one of their colleagues at a restaurant close to their office and to which they have been many times before. This time they faced problems with the service and the food that left them disappointed.

At the beginning we were ok, I mean it happens, the restaurant was busy but when the food came and also it wasn't tasty we felt that there was something wrong. We know the place, we always go there because it is close to the office, but that time it was very different. (Julz_night)

5.3.3 Fed up

Mojzisch and Schulz-Hardt (2007) define becoming fed up in terms of the state of mental satiation. The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines fed up as feeling “tired, sated or disgusted beyond endurance”. Although fed up was not recognised in the consumption negative emotions literature, in this study it emerged as a prominent negative emotion reported by the participants. The discussion of this negative emotion in light of the relevant literature is presented in Chapter Seven Section 7.2.

Depending on the context participants blamed others (other-attributed) or the situation (situational-attributed) for causing this negative emotion. The literature addresses emotions such as frustration, disgust and anxiety. It can be argued that these emotions are similar in nature to feeling fed up, however in this research feeling fed up is presented as an emotion by itself in order to stay honest in reflecting the participants' personal accounts of their emotions during the dissatisfactory incidents.

As an other-attributed emotion, the data demonstrated that participants who reported feeling fed up in some cases experienced multiple failures they blamed on the restaurant staff during the same dining occasion. In other cases they believed the staff members repeatedly failed to effectively handle their voiced complaints.

Nadz, in her story Nadz_attitude, explains that she and her friends encountered a number of failures (process, people and product related failures). She further explains that each time she complained to the waiter he would answer in a “rude” way and never attempt to resolve the issue effectively. Thus, at the end she was fed up with him and decided not to complain anymore.

Usually the service is not good, but the food would be good. But this time neither the service nor the food were good, the long wait. I was so fed up I just didn't want to speak with them anymore. I felt it is of no use. You tell them and the way they approach me and how they dealt with the first problem that was the hair in the food. They dealt with it in a rude way. If I will talk again they will not be responsible. (Nadz_attitude)

Similarly, Grace (Grace_lime water) suffered from a number of failures during her lunch. She reached a point where she could not accept any other failures occurring.

I was getting more dissatisfied. Already something triggered it and now it is getting more and more. Getting more dissatisfied. You are like, please don't do more things because I might even leave before finishing my meal. I will not come back again. It is not that I will give it a second chance. (Grace_lime water)

Just as some of the participants expressed feeling fed up as a result of staff actions and/or behaviours, some other participants reported that during their dining occasion they were fed up with the situation as a whole mainly because of the accumulation of failures occurring.

Jade in her story Jade_sanfoura suffered from the same failure happening twice. She was first served a pasta plate that tasted bad; the waiter replaced her pasta with another one. The second plate of pasta also smelled and tasted bad. She was getting hungry and did not want pasta anymore; she just wanted to eat:

Here it is enough for me. This was horrible. At this point I was here too hungry... I wasn't angry but I was getting too hungry and I was eating the bread and stuff from my friend's salad. I was too hungry and wasn't thinking of anything. I just wanted them to get me my food.
(Jade_Sanfoura)

5.3.4 Disgust

Disgust is a significant negative emotion to consider in service failures within a restaurant context. It emerged from the analysis of the data as a situational-attributed emotion. All the participants who expressed disgust (Jade_halloume, Ray_black spot, Nadz_attitude, Layla_cold service, Pap_napkin and Grace_lime water) experienced a service failure related to their food or drink (i.e. product related failure) or lack of cleanliness (i.e. physical evidence related failure). The feeling of disgust not only influenced their post-consumption response but also it had an impact on their whole dining experience such as losing their appetite, not wanting to finish their meal and being alert to spot other failures. Section 7.2 in Chapter Seven will further discuss disgust and how it affects responses and attitudes within the relevant literature.

Grace (Grace_lime water) for instance started doubting the overall hygiene of the food she is eating after she was served a dirty cup of water.

I was disgusted. Every time I looked at the glass I think ok what about the salad. If this is dirty from the outside what about the salad? What can there be that I can't see? (Grace_lime water)

Pap (Pap_napkin) was disgusted when he found a piece of napkin in his salad and this made him lose his trust in the restaurant. Because of this incident he decided not to go again to this place.

I wasn't disgusted at first when it was still in my mouth. But when I took it out of my mouth and I saw that it was a piece of napkin, I was disgusted! I was annoyed ... I was eating the pasta with no appetite at all. I lost my trust in the restaurant. (Pap_Napkin)

After finding a hair in her plate that made her disgusted, Jade (Jade_halloume) was served another plate. However because of the feeling of disgust she lost her appetite and did not enjoy her meal after that.

Honestly, it is very big. This is one of the very rare times that I really feel disgusted. It was really big and disgusting. In any case a hair in the food is disgusting. Fine, a small hair but not something like this ... I ate but I wasn't eating with pleasure. I didn't even eat it all. Because we were late and wanted to go back to the office. So I just ate for the purpose of eating but wasn't at all enjoying it. (Jade_halloume)

5.3.5 Guilt, regret and embarrassment

These three emotions emerged from the analysis of the 20 stories as self-attributed. The literature discusses the fact that individuals experiencing these emotions usually blame themselves for the negative incident rather than others or the situation (Bougie et al., 2003).

i. Guilt

Julz (Julz_night) and his colleagues organised a farewell lunch for one of their colleagues. They chose the restaurant and invited some senior people from the office. He explains that on that day the service and food were not as they expected. Because the service failures they encountered happened in the presence of their guests, Julz explains that he and his friends were left feeling guilty and humiliated. They blamed themselves for choosing this particular place for such an occasion.

We had people with us on the table that we have invited and we told them that this place is very good. But it was the opposite and we felt humiliated and guilty, and blamed ourselves for choosing this place. (Julz_night)

ii. Embarrassment

Feeling embarrassed is yet another self-attributed negative emotion that emerged from the data. Some of the participants felt embarrassed when they were the organisers of an event or have invited friends to a certain place and praised its high standards but were surprised that a service failure occurred.

June (June_slow) organised a lunch for her team at a reputable place that she knows and had been to several times. Several service failures happened that made her feel embarrassed in front of her team.

When you are responsible of a group, you feel embarrassed of the situation. I felt I needed to do something to make the service better. (June_slow)

Similarly, Naya (Naya_bubbly soda) was embarrassed because she had recommended the place and highly praised it to her friend but they encountered service failures:

Personally, I was embarrassed because I recommended the place. I like it because of my daughter, so I told them that this place is very good for the kids and it has great food, and makes you feel proud in front of your guests (bi bayed el wej). But nothing was right this time ... I was embarrassed the most! (Naya_bubbly soda)

However, Raffa (Raffa_blue) was embarrassed for a different reason. Although his embarrassment was self-related however it did not emerge because he blamed himself for the negative event. In particular, he was embarrassed to return his steak for the second time because he usually doesn't like to complain more than once.

Because it is not nice to send back the second meat. I usually order the most expensive plate in meal so that I enjoy it. So I was embarrassed to send it back for the second time. (Raff_blue)

iii. Regret

Similar to guilt and embarrassment, the participants blame themselves for the negative incident and regret their choices. They accept what happened but resort to switching behaviour and searching for alternatives such as in the case of Raffa in his story Raffa_blue.

Raffa (Raffa_blue) ordered a steak that wasn't cooked as he asked for twice. He ate the steak but wasn't happy with it. He expressed his regret to have come to this place

*I was a bit annoyed, but nothing more. I continued. I would have preferred if I ate somewhere else. But it is ok. Next time I will not order it.
(Raffa_blue)*

Similarly, Joelle (Joelle_no service) regretted going to that restaurant to work because of all the service problems she faced that made her unproductive. She said that she would have been better off working at home.

You know what we said; we wish we worked at home. We regretted that we came to this place. We would have been more efficient at home. Our objective was to work. (Joelle_no service)

Summary

This section has covered negative emotions that are experienced following service failures. The negative emotions are perceived by consumers as being caused by others, by the situation and by themselves. Irritation, anger, disappointment and being fed up are negative emotions that are engendered in service failures incidents within a restaurant context and were attributed to both others (staff and other people dining in the restaurant) and the situation. Disgust emerged as a negative emotions caused by the situation. Guilt, regret and

embarrassment were presented as self-attributed negative emotions as reported by the participants.

The data has demonstrated that these emotions are not mutually exclusive. A consumer can be angry because of the staff, disgusted by the food, fed up because of the situation and regretting her choice of the place. Hence, the consumer perceived who and what to blame to be the cause of the emotion.

Furthermore, some of these negative emotions reported (especially the other-attributed emotions) are the product of the natural interactions that occur in a consumption context such as the restaurant. Within such contexts the consumer is not isolated but rather an active player within a wider social interaction scene that includes other people dining in the restaurant, the people dining with the customer and the restaurant staff members. This will be further elaborated in Chapter Six.

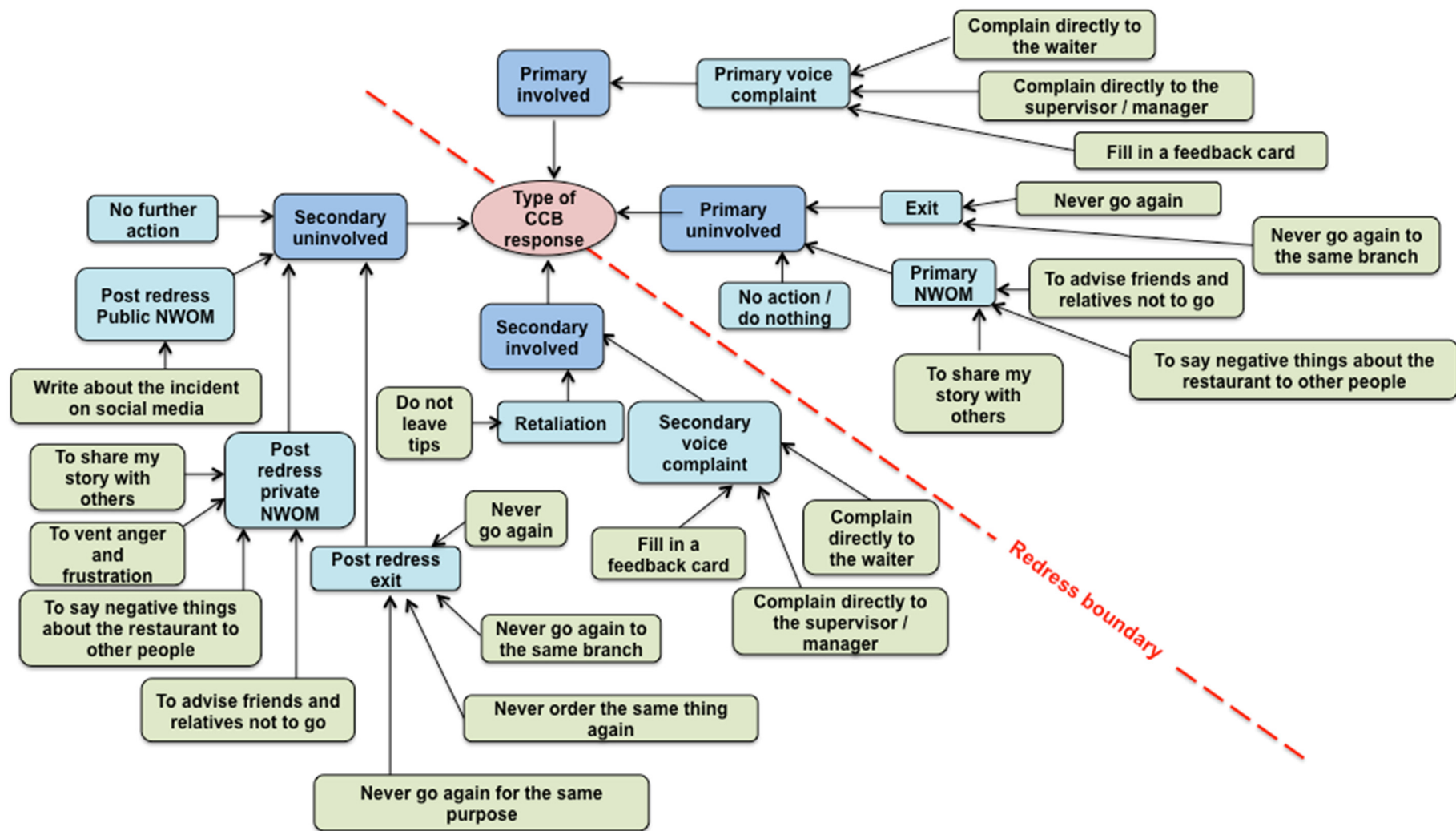
5.4 CCB responses

This section will present the types of CCB responses the participants stated they had taken after they experienced a service failure. In particular they were asked to explain what they did (or did not do) after they encountered the failure. The responses they reported were not only subsequent to the original failure but also to the recovery attempted by the organisation.

Following the categorisation of Boote (1998) the responses were arranged in four subthemes: (1) primary involved, (2) primary uninvolved, (3) secondary involved and (4) secondary uninvolved. As explained earlier in Chapter Three what differentiates between primary and secondary responses is a “redress boundary”. Hence, primary responses are all the responses occurring before a service recovery is attempted by the organisation whereas the secondary responses are those responses taken after service recovery. Involved and uninvolved are concerned with whether the service provider was directly engaged in the response.

Figure 38 is an extract from the template featuring this key theme and presenting the *Types of CCB responses* that emerged from the analysis of the 20 stories.

Figure 38: An extract from the final template: Types of CCB responses



5.4.1 Primary responses

As explained above primary responses are all those CCB responses the participants have reported to have taken as a result of a service failure but before the organisation attempted any service recovery response. It comprises two subthemes: (1) primary involved and (2) primary uninvolved.

5.4.1.1 Primary involved

These responses involve the service provider and occur before the organisation attempts a service recovery.

i. Primary voice complaint

The template analysis of the 20 stories has demonstrated that primary voice complaint can be in three different forms: (1) complain directly to the waiter, (2) complain directly to the supervisor/manager and (3) fill in a feedback card. However, complaining directly to the waiter is the most recurrent response among these three to have been reported. Almost all participants stated that after the occurrence of the service failure they first voiced their complaint directly to the waiter/waitress. Here it is important to note that in their stories, the participants did not use the terms “complain” or “voice” they would say, “we called the waiter...”, “we asked the waiter...” or “we told the waiter...”

For instance, Mia (Mia_quatro) complained directly to the waiter when her son’s sandwich was not served on time:

My son ordered a taouk sandwich (a type of chicken sandwich). And he kept telling me “mom I didn’t get my sandwich yet”. I called the waiter and told him “sorry, but my son ordered a taouk sandwich and he didn’t get it yet.” (Mia _quatro)

In other instances when the participants couldn't grab the attention of a waiter to complain about the failure, they explained that they waited until the supervisors or managers approached them to complain directly to them as in the story Yara_fly.

We looked for the waiter, we waited for him around 10 minutes and still we couldn't see him. Then the supervisor saw us and he came and asked how he can help us. My friend was holding the spoon and showed it to him. (Yara_fly)

On the other hand, Layla's (Layal_latte) friend chose not to talk to the waiter about the failure but to write it down on a feedback card. This action avoided face to face interaction with the waiter.

My friend wanted to write something really mean, something like 'big time fail'. I told her, no, just write some comments like 'needs improvement'. (Layla_latte)

5.4.1.2 Primary uninvolved

These responses are private since they do not include the service provider directly, as the voice response does, and happen before the service provider has attempted any service recovery. Three subthemes emerged from the template analysis: (1) exit, (2) private NWOM and (3) no action/do nothing.

i. Exit

As the literature explains, dissatisfied consumers who choose "exit" choose to end their relationship with the service provider and switch to an alternative. The data in this study has differentiated between two forms of primary exit responses: (1) never go again and (2) never go again to the same branch. Hence, the analysis of the data demonstrated that the exit response is not strictly boycotting the service provider and searching for an alternative (never go again).

In the story Layla_latte, Layla and her friends did not voice their complaints to the waiter once the service failures occurred. They chose not to respond while

they were in the restaurant but as Layla explains, she decided that she would never go there again.

First of all, ok we didn't leave, but it affected that for me I will reconsider going back to this place another time. (Layla_latte)

On the other hand, Laura (Laura_pizza) and her fiancé decided that they would never go again to the same restaurant branch where they had the service failure. They will however go to other branches. In particular Laura said that they want to try the restaurant's new branch that recently opened by the sea.

I would like to try the other branch that is close to the sea. It wasn't that we would not come back again. But we will try other branches. (Laura_pizza)

ii. Private negative word of mouth (NWOM)

The analysis of the data demonstrated that NWOM has different forms and participants engage in it for a number of motives other than saying negative things about the restaurant to other people. Mainly they wanted to share their stories with others such as in the case of Laura_pizza and Pap_napkins. Others like Julz_night wanted to advise friends and relatives not to go to that restaurant:

I told some friends. Well what happened is that some friends were telling me to go with them to this restaurant but I told them 'no' because the last time it was really bad! (Julz_night)

Furthermore, the data showed that private NWOM as a primary response is not as common as a secondary response (post-redress). Thus, NWOM will be more elaborated upon when presenting the findings of NWOM as a post-redress response.

iii. No action / do nothing

The data showed that this is a recurrent theme and hence a common primary uninvolved response. The reasons why participants chose to take no actions will be presented in Section 5.5 of this chapter.

Ray (Ray_black spot) and her friend thought their drinks took longer than they expected to be served. At first they wanted to ask a waiter about their drinks but they failed to find any waiter so they decided to do nothing and wait for their drinks.

The problem is that we couldn't find a waiter. They were a big number but seemed much less. They were all standing in one corner and not scattered around the restaurant and there was no one close. So we waited.

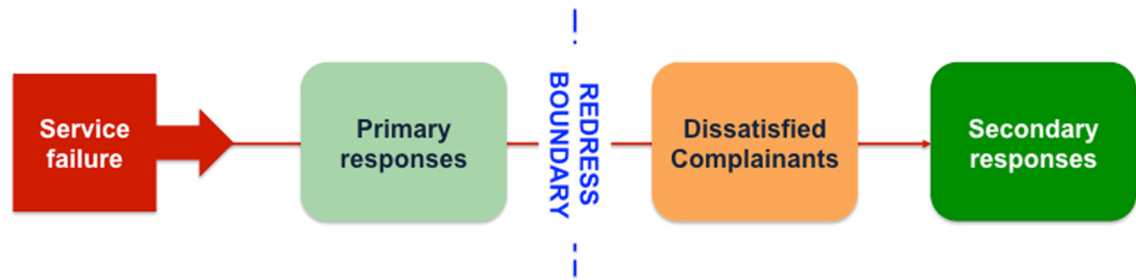
(Ray_black spot)

However, the situation was different for Mia (Mia_birthday) and her friends. They were celebrating her birthday and although she said that they faced problems with the food and service, they chose to do nothing because they were busy partying.

On the spot we were busy partying, but we talked to each other about it ... there was music and we were taking pictures and busy (Mia_birthday).

So far this section has presented the data pertaining to the responses the participants undertook prior to any attempt from the service provider (restaurant staff) to resolve the problem and handle the complaint. Hence these responses were categorised as primary responses. The following section will display the findings relevant to secondary responses. These are all responses the participants reported to pursue after the restaurant staff members have attempted to resolve the failures and they evaluated them as failed recovery attempts. In a simplified form Figure 39 shows this differentiation.

Figure 39: The difference between primary and secondary responses



5.4.2. Secondary responses

The participants choose to engage in these responses after they have given the organisation a chance to recover the failure and they evaluated the recovery act as ineffective leaving them as dissatisfied complainants. Hence in Boote's (1998) taxonomy, these responses are situated after the redress boundary. Two main subthemes emerged from the key theme: (1) secondary involved and (2) secondary uninvolved responses.

5.4.2.1 Secondary involved

The data has shown that the dissatisfied participants chose two types of secondary involved responses when they experienced a service failure and a failed service recovery: (1) secondary voice complaint and (2) retaliation.

i. Secondary voice complaint

Similar to primary involved responses, voicing a complaint is the most common secondary voice complaint. However in contrast to primary responses where the participants reported that they voiced their complaint directly to the waiter, with secondary responses the participants chose to voice their complaints directly to the supervisor or manager.

The analysis of the stories shows an escalation in their response as they voiced the complaint to the higher ranked staff member (supervisor/manager as compared to waiter/waitress) after their primary voiced complaint to the waiter/waitress did not resolve the problem or the recovery did not satisfy them. This is a clear example of a secondary involved response in a double deviation scenario that will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Seven:

Well we didn't feel that we have talked to them beforehand. Their welcome was null. They didn't know where to seat us. Once we were seated, it took them too much time to come and take the order. I went and talked to them (waiters). But nothing changed... I then talked with the manager but nothing really changed. (June_slow)

ii. Retaliation

Retaliation first appeared in Boote's (1998) taxonomy and it involves revenge and "getting even" with the service provider. The data shows that retaliation was expressed through choosing not to leave tips at the restaurant. Thus, when the participants blamed the restaurants' staff members for the service failures they chose it as a way to punish them and get even with them.

After a number of failures during the same dining occasion, Layla (Layla_latte) and her friends decided not to leave tips. She explains that by not tipping the waiter they felt they got even with him:

ah we didn't leave tips. It is the first time in my life I don't leave tips. (Layla_latte)

A similar thing happened with Naya (Naya_bubbly soda) and her friends. They also did not leave tips as a way to get even with the waitress who they blamed for all the failures that happened with them during their dinner:

No one apologised. My other friend paid the bill. I told her not to tip them as we usually do. (Naya_bubbly soda)

As the above quote implies and as Naya has explained in her story (Naya_bubbly soda), she and her friends voiced at first their complaints regarding the multiple failures they experienced to the waitress who was serving them but she never resolved any of the problems. Then they complained directly to the manager and yet no one even apologised to them let alone attempted to solve any of the problems they encountered. This is a double deviation scenario with retaliation as a secondary involved response happening after the organisation failed in recovering the service.

5.4.2.2 Secondary uninvolved

Uninvolved responses refer to the responses that do not directly involve the service provider. The analysis of the data in this study reveals four types of secondary uninvolved responses: (1) post-redress exit, (2) post-redress private NWOM, (3) post-redress public NWOM and (4) no further action.

i. Post redress exit

Similar to primary uninvolved responses, the analysis of the stories allowed for the differentiation between four variations of exit response; (1) never go again, (2) never go again to the same branch, (3) never order the same thing again and (4) never go again for the same purpose. The most common exit response is deciding to never going again to the restaurant and hence switching to another organisation.

I wouldn't go back. There are many other places that are cheaper, nicer and the service is better. (Julz_sushi)

Another form of exit response is choosing to never going again for the same purpose at this restaurant, such as in June's story June_slow:

For sure I will never come back again. Maybe, maybe I would come with my family but for sure I will not invite people here. (June_slow)

Hence, as she explains she did not choose to completely boycott this place. She might come back again but for a different occasion and with different companions like her family.

Joelle expresses in her story, Joelle_no service, her willingness to go again to the restaurant where she encountered the service failures but not to work. Work was the original purpose for her to choose that place because it had free Internet access.

I wouldn't choose it for work. I might go there but not to work ... but it doesn't mean that I will not go at all. Because they were nice. But I would never, never go to work there. (Joelle_no service)

Grace (Grace_lime water) on the other hand explains that she will not permanently end her relationship with the restaurant but she will never go again to the branch where she faced the service failures.

I don't think I want to go there again to this branch and in general. There are specific things I like on their menu. But I don't know. It is not the first complaint. But I don't know if someone told me that they are waiting for me at this restaurant I will not tell them change the place but I will not choose the place. (Grace_lime water)

For Jade (Jade_sanfoura) and Raffa (Raffa_blue) the situation is different. They will still go to the restaurant where the service failures occurred but they will not order the same dish they encountered the failure in.

I don't think I will go there again and order pasta because maybe I will always think about it. Although I went there again and ordered something else (Jade_sanfoura)

Whether the exit response was a primary response (undertaken before any service recovery attempt from the service provider) or a secondary response, the data has demonstrated that it has different variations. An exit response does not necessarily mean a termination in the relationship between the customer and the service provider. These variations in the exit response are elaborated on and discussed within the relevant literature in Chapter Seven.

ii. Post-redress private negative word of mouth (NWOM)

The analysed stories also demonstrated variation in the post-redress private NWOM. In particular, sharing their story with others and saying negative things about the restaurant to others were the most two recurrent subthemes emerging from the data. Naya (Naya_bubbly soda) wanted everyone around her to know what she experienced:

I told so many people because it is something hard to believe. Heat the soft drink in the can in the microwave. No one can believe this! Especially that it is a well-known restaurant. Yes, I told everyone! (Naya_bubbly soda)

Whereas Nadz (Nadz_attitude) and her friends said that they “bad-mouthed” the place

We all kept talking about the issue until the next day, telling other friends. Basically this place is known to be a very well known restaurant in the middle of downtown. So yes, honestly we really badmouthed it a lot. (Nadz_attitude)

Others such as Ray (Ray_Black spot), John (John_glass) and Naya (Naya_bubbly soda) explained that they told other people of what happened with them in order to advise them not to go to that place again.

I wanted to warn them and also maybe I wanted to get the message to the restaurant in order to avoid such mistakes in the future (Ray_black spot)

On the other hand, Joelle (Joelle_no service) told her family and friends about her dissatisfactory incident because she was very annoyed. She wanted to vent her anger and frustration

As soon as I got home I told them what happened. I told them I wish we worked at home because the experience was bad. I was venting because I was annoyed. (Joelle_no service)

The data has revealed that dissatisfied consumers engage in NWOM (both as a primary and secondary response) for a variety of reasons that range from wanting to share their experience to venting anger and saying negative things about the service provider.

iii. Post-redress “public” negative word of mouth (NWOM)

Although uninvolved responses mean private responses, this subtheme stands at the borderline of private and public responses. Under this subtheme falls “writing about the incident on social networking sites”. As explained in the literature in Chapter Three Section 3.3.1 using social networking sites (e.g. Facebook, Twitter) to complain is rising and it breaks the lines between private and public responses. NWOM is categorised in the literature as a private act but it loses its ‘private’ element once the dissatisfied consumer shares the story on these platforms.

Hence, Grace in her story Grace_lime water explains that after a sequence of multiple failures topped by a hygiene problem she decided while still at the restaurant to post her story on Facebook. She shared her story on her own Facebook page not on the restaurant’s official page. Therefore, it can be argued that although it is a ‘public’ platform yet it is uninvolved since it did not involve directly the organisation, making the line between categorising her act as private or public more complex. Grace further explains that usually she uses more than one social media platform to express her opinion and write about negative things that bother her.

iv. No further action

This type of secondary uninvolved response is linked to feeling fed up discussed in the previous section of this chapter. As it implies, the dissatisfied participants, after initially voicing their complaints, decided not to take any further action and ‘give up’. Since it is a secondary response it means that the organisation has failed to resolve the failure(s) after giving them the opportunity.

This extract from Nadz’s story (Nadz_attitude) is a clear demonstration of a sequence of failed service recoveries and a fed up dissatisfied consumer.

You know, honestly, already we waited for three hours; already they are giving us attitude. So I just wanted to leave, I just wanted to ask for the bill and leave. (Nadz_attitude)

Similarly Layla (Layla_latte) thought that she gave the waiter many chances to resolve the problems and he failed. So she decided to not take any further action.

Already I was not satisfied at all. So I didn't bother anymore. Already I wasn't satisfied. I don't want to put more effort; I consider that I have given him so many chances and that is it. (Layla_latte)

In other incidents, the decision to not take further action was not a reflection of giving up but it was a decision influenced by others, either people dining with the participant or other people dining in the restaurant. The role other customers play in influencing CCB responses will be further explored in Chapter Six. For instance, Ray (Ray_black spot) chose to not take any further action because she knew that her companion would make a scene and she did not want this to happen.

What can I tell you? I was so disgusted and felt so nauseous. But since I wasn't alone I couldn't express freely about how disgusted I was. I didn't want to ruin their meal as well. So I said, Ok, I will disregard the issue. I was sitting disgusted, not happy with the food I am eating, not happy with the lunch. I didn't make more comments or complain further because I know that my companion would make a big issue about it. So I didn't want to make a scene. (Ray_black spot)

In the case of John (John_glass) his friends were encouraging him to complain more, but he chose not to do anything further because the restaurant was full and he did not want to make a scene.

There were so many people around us and all people were of high society. I didn't want to get into arguing about the issue. I didn't want everyone to turn around and see me. (John_glass)

Summary

To sum up, CCB responses the participants reported to have taken in light of the service failures were broadly grouped between primary and secondary responses. Primary responses happened before the organisation attempted any service recovery and secondary responses occurred after the organisation was given the chance to recover the failure. Furthermore the responses were differentiated between involved and uninvolved.

Voicing the complaint is an involved response. When it is a primary response the data has shown that the participants complained to the waiter whereas when it is a secondary response the participants complained to a higher authority such as the supervisor or manager.

The data has also revealed variation within the exit response (primary and secondary) and hence it is not always a strict and permanent ending of the relationship with the restaurant. The dissatisfied consumers may still choose to come to the restaurant but they may choose to 'exit' a branch, a purpose or a dish.

Similarly with private NWOM (primary and secondary) the data revealed that the participants mainly wanted to share their stories with their family and friends. They also wanted to warn them not to go there anymore. In other cases they wanted to say negative things about the restaurants and vent their anger and frustration. Another form of NWOM is sharing the dissatisfactory story on social networking sites. This form of NWOM blurs the differentiation between it being a private or a public response.

Choosing to take no action was also revealed as a primary and a secondary response. It was a recurrent primary response and participants reported that they chose this response for various reasons such as not finding the waiter to complain or were busy doing other things. However as a secondary response it reflected feeling fed up with the sequence of failed service recovery attempts as well as being influenced by the presence of others and not wanting to make a scene by escalating the issue.

Finally, retaliation is a secondary involved response that the data revealed. Within a restaurant context the dissatisfied consumers expressed retaliation by refusing to leave tips for the waiters.

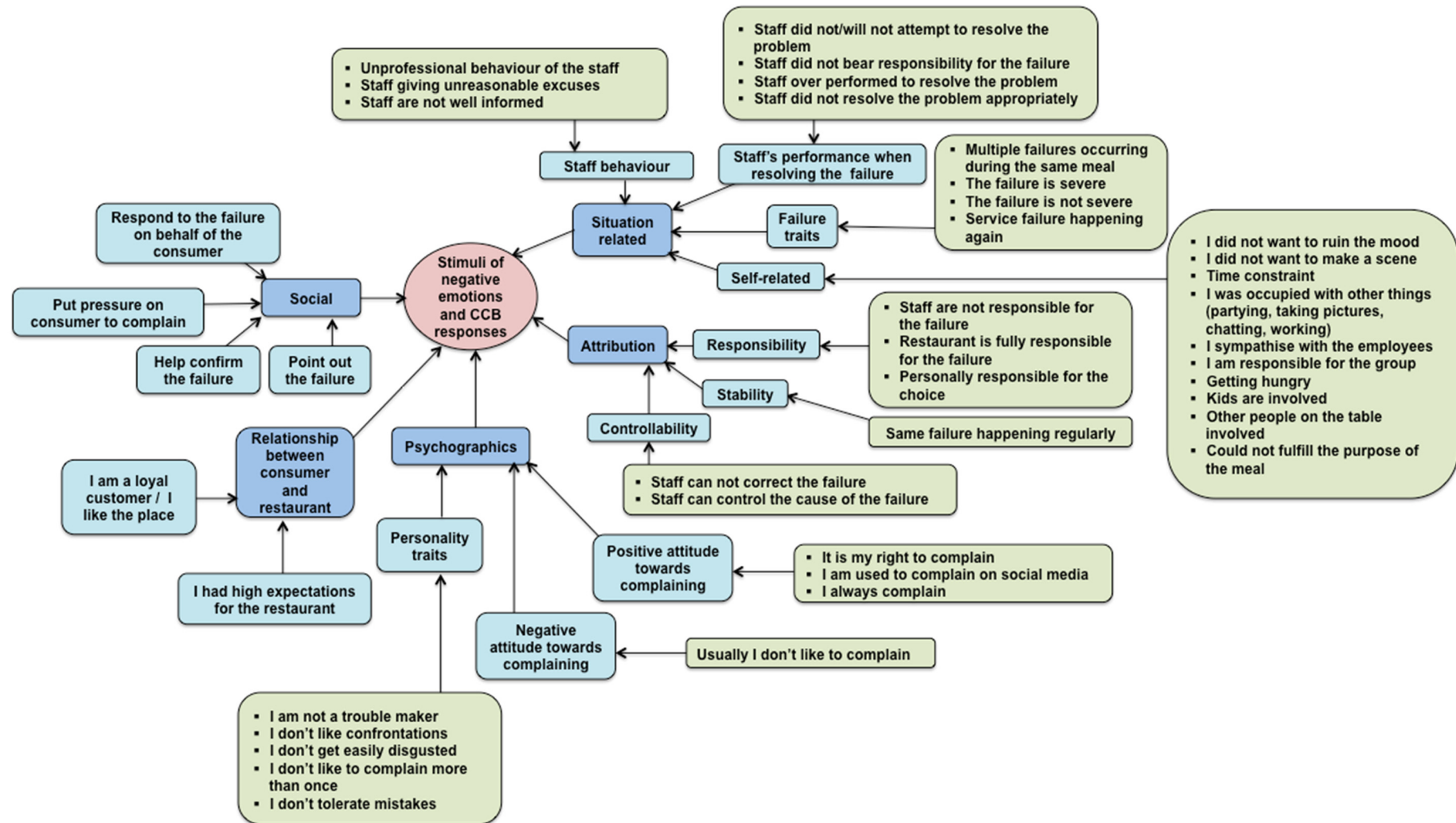
At the end of this section, it is important to note that none of the participants reported that they resorted to complaining to a third party. A number of explanations can be given for this phenomenon; (1) the participants did not consider the service failures to be extremely severe and require the interference of a third party, (2) the consumer protection division at the ministry of economy and trade (Lebanon) is the only official body to deal with such complaints and it has a reputation of not being efficient and follows a complicated procedure and (3) in general Lebanese people do not trust the judiciary system (only 14% of the Lebanese population trust the judiciary system (Sakker El Dekkene, 2015)).

5.5 What stimulates negative emotions and CCB responses?

This section addresses the perceived stimuli for the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken as reported by the participants. The CCB literature usually uses terms such as ‘antecedents’, ‘triggers’ and ‘motivators’ when discussing what influences the CCB response. In this thesis, however, the term ‘stimuli’ will be used to refer to what the participants have reported as causes for the negative emotions and for their choices of CCB responses. In particular, they were asked why they felt and responded the way they did. Hence the outcome of the participants’ evaluation of the negative event, in this context the service failure; is grouped under one theme: *Stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses*.

The rationale behind this decision is that the analysis of the stories showed a wide overlap between the perceived causes of the negative emotions experienced and the perceived triggers of the CCB responses. Hence, this theme branches into five main subthemes: (1) situation related, (2) attribution, (3) psychographics, (4) relationship between consumer and the restaurant and (5) social factors. The latter will be presented and elaborated in Chapter Six. Figure 40 is an extract from the final template featuring key theme no. 5: Stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses

Figure 40: An extract from the final template: Stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses



5.5.1 Situation related

This subtheme comprises four lower level themes that cover stimuli reported by the participants to have either generated negative emotions or influenced the CCB response or both. These stimuli are either related to the behaviour of the restaurant staff members, the evaluation of the staff's performance when resolving the failure, the traits of the failure itself or other causes that are related to participants themselves within this situation.

5.5.1.1 Staff behaviour

The behaviour of the restaurant staff members emerged as a recurrent stimulus for negative emotions specifically but it was not a sufficient cause to induce a CCB response. Furthermore, as presented earlier in Section 5.2.2, staff behaviour is also the source of people related failures.

In particular, one of the main behavioural issues participants reported to have caused them to experience negative emotions following a service failure is the unprofessional behaviour of the staff members as they perceived them. Layla (Layla_latte) for instance felt disappointed because of the attitude and behaviour of the waiter serving her friends and her.

I felt disappointed, come on, we are customers, at least show a bit of interest or show a bit of emotion, not emotion but at least let him show us that he is interested. It was a way below neutral service. It was not professional, it wasn't good, it wasn't respectful. (Layla_latte)

Furthermore, it has emerged from the data that disappointment can be also engendered when the staff members are not well informed of what is available or not in the restaurant. Rita (Rita_carrots) was disappointed and shared her account of what had happened with her in a sarcastic way. She said:

I was a bit disappointed. The waiters should communicate together, how didn't he know and made us wait. This is his job. He should know this. Should he be knowledgeable about the weather? (Rita_carrots)

The data showed that when the staff members give unreasonable excuses trying to justify the failure it makes the consumer angry. This is what happened with Jade (Jade_sanfoura) when the waiter tried to explain why her pasta tastes and smells bad.

I was angry. Come on, this happened because they warm it in microwave. To start with, in principle in restaurants they shouldn't do it. They shouldn't warm the sauce or plate. It is weird as if they prepare it before and just warm it. I felt he was just coming up with any excuse. Here I felt that he is just saying anything. (Jade_sanfoura)

5.5.1.2 Staff performance when resolving the failure

Some of the participants also reported that what caused them to experience certain negative emotions and engage in CCB responses was how the restaurant staff members performed while resolving the problems after they have voiced their complaint. Hence, this subtheme is concerned with the participants' evaluations of the restaurants' service recovery strategies.

i. The staff will not attempt to resolve the problem

Nadz (Nadz_attitude) and Layla (Layla_latte) reported that they felt it is useless to voice their complaint because they believed the restaurant staff members would not attempt to resolve the problem. In particular, their evaluations were based on previous experience during the same dining occasions when they have voiced their complaints about other failures but did not get a satisfactory recovery. Hence they perceived a very low or null likelihood of success for their complaint. For example in Nadz_attitude nadz explains:

I was so fed up I just didn't want to speak with them anymore. I felt it is of no use. You tell them and the way they approach me and how they dealt with the first problem that was the hair in the food. They dealt with it in a rude way. If I will talk again they will not be responsible. Do you understand? (Nadz_attitude)

ii. Staff did not bear responsibility for the failure

The analysis of the stories shows that when the restaurant staff members refuse to admit their responsibility for failure such as in the case of John (John_glass), the participants choose to terminate their complaint.

No, I guess he saw I was talking; he didn't bother. He didn't even explain to me or soothe me. He just came to take the responsibility off their back. And to insist that it is not their fault. So when I saw that he was talking to me in this way, here I didn't go further. He is talking illogically. (John_glass)

iii. Staff over performed to resolve the problem

On the other hand, the data also demonstrated that there are incidents when the participants think that the staff members over performed while they were resolving the failure. For instance, Jade in her story Jade_sanfoura said that she felt embarrassed because she thought the staff members (waiter, manager and chef) over performed in resolving the problem that occurred with her at the restaurant (spoiled pasta sauce). First the waiter apologised and replaced her plate twice, then the chef and manager apologised and explained to her the source of the problem, later they offered her friend and her free coffee and dessert and finally when they asked for the bill they were told that their entire meal is for free. Jade explains:

I was embarrassed; I felt that it is enough to apologise. (Jade_sanfoura)

Hence, as perceived underperformance in service recovery may cause negative emotions (for example fed up) and influence CCB responses, over performance may also cause negative emotions such as embarrassment.

iv. Staff did not resolve the problem appropriately

However when the participants believed that the staff members did not resolve the problem appropriately, negative emotions such as irritation (Jade_halloume and John_glass), anger (Joelle_no service) and feeling fed up (Nadz_attitude) emerged.

When Jade (Jade_halloume) complained to the waiter about the hair in her cheese plate, she explains that she felt his reaction hinted to her that this is something that usually happens at the restaurant. She believed that how he dealt with her complaint was not appropriate.

It annoyed me, I felt that because it happens regularly they don't do an effort to apologise and ask what really happened. (Jade_halloume)

Staff performance, whether before the dissatisfied consumer voices the complaint or after, influences the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken as well as the CCB process. This relationship between the customer and service provider in restaurants will be discussed in detail in Chapter Six, explaining the dynamics that occur in similar situations.

5.5.1.3 Failure traits

Another set of stimuli for negative emotions and CCB responses that emerged from the data are failure traits.

i. Multiple failures occurring during the same meal

In some dining occasions a multiple number of different service failures may happen during the same meal. These failures might not necessarily be of the same type or severity. The data has demonstrated that multiple failures occurring during the same meal stimulate negative emotions such as irritation, anger, feeling fed up and sadness. They also trigger CCB responses, commonly boycotting the place or taking no further action.

Grace (Grace_lime water) not only became upset and angry because the failures during her meal kept arising, she even decided to never come again to this restaurant.

You are like, please don't do more things because I might even leave before finishing my meal. I will not come back again. It is not that I will give it a second chance. (Grace_lime water)

In addition to being angry, the “millions of problems” made Nadz (Nadz_attitude) feel fed up with the staff and she did not want to complain anymore; taking no further action.

There were millions of problems. It never happened to me before that there is a problem in everything ... usually the service is not good, but the food would be good. But this time neither the service nor the food were good, the long wait. I was so fed up I just didn't want to speak with them anymore. I felt it is of no use. (Nadz_attitude)

ii. Service failure happening again

However in some other reported occasions the same failure happened again as in the case of Jade_sanfoura and Raffa_blue. As the data reveals, in such instances negative emotions especially feeling fed up are experienced and the participants either choose to voice their complaint again (secondary involved response) or choose to take no further action (secondary uninvolved response).

For example Jade (Jade_sanfoura) after complaining to the waiter about her pasta smelling and tasting bad, she was served another plate of pasta. Again she experienced the same problem. She explains that at this point she was feeling fed up, getting hungry and just wanted to eat. But she again complained to the waiter (secondary involved response).

Exactly the same; here it is enough for me. This was horrible. At this point I was here too hungry (Jade_sanfoura)

Raffa (Raffa_blue), on the other hand was served for the second time the steak not cooked as he asked for. He ate it without complaining again but he expressed his disappointment.

He (waiter) came back after a while. The presentation of the meat was perfect. I cut it. The cooking from the outside lookd rare but when I started to eat it, from the outside it was warm but from the inside it was too cold. I didn't make any comment. I just shook my head. The waiter asked if it is

*good. I said yes it is fine. Send my regards to the chef (sarcastically).
(Raffa_blue)*

iii. The failure is severe/not severe

The data has demonstrated that the negative emotions, most commonly disgust, anger and irritation, and primary voice complaints are also triggered by how severe the participants perceive the failure to be. Severe failures reported were mainly related to foreign objects found in food such as hair (Jade_halloume), piece of napkin (Pap_napkin) and a fly (Yara_fly) or hygiene and safety related such as in the stories of Ray, Naya and Grace.

Jade was disgusted when she saw the hair in her plate. She explains that a hair by itself is disgusting but if it is a big black one as the one she found:

Honestly it is very big. This is one of the very rare times that I really feel disgusted. It was really big and disgusting. In any case a hair in the food is disgusting. Fine, a small hair but not something like this! (Jade_halloume)

On the other hand, failures that are perceived to be not severe do not seem to engender negative emotions but mainly influence a no action response. Hence, in the stories Julz_night, Laura_pizza, Layla_cold, Layla_latte, Raffa_blue, Rita_carrots and Naya_bubbly soda; the participants evaluated the failures they experienced as not severe and chose to do nothing.

It is ok. A pizza is a pizza. It is not a big deal but I prefer a thick crust. Besides, when I saw my friends' food and the problems in their food and no one was satisfied with his food so I didn't say anything. My issue was the simplest. (Julz_nothing)

It is important to mention here that in multiple failure occasions (such as the ones mentioned above) some failures may be perceived as severe whereas other failures (within the same occasion) can be perceived as not severe. Furthermore, the consumer might evaluate the severity of the failure after comparing it with other failures people dining with him/her experience such as in the above quote.

5.5.1.4 Self-related

Self-related stimuli also emerged from the data under which a number of causes are reported by the participants to have triggered negative emotions and CCB responses upon the occurrence of a service failure. The emotions engendered as a result of these situations are mainly self-attributed emotions such as guilt, regret and embarrassment and the recurrent CCB response is take no action.

There are situations when the participant reported choosing not to complain about the service failure because he/she was not alone and did not want to make a scene or ruin the mood. Hence, the people dining with the customer on the same table indirectly influenced the negative emotions and responses. This will be presented in detail in Chapter Six.

For example, Mia explains in her story Mia_birthday that she and her friends were celebrating her birthday and they encountered a number of failures including the fact that the food did not taste good. She explained that during the dinner she and her friends did not voice their complaints because they did not want to make an issue and ruin the occasion.

On the spot not much, not much. But of course every two of us were saying that this doesn't taste good for example, but we didn't make a scene about this issue. (Mia_birthday)

Similarly Julz (Julz_night) and his friends chose not to complain about the failures they experienced because they had guests with them.

We didn't want to make a big issue out of it. We had guests with us. (Julz_night)

Furthermore, there are the situations where the customer considered himself/herself responsible for the choice of the restaurant or the type of food such as in the case of Julz_sushi, Raffa_blue and Naya_bubbly soda and this made them feel guilt and/or regret.

I convinced my friends to come to this place. I usually tell people to go to this restaurant. (Julz_sushi)

Similar situations are when the customer is responsible for a group like June:

When you are responsible of a group, you feel embarrassed of the situation. I felt I needed to do something to make the service better. (June_slow)

5.5.2 Attribution

It acknowledged in the CCB literature (for example, Boote, 1998; Folkes & Kotsos, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Weiner, 2000) that the attribution outcome, in other words the cause of the failure as per the consumer's assessment, influences both the negative emotions and responses. Attribution has three dimensions: stability, responsibility and controllability (Weiner, 1980). This classification was followed in this thesis.

5.5.2.1 Responsibility

This is a recurrent stimulus that was revealed by the data. In particular, whether the participants believed the staff members were responsible or not responsible for the failure influenced the negative emotions and the CCB responses.

Jade (Jade_sanfoura) and Yara (Yara_fly) believed that the staff members were not responsible for the failure. For example, Jade felt guilty for not tipping the waiter especially that he was not the one to be blamed for the spoiled pasta sauce.

The waiter is taking the blame of someone else's mistake; it is really not nice ... The waiter was doing his job. He was nice from the beginning. (Jade_sanfoura)

However, when they believed that the staff members were responsible for the failure such as in the stories Jade_halloume, Julz_sushi, Laura_pizza,

Layla_cold service and Pap_napkin; other-attributed negative emotions were experienced and voice complaint responses were elicited.

Jade (Jade_halloume) held the waiter responsible for not seeing the hair on the white piece of cheese before serving it to her. This made her feel angry and stimulated her to complain directly to the waiter although at first she was hesitant.

The waiter, he should see what he is serving. He wouldn't know if something is spoiled. But in this case the waiter is giving you the plate with a big hair that is very clear to see. A big, black hair on a white piece of halloume. He can easily see it. (Jade_halloume)

Similarly Pap (Pap_Napkin) believed that the chef was responsible for dropping a piece of napkin in the salad while washing his hands. He was disappointed with the chef's unprofessionalism.

Because it was the fault of the chef and he was washing his hands and drying them and the napkin fell in the plate. This thing I don't accept at all. He is responsible for this. (Pap_napkin)

Pap also voiced his complaint to the waiter (primary response) then later to the manager (secondary response) and at the end of his story he explains that he decided not to go again to this place (secondary response).

However there are situations where the participants reported that they felt responsible for the choice and this as well influenced the negative emotions and CCB responses. Commonly the negative emotions reported were self-attributed such as regret and embarrassment. Doing nothing or taking no action was the recurrent CCB response that emerged from the data when the participant felt personally responsible.

Julz (Julz_night) and his friends ordered a sandwich despite the warning from the waiter that the onion is caramelised. When they were served the sandwich they did not like the taste but they felt responsible for their choice and believed they had no right to complain.

For the sandwich we felt that he told us that it is caramelised. We are not allowed to complain, it is our fault we didn't take his warning, but we didn't imagine that it is that much caramelized. (Julz_night)

5.5.2.2 Stability

Stability is when the consumer evaluates whether the failure is relatively temporary or fairly permanent. In this study the data showed that when the consumer believes the failure is permanent (recurring) he/she decides to take the exit response. In particular, Raffa (Raffa_blue) returned his steak because it wasn't cooked as he ordered and then he was served a second one that he also said was not cooked properly. He explains that he reached the conclusion that the chef doesn't know how to cook steaks properly and if he decides to come back to this restaurant he will never order steak again but will choose other things from the menu. This incident left him disappointed, irritated and regretting having come to this place.

I told him that now I ate it but tell the chef to stop doing fillet because from the outside it was warm and cold from the inside ... I was a bit annoyed but nothing more. I continued. I would have preferred if I ate somewhere else. But it is ok. Next time I will not order it. (Raffa_blue)

5.5.2.3 Controllability

Controllability is the third dimension of attribution and it refers to whether the consumer thinks that the cause of the failure could have been controlled or not. Hence, as the data reveals, there are incidents where the participants believed that the restaurant staff members could not correct the cause of the failure, it is beyond their capacity. However, there are other incidents where they thought that the restaurant could have avoided the failure.

For instance Julz (Julz_sushi) and his friends found the restaurant dim and wanted more light, but when they looked up to the ceiling they saw that there were not enough lights so they did not say anything to the waitress (do nothing)

We looked up, it is not that there are lights but are not on; simply there are no lights. (Julz_sushi)

Whereas although Yara and her friend are girl scouts and they said they do not get disgusted easily, they believed that the restaurant staff could have avoided having flies falling in food especially that they are not outdoors. For this reason they decided to voice their complaint even though they could have removed the fly and continue eating.

But we were saying that if you are outdoors in the fields you expect to see this. You would remove it and continue eating. But not in a restaurant when you are paying money and at least it would be good and perfect. (Yara_fly)

5.5.3 Psychographics

The CCB literature assumes that psychographic variables have an impact on CCB responses. In particular, attitude towards complaining and personality traits are the two most widely researched and found to be relevant within a service context (Jones et al., 2002; Moliner-Velazquez et al., 2006; Thøgersen et al., 2009). The analysis of the data is consistent with this assumption with three subthemes emerging: (1) positive attitude towards complaining, (2) negative attitude towards complaining and (3) personality traits.

5.5.3.1 Positive and Negative attitude towards complaining

It is suggested that people with a positive attitude towards complaining consider complaining to be an appropriate behaviour and they commonly voice their complaints directly to the seller or service provider (Singh & Wilkes, 1996). The analysis shows that this concept is manifested when the participants express the cause behind their voice complaints as “it is my right to complain”, “I always complain” and “I am used to complaining on social media”.

Nadz (Nadz_attitude) and Pap (Pap_napkin) expressed their belief that it is their right to complain if there is something bothering them:

Minimum if something is bothering me in the service is annoying me and affecting my dining experience. I am going there to have fun, I am going there to have a nice bite to eat and enjoy company with my friends and not to be given attitude. Already I was too hungry plus I think we should complain, it is good for the restaurant itself so that they know the service is very important, you know that. I always no matter what if I have comments I always make sure to tell them. (Nadz_attitude)

On the other hand participants like Jade (Jade_sanfoura), Julz (Julz_sushi) and Laura (Laura_pizza) expressed that they usually don't like to complain. Hence they have a negative attitude towards complaining. The literature suggests that these consumers usually do not complain and engage in NWOM. This was confirmed in the stories of Julz (Julz_sushi) and Laura (Laura_pizza) who chose not to voice their complaints directly to the waiters but after they left the restaurant they engaged in NWOM.

Usually I don't like to complain. It is ok the chair is not stable I change it ... Maximum I ask them to lower the music. (Julz_sushi)

Whereas Jade (Jade_sanfoura) explicitly expresses that she usually doesn't like to complain and she avoids confrontations, in both her stories (Jade_halloume and Jade_sanfoura) she voiced her complaints. In her story Jade_sanfoura she explains that she complained because she thought the problem was severe.

I usually don't complain. If it is not tasty I don't eat it. If anything is dropped like a fork I don't say anything. I don't like confrontations. (Jade_sanfoura)

Hence, the severity of the failure (pasta tastes and smells bad) overpowered her initial negative attitude towards complaining and she eventually voiced her complaint.

In her second story, Jade_halloume, it was the pressure put on her by her friends that pushed her to voice her complaint. She explains that when she saw the hair on her plate she covered it and moved it away. She did not want to complain.

*They know me that I usually don't say anything, so yes, they pushed me.
(Jade_halloume)*

In this incident the influence of the people dining with Jade over powered her negative attitude towards complaining so that she voiced her complaint. The influence of companions will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Six.

5.5.3.2 Personality traits

The CCB literature accepts that the personality traits of a consumer might help to predict how most likely dissatisfied consumers are to respond. The scope of this thesis does not cover testing for personality traits, however the data presents some of the traits the participants reported about how they portrayed themselves.

For instance Jade expressed that she usually doesn't like confrontations. She describes herself as 'not a troublemaker' and doesn't get disgusted easily. She used these traits to explain her choice to not complain in her story Jade_sanfoura.

I usually don't complain. It is not tasty I don't eat it. If anything is dropped like a fork, I don't say anything. I don't like confrontations. (Jade_sanfoura)

On the other extreme Pap (Pap_napkin) and Grace (Grace_lime water) explain that they cannot tolerate mistakes and that is why when they encounter a failure they directly complain about.

I called the waiter to complain to say that there is something wrong because I don't accept such a thing. (Pap_napkin)

5.5.4 Relationship between consumer and restaurant

The analysis of the data has demonstrated that the prior relationship between the participants (consumers) and the restaurant further acts as a stimulus for negative emotions and CCB responses. In particular, it emerged that the

expectations the participants had for the restaurant as well as how loyal the customer is to the restaurant plays an influencing role on emotions and responses.

5.5.4.1 I had high expectations for the restaurant

The data revealed that the participants' prior expectations for the restaurants had an impact on their emotions and responses. In the cases of Julz (Julz_sushi), Laura (Laura_pizza), Layla (Layla_latte), Joelle (Joelle_no service) and Grace (Grace_lime water) the emotions ranged from mild irritation to anger and most commonly disappointment. The participants felt disappointed when their expectations were not met.

For example, Laura's fiancé (Laura_pizza) was disappointed when the restaurant had run out of the main ingredients for one of its signatures dishes.

So he was coming with very high expectations, as it is the best pizza in town and then these items were missing, especially this particular type of cheese. So it was a big disappointment for him. (Laura_pizza)

Furthermore, as a result of the failed expectations, the participants reported that they mainly engaged in NWOM to share their stories with others or warn others not to go to that restaurant again.

I always tell my friends that this restaurant is a good place and the food tastes really good, so I told them that I went there and I was very disappointed. (Julz_sushi)

Also as in the cases of Julz (Julz_sushi), Mia (Mia_birthday) and John (John_glass) they explained that they have decided to boycott this restaurant.

I was very disappointed with the restaurant. I went there expecting something very special. It was my first time there. I will never go again, because any other restaurant even much less in prices would appreciate more its customers and treat them better. (John_glass)

5.5.4.2 I am a loyal customer/I like the place

Loyalty is yet another stimulus that emerged from the analysis of the data and is found to influence the negative emotions and the CCB responses. An example is the story of Mia (Mia_quatro). As Mia explains, she and her family and friends are loyal to a certain restaurant where they go with their children every weekend for dinner. They know the waiters and the waiters know them. She says that to some extent they consider the restaurant as their kitchen. Although during her reported story Mia and her friends experienced a multiple number of failures in the service and in the food, they were only mildly irritated and insisted that they would keep going to this place.

We consider this restaurant as the kitchen at our house. We are used to it. Every Friday and Saturday we take the kids there. They play and have fun. Maybe the restaurant staff gets annoyed with us. That is why we are ok with such problem because we know we are going there for that reason... if it was a different restaurant, yes, I would consider them (failures) severe and I might not go there again. But there it is because as I told you we are used to it. The kids enjoy their time and they mess up the place and no one minds. (Mia_quatro)

5.5.5 Social

It was argued in Chapter Three Section 3.3 that CCB within a service context is a process that involves ongoing interactions between the service provider and the consumer. Hence, the consumer is not isolated when experiencing a dissatisfactory incident. The analysis of the data demonstrated that the CCB behaviour is not only the result of the continuous interaction between the service provider and the customer but also between the customer and the people dining with him/her and the other people in the restaurant at the time of the negative incident.

The previous sections have presented how the service providers, mainly the waiters in the restaurant context, influence the CCB response. In particular, how the staff behaviour during the dining occasion and their performance when resolving the failure stimulated negative emotions and CCB responses. This subtheme focuses on presenting the findings that show how the interaction

between the customer and the people dining with him /her has an impact on the CCB responses.

However this social dynamic that occurs between the customer, the service providers and other customers will be presented in Chapter six. It will be explained in detail through quotes and visual mappings of a selected number of stories that clearly demonstrate this dimension.

Summary

This section presented the stimuli for negative emotions and responses that emerged from the analysis of the data. This key theme involved five key subthemes: (1) situation related, (2) attribution, (3) psychographics, (4) the relationship between the customer and the restaurant and (5) social stimuli. Hence this section reflected the participants' accounts of how these factors stimulated their negative emotions and responses.

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings that emerged from the template analysis of the 20 stories to answer the study research questions, in particular RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3.

It started by setting the scene by introducing the findings related to the context of the dining occasion and the types of service failures that were experienced by the participants.

It then moved to answer RQ1 and demonstrate the negative emotions reported by the participants during their dissatisfactory dining occasion. The negative emotions were differentiated based on the causal agency hence there were three categories of negative emotions: other-attributed, situational-attributed and self-attributed.

The findings that address RQ2 were then presented explaining the CCB responses that emerged from the participants' accounts. The CCB responses were broadly divided between primary and secondary responses as well as involved and uninvolved responses.

Section 5.5 of the chapter ended by answering RQ3 and introduced the findings that relate to the stimuli of the negative emotions and the CCB responses. These stimuli are related to the situation, to the individual himself/herself and to the other individuals present during the dining occasion.

In the chapter that follows (Chapter Six) RQ4 will be answered by describing the natural dynamics that occur during a consumer complaint episode in a restaurant context. It will take into account the customer, the restaurant staff, the people dining with the customer and other people dining in the restaurant.

Chapter Six: Findings and analysis of interviews; social dynamics occurring during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants

6.1 Overview of chapter

Having presented in Chapter Five the findings that answer research questions one, two and three (RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3), this chapter will address the findings that emerged from the 20 stories relevant to research question four (RQ4).

- **RQ4:** How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

It has been established in the literature that CCB in services is not an instant response but rather a sequential process that involves ongoing appraisals (affective and cognitive) throughout the dissatisfactory episode (Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Sharma et al., 2010). Tronvoll (2007) further suggests that the CCB response is not a simple isolated response to a dissatisfactory incident; it is the result of a complex and dynamic process in which the consumer and the service provider continuously influence each other. Specifically Bitner et al. (1990) were the first to identify a number of staff behaviours that influence consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and their consequent responses. Hence, the relationship between the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by dissatisfied consumers and the behaviour and attitude of service providers is acknowledged in the literature.

This research has identified two further players that are present during a CCB episode within a restaurant context and that influence both CCB response and negative emotions. They are: the people dining on the same table with the consumer (referred to in this thesis as the entourage) and other people dining in the restaurant (referred to in this thesis as other customers).

This chapter will present the findings that describe how the ongoing interaction throughout the CCB episode between the consumer, the restaurant staff members (service provider), the entourage, and the other people dining in the restaurant influence the negative emotions and CCB responses, thus reflecting the natural dynamics that occurs during a customer complaint episode in a restaurant context.

The discussion will start in Section 6.2 by addressing the findings that illustrate how the restaurant staff members (i.e. the service provider) influence the consumer's CCB response and negative emotions. It will then move to presenting in Sections 6.3 and 6.4 respectively the data related to the role the entourage and the other people dining in the restaurant play within the CCB episode. The chapter will then conclude in Section 6.5 with a proposed model showing the social interactions during a dissatisfactory incident that brings together these four players.

In addition to the extracts from the stories, complaint journey mappings of a selected number of stories will be featured to further explain these interactions. In particular, four-tier visual mappings were produced for all the stories, where the tiers are: (1) the consumer, (2) the restaurant staff, (3) the entourage and (4) the other customers. These mappings show the incidents taking place during the dissatisfactory episodes as well as the negative emotions and the responses in a chronological order as reported by the participants.

Along with the complaint journey mappings, vignettes for each of the featured stories will be presented. These vignettes summarise the dissatisfying incidents as reported by the participants. They include particular details and events that are relevant to the study and help address the research questions. Furthermore they help the reader understand the context of the incident and develop a clear and wholesome idea of the reported story.

6.2 Restaurant staff members and the consumer

Complaint behaviour and service recovery literature acknowledges the relationship between the behaviour of the service providers and CCB responses. Bitner et al. (1990) were the pioneers to identify the behaviours of contact personnel that result in consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Additionally, service recovery and perceived justice literature assumes that the consumer appraises how the service provider responded to the voiced complaint and this in turn influences their level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction and their secondary responses (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Boote, 1998).

It emerged from the data that the restaurant staff members' behaviours during the service as well as their performance when handling the complaint (service recovery) stimulated negative emotions and CCB responses. Chapter Five in Sections 5.2.2 (people related failures) and 5.5 (stimuli of the negative emotions and CCB responses) presented in detail these findings along with extracts from the interviews, thus further supporting the literature.

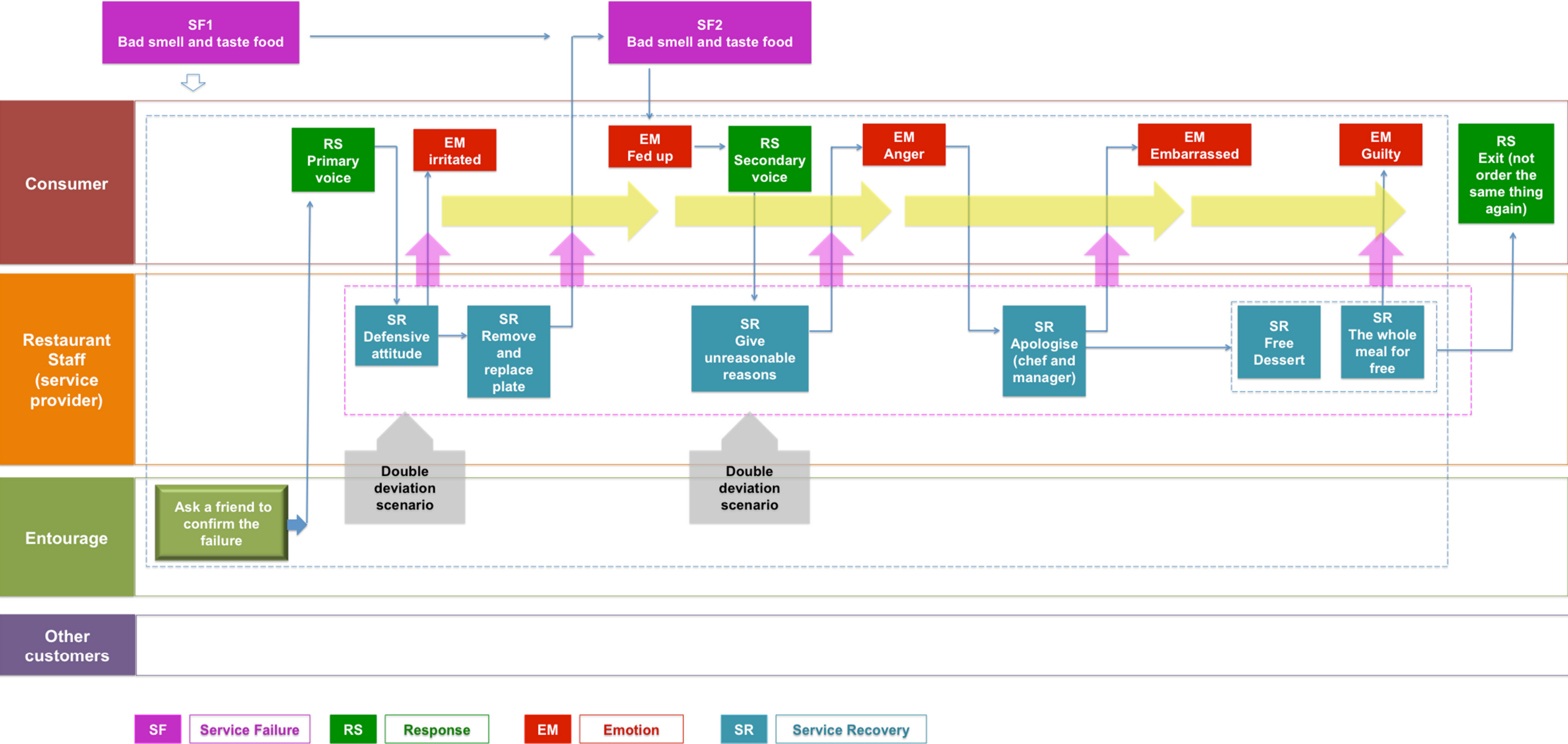
This section of the chapter will illustrate how this ongoing interaction between the restaurant staff members and the consumer throughout the dissatisfactory episode impacts the negative emotions and the CCB responses. A complaint journey mapping of Jade_sanfoura will be used to demonstrate this relationship and allow a holistic understanding of the incident from the participant's account while reflecting the natural setting and context. Table 10 is a brief vignette of the story.

Table 10: Vignette of Jade_sanfoura

Jade_sanfoura
<p>Jade and her friend were at a shopping mall during a weekday. It was lunchtime and they were hungry. The good smell of soup attracted them to choose this restaurant.</p> <p>Jade ordered pasta but it smelled and tasted really bad; like spoiled seafood. She asked her friend to try a bit of the pasta. Her friend tasted it and confirmed the disgusting taste. She complained to the waiter. First the waiter took a defensive attitude that made her feel irritated but then he removed and replaced her pasta.</p> <p>The second pasta tasted the same. Jade explains that at this point she was feeling fed up because the same thing happened again and she was getting hungry. She called the waiter and told him about the pasta. He told her the reason of the bad taste is because they warm the sauce in the microwave. His response made her angry. She felt he was giving her unreasonable justifications.</p> <p>Later the chef and the manager came along with the waiter. They apologised and told her that the reason of the bad taste was that the pasta sauce was spoiled. Jade elaborates that they apologised in a very sincere way showing that they cared. Their apology made her feel embarrassed. She felt they did more than needed. Furthermore, Jade and her friend were not charged for the whole meal and they were offered free dessert and coffee. Jade highly appreciated this gesture. The way they apologised and their compensation made her feel that they are genuinely sorry for what happened. However, Jade reports that she felt guilty that she couldn't tip the waiter. He was not responsible for the fault. She explains that she will go again to this place but probably not order the pasta dish again.</p>

It is evident from the above vignette that how the waiter responded to Jade's primary voice complaint stimulated the feeling of irritation. However when the failure happened again and the waiter also according to Jade did not recover the situation effectively she was left feeling fed up and angry. At this point, a double deviation scenario occurs. However the feeling of anger and being fed up turns into embarrassment and guilt after the chef and manager, according to Jade, apologised in a very sincere way, explained the failure and compensated her by not charging her for the whole meal and offering free dessert and coffee. This example shows that "restaurant staff" can include multiple players whose individual behaviours would generate different negative emotions and responses. The waiter's behaviour resulted in Jade feeling irritated and angry, whereas the manager's behaviour left her satisfied. Figure 41 is the complaint journey mapping of Jade_sanfoura.

Figure 41: Complaint journey mapping of Jade_sanfoura

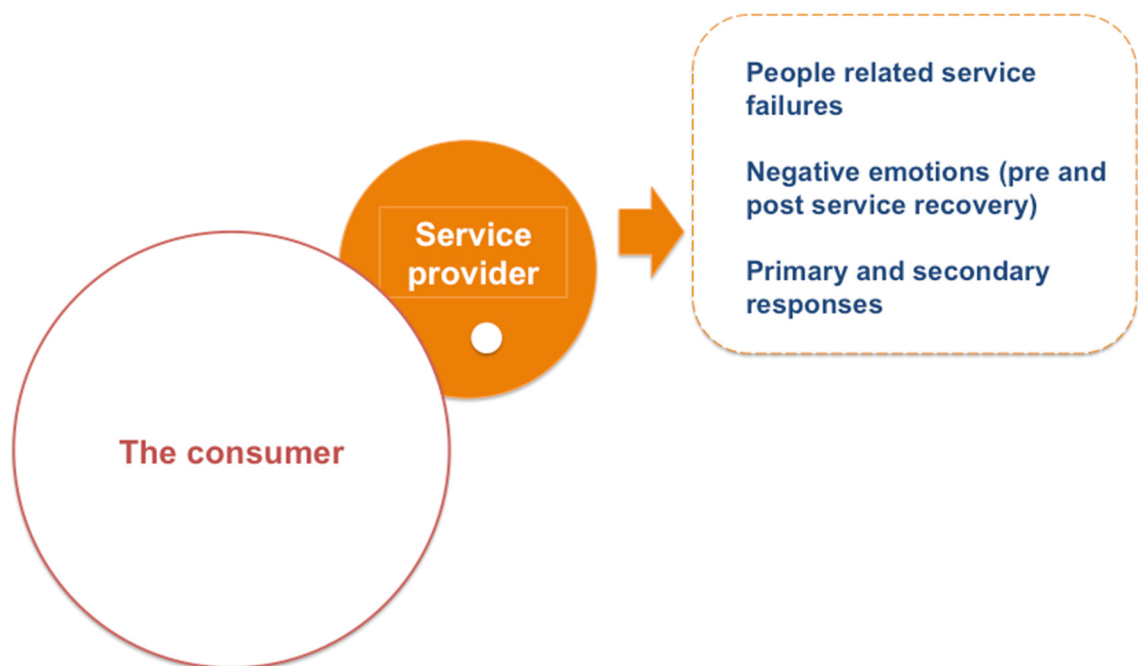


The complaint journey mapping indicates how Jade's negative emotions fluctuated across the whole incident as a result of the ongoing interaction between her and the restaurant staff members. At the beginning she was irritated, then fed up, then angry and at the end embarrassed and guilty. Hence, the restaurant staff members stimulated these emotions.

Furthermore, the CCB responses also varied throughout the dining occasion. Jade voiced her complaint twice to the waiter when she received her spoiled pasta. However at the end of her story she explains that because she thought that the restaurant staff members effectively recovered the failure she will come back again to the restaurant but probably not order the pasta dish again. She also explains that she told her friends about how she was positively treated at the restaurant.

To sum up, as Figure 42 shows, the interaction between the consumer and the service provider influences the CCB process. In particular consumers can perceive the behaviours and attitudes of service providers as people-related service failures. Furthermore, they stimulate negative emotions and CCB responses both pre and post service recovery attempts.

Figure 42: The interaction between the consumer and the service provider



6.3 The entourage and the consumer

The data demonstrates that the interaction between the people dining with the participant at the same table (referred to as the entourage) and the participant influences the negative emotions, the CCB responses and the CCB process.

In particular, the entourage can stimulate the CCB response by pointing out the failure, help confirming the failure, pushing the participant to complain or complaining on behalf of the participant.

i. Point out the failure (problem) to the consumer

The data demonstrates that in some incidents, the entourage point out the failure to the consumer such as in the case of Jade in her story Jade_halloume. Jade received her cheese plate. At first she did not notice anything wrong but her friend sitting facing her on the table pointed it out to her.

and then, actually the girl facing me looked like this with her eyes wide opened. And then I saw it. She did like this, “yucky!” I didn’t understand at first. So I looked and then I found a very, very long hair. (Jade_halloume)

Hence in this case the companion, by pointing out the failure and expressing disgust, helped identify the failure and initiate the CCB process, consequently stimulating a CCB response.

ii. Help confirm the failure

In other incidents the participant asked the people dining with him/her to confirm the failure before deciding how to respond such as in the stories

Jade_sanfoura, Ray_black spot, and Raffa_blue. Hence in these cases the entourage contributed to the consumers’ cognitive appraisal of the failures and supported their assessment.

Raffa asked for his steak to be blue, instead he was served a very well done steak. He complained to the waiter but before doing this he asked his friends to try it and confirm that it wasn’t cooked as he ordered it.

I directly told the waiter. But also my friends with me on the table tried it and said that it is well done. (Raffa_blue)

This is an example of one of the roles the companions play to influence the CCB response especially when the consumer is not assertive about the failure. Commonly it occurs when the failures can hold a level of subjectivity such as taste and cooking style.

iii. Put pressure on the consumer to complain

This perspective is apparent in the incidents when the participant reported that he/she was hesitant to voice the complaint, such as Jade in her story

Jade_halloume. After seeing the hair on her plate and feeling disgusted, she covered it with a napkin and moved it to the side. Here she explains that her friends were surprised that she did not complain and in a way pressured her to do so.

So I felt... ewwww (very disgusted). First I moved it to the side and covered it with a tissue so that I don't have to see it. Here all my friends looked at me in a way surprised that I didn't call the waiter and asked if I am not going to. I told them 'yes' and I called the waiter ... they know me that I usually don't say anything, so yes, they pushed me.
(Jade_halloume)

In such situations the companions are a direct stimulus for the CCB response. When Jade was hesitant and at first chose to do nothing, the people dining with her pushed her to voice her complaint.

Similarly, John's friends (John_glass) wanted him to complain and ask for compensation. But their pressure did not succeed in changing his decision of doing nothing.

Anyways at the end, my friends were saying 'why didn't you argue more?', you have to speak up and ask for compensation. I don't like doing this... my friends were telling me to complain and ask for something, but I told them it is ok. It is over. I didn't say anything; I felt that I would be humiliated. (John_glass)

Other factors hindered the companions' pressure in the case of John, mainly his belief that the complaint will not lead him anywhere (low likelihood of success), his negative attitude towards complaining and his will to avoid making a scene.

iv. Respond to the failure on behalf of the consumer

Finally, in some negative incidents the consumer for different reasons chooses not to voice the complaint and the people dining with him/her voice the complaint on their behalf. This happened with Nadz (Nadz_attitude) as she explains that after she has given up on complaining because of the bad attitude of the waiter, her friend voiced the complaint for Nadz's delayed salad instead of her.

*One of the friends was shouting: Does the food need that long to prepare?
Should I go to the kitchen and cook the food instead of you?
(Nadz_attitude)*

In addition to the direct influence the entourage can have on the CCB process, negative emotions and responses demonstrated above, they also have an indirect influence. The participants in some instances refrain from voicing the complaint because their companions will make a scene such as in the case of Ray (Ray_black spot)

I didn't make more comments or complain further because I know that my companion would make a big issue about it. So I didn't want to make a scene. (Ray_black spot)

Julz, in his story Julz_night, also chose not to complain after he compared the severity of the failure he experienced with those his friends (the entourage) experienced.

When I saw my friends' food and the problems in their food and no one was satisfied with his food, so I didn't say anything. My issue was the simplest. (Julz_night)

The entourage can also have an indirect impact on the negative emotions engendered. Participants reported that they felt embarrassed in front of their guests when failures happened especially when they have either organised the event (for example June_slow) or recommended the place to friends (for example Naya_bubbly soda).

*Personally, I was embarrassed because I recommended the place.
(Naya_bubbly soda).*

In other cases failures happening with the entourage may also influence the participant's emotions such as in the case of Rita_carrots. One of her friends dining with her experienced a service failure that made her angry. Consequently everyone on the table was irritated.

It affected in a way, it made us annoyed a bit. Especially her husband.
(Rita_carrots)

To further illustrate the role the entourage play during the CCB process by directly influencing the negative emotions and CCB responses, the story Jade_halloume will be used. The vignette of Jade_halloume can walk the reader through the incidents as reported by Jade during her dissatisfactory dining occasion (Table 11). Mainly Jade's friend first saw the hair on the plate and pointed it out to her. Also when Jade was hesitant to complain, her entourage pushed her to voice her complaint to the waiter.

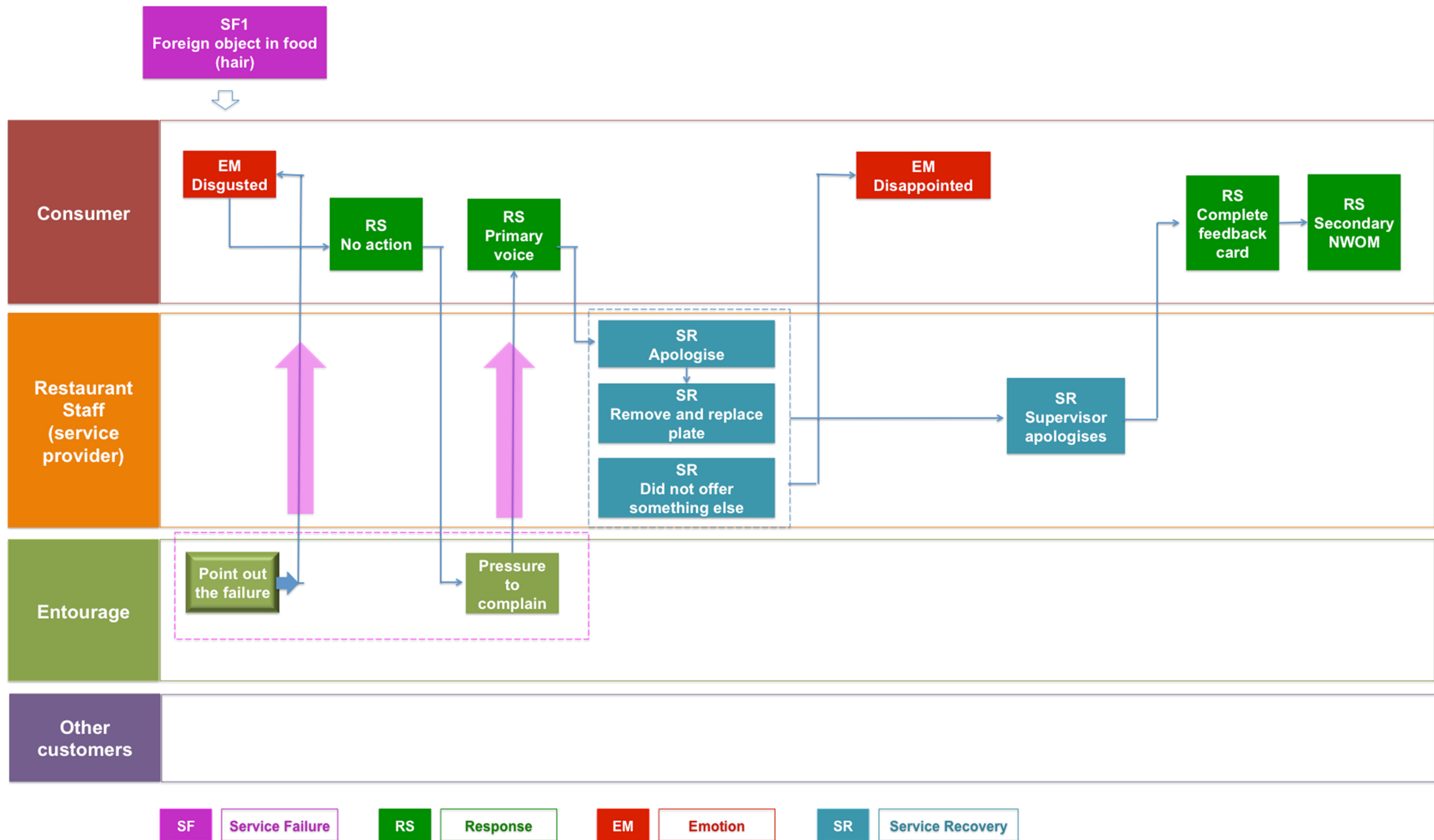
Table 11: Vignette of Jade_halloume

Jade_Halloume
<p>Jade went out for lunch with her office colleagues during their lunch break on a weekday. They went to a nearby restaurant that they always go to.</p> <p>She ordered a Halloume platter. When the plate was served, her friend who was sitting across from her looked with her eyes wide open and said "yucky!" At first Jade did not know what was wrong and then when she looked in her plate, she saw a very long, black hair.</p> <p>Jade was very disgusted. First she moved the plate to the side and covered it with a tissue so that she doesn't see it. Here, her friends were surprised that she did not call the waiter and asked her if she were not going to. Jade explains that she was hesitant and did not want to complain but her friends pressured her to do so. So she called the waiter.</p> <p>The waiter came and asked what's wrong and when she showed him the hair he apologised and directly took the plate. She was expecting a sincere apology and to ask her if she would like to order something else. So this made her feel disappointed.</p> <p>The waiter got her another plate after 10 minutes. She ate some of the food because she had lost her appetite and all her friends were waiting for her to go back to the office. She wasn't enjoying her meal.</p> <p>She completed the comment card but no one followed up with her. She also told friends about what happened with her. She wanted to say negative things about the place.</p>

The vignette shows that Jade's entourage had a direct impact on her CCB responses. First it was her friend who pointed out the failure to her, thus initiating the CCB process by identifying the service failure. However, when Jade acted as if she has decided to take no action regarding the failure (she

moved her plate to the side and covered it with a napkin) her entourage pressured her to voice her complaint to the waiter. Figure 43 is the complaint journey mapping of Jade_halloume.

Figure 43: Complaint journey mapping of Jade_halloume



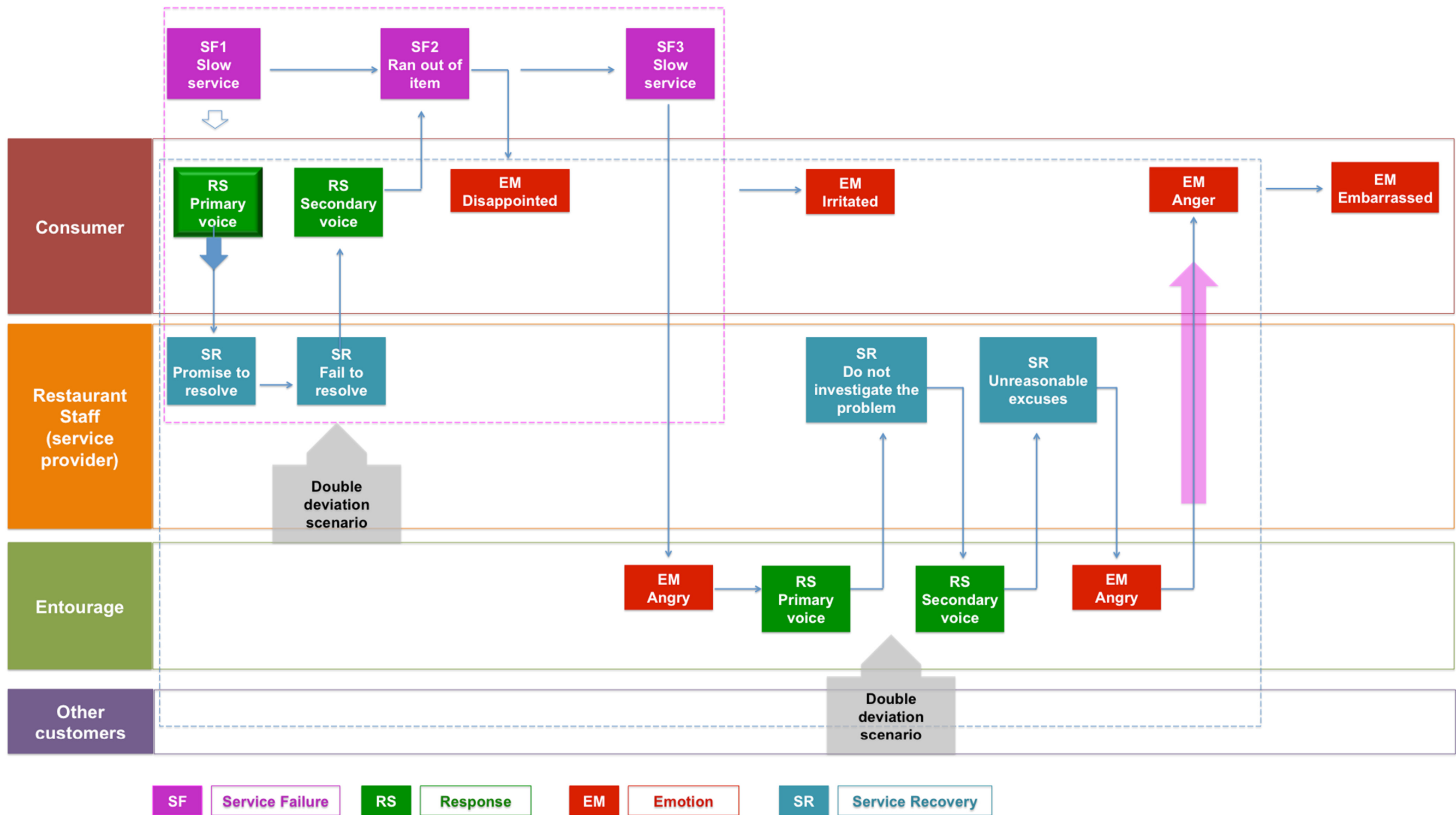
On the other hand, in Rita's (Rita_carrots) case the entourage indirectly stimulated the negative emotions. Rita and a group of friends were having dinner. Despite the number of service failures they encountered they were only mildly irritated. However when one person in her entourage experienced a more severe failure that made her angry, Rita explains that everyone on the table felt irritated and their overall mood was affected. In brief, following is the vignette of Rita_carrots (Table 12).

Table 12: Vignette of Rita_carrots

Rita_carrots
<p>Rita and her friends were having dinner on a Friday evening. First they sat outdoors and then later they moved inside.</p> <p>They ordered some carrots as appetizers. The order was delayed so they asked a waiter about it. He promised to get them right away. However, they still did not get their food. When they moved inside they asked another waiter about their order but this waiter directly told them that they had run out of carrots. Rita was disappointed because the waiters should know better.</p> <p>Later when they ordered food, one of Rita's friends who was dining with her ordered sushi. All of the other food orders arrived except for the sushi. At this point they were starting to get irritated. The service was very slow. They had to ask for the drinks three times. Everyone was annoyed with the slow service and the multiple problems. Rita and the other friends started eating except for the lady who ordered sushi. She was still waiting for her order and getting hungry. She asked for her order two or three times and every time the waiters would say that the sushi is coming right away. One of the waiters came and said that the sushi needs time. They felt as if he was shutting them up by giving them unjustified reasons. They felt disrespected.</p> <p>The manager on duty came to ask if everything is ok, little did he know that they would lash out at him. So the lady started shouting and telling him that she ordered sushi long ago and did not get it yet and that he has three minutes to get the sushi or else she doesn't want them anymore. The manager also told them that the sushi needs time. The lady was very angry and she was feeling very hungry.</p> <p>Rita explains that the whole situation affected her friends and her and made them irritated. In particular Rita was angry and embarrassed. She has recommended the place to her friends.</p> <p>The final failure was when Rita ordered "white coffee" and also the service was slow. She then asked a waiter and he told her that they do not have anymore.</p>

Although the interaction between Rita and her entourage was not direct, the failure experienced by her friend and the negative emotions stimulated subsequently influenced Rita's emotions. Rita was mildly irritated by the failures she personally experienced (slow service), but she became angry when her friend was angry and voiced her complaint to the manager, threatening to leave. Figure 44 is the complaint journey mapping of Rita_carrots.

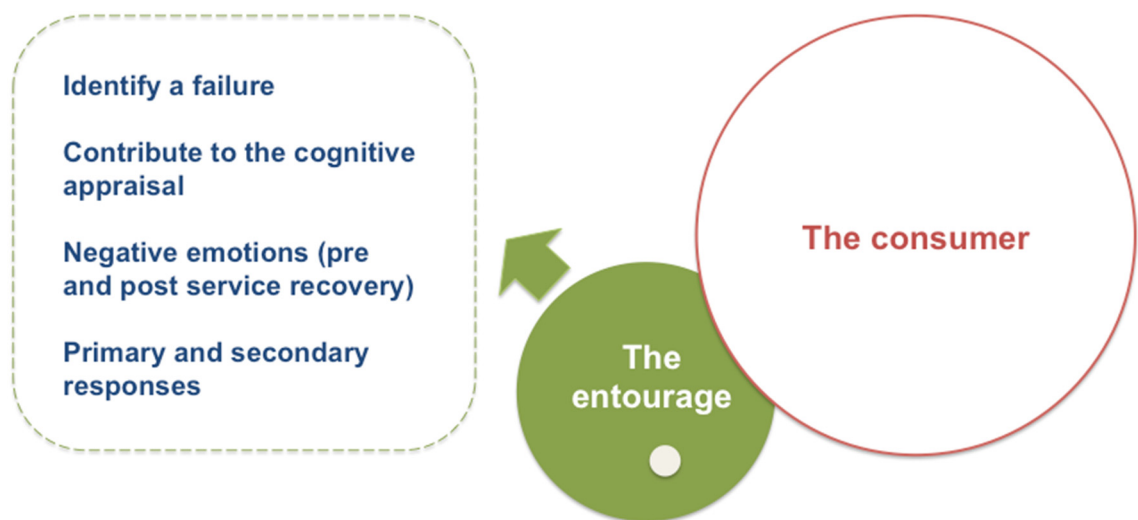
Figure 44: Complaint journey mapping of Rita_carrots



The holistic understanding of Rita's story as featured in the visual mapping shows that the role the entourage play within a CCB episode is not necessarily direct. That is, it is not compulsory that the interaction between the consumer and the entourage be verbal or physical. When any of the people dining together experience negative emotions such as anger, others on the same table might be affected as well, as in the case of Rita.

To sum up, the interaction between the consumer and the entourage can result in direct and indirect influence on the CCB process, negative emotions and responses. The entourage can initiate the service CCB process, contribute to the cognitive appraisal of the failure and stimulate both negative emotions and CCB responses. Figure 45 presents the interaction between the customer and the entourage.

Figure 45: The interaction between the consumer and the entourage



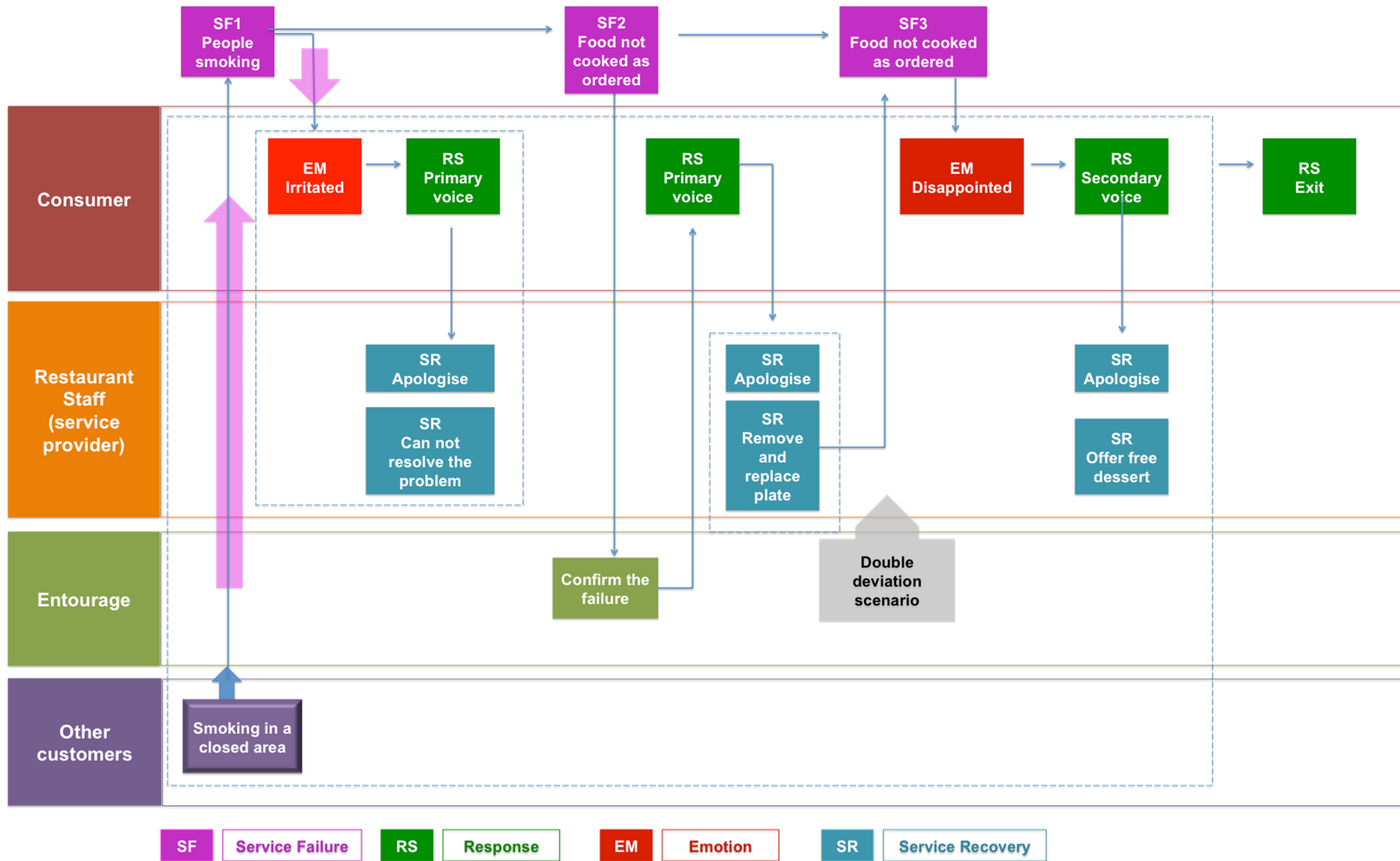
6.4 Other people dining at the restaurant and the consumer

Finally, there are the other people who are dining at the restaurant (referred to as other customers). The analysis of the 20 stories has shown that in certain situations these people play a role in stimulating negative emotions and CCB responses. Two examples will be presented in this section: (1) when the other customers are the source of the service failure such as in the case of Raffa (Raffa_blue) causing negative emotions and stimulating a CCB response and (2) when the other customers influence indirectly the CCB response and negative emotions for instance what happened with John (John_glass).

In particular, Raffa was having dinner with his fiancée and a friend. The people dining at a table next to them were smoking although the area was closed.

Figure 46 is the complaint journey mapping of Raffa_blue.

Figure 46: Complaint journey mapping of Raffa_blue



Hence, the behaviour of the people dining in the restaurant seated next to Raffa and his entourage stimulated the negative emotions (irritation). Also this same behaviour led Raffa to voice his complaint to the waiter. Therefore in this case, it is demonstrated that these people were the cause of the failure (physical evidence related failure) and consequently the stimulus of the negative emotions and the CCB response although there was no direct interaction between them and the customer.

However in John_glass, John explains that because the restaurant was full and because he perceived the other people dining in the restaurant to be older and of a higher social class, he felt embarrassed to further complain and decided to take no further action in order not to make a scene. The below vignette of John_glass presents the events and context of John's experience (Table 13).

Table 13: Vignette of John_glass

John_glass
<p>John was having dinner with a group of friends. At the end of the meal he ordered ice cream. The ice cream was served in a glass cup that was wide at the top and narrows down at the bottom. While he was half way through eating his ice cream, John felt that there was something hard in the ice cream. First he thought it was a frozen piece from the ice cream so he crushed it. As soon as he crushed it he realised that it was a piece of glass from the glass cup. It hurt his tongue and mouth and he was bleeding.</p> <p>At first he was confused about what had just happened. He directly spat out the glass and his friends saw him bleeding. At this point a waiter noticed that there was something wrong at their table and came to see what was wrong. John showed him the piece of glass. He explains that It wasn't a small piece, it was considerably big. By then they have noticed that the cup was broken. The waiter took the ice cream without apologising or offering help.</p> <p>John was worried, he was bleeding and he was thinking what if he had swallowed the piece of glass. He wasn't angry but worried. Did not know if he has to go to the hospital. He was in pain.</p> <p>After a while the manager came, he apologised but John says that the manager refused to admit the responsibility of the restaurant for the accident. He kept on saying that it is impossible that the piece of glass could have been from the cup. And he explained how they carefully make sure that everything is ok before serving. John was listening and thinking that the manager is making fun of him and that he is giving him unreasonable excuses. This made him feel angry.</p> <p>John did not argue much with the manager because he knew it would lead nowhere although his friends were pushing him to complain. But John did not want to.</p>

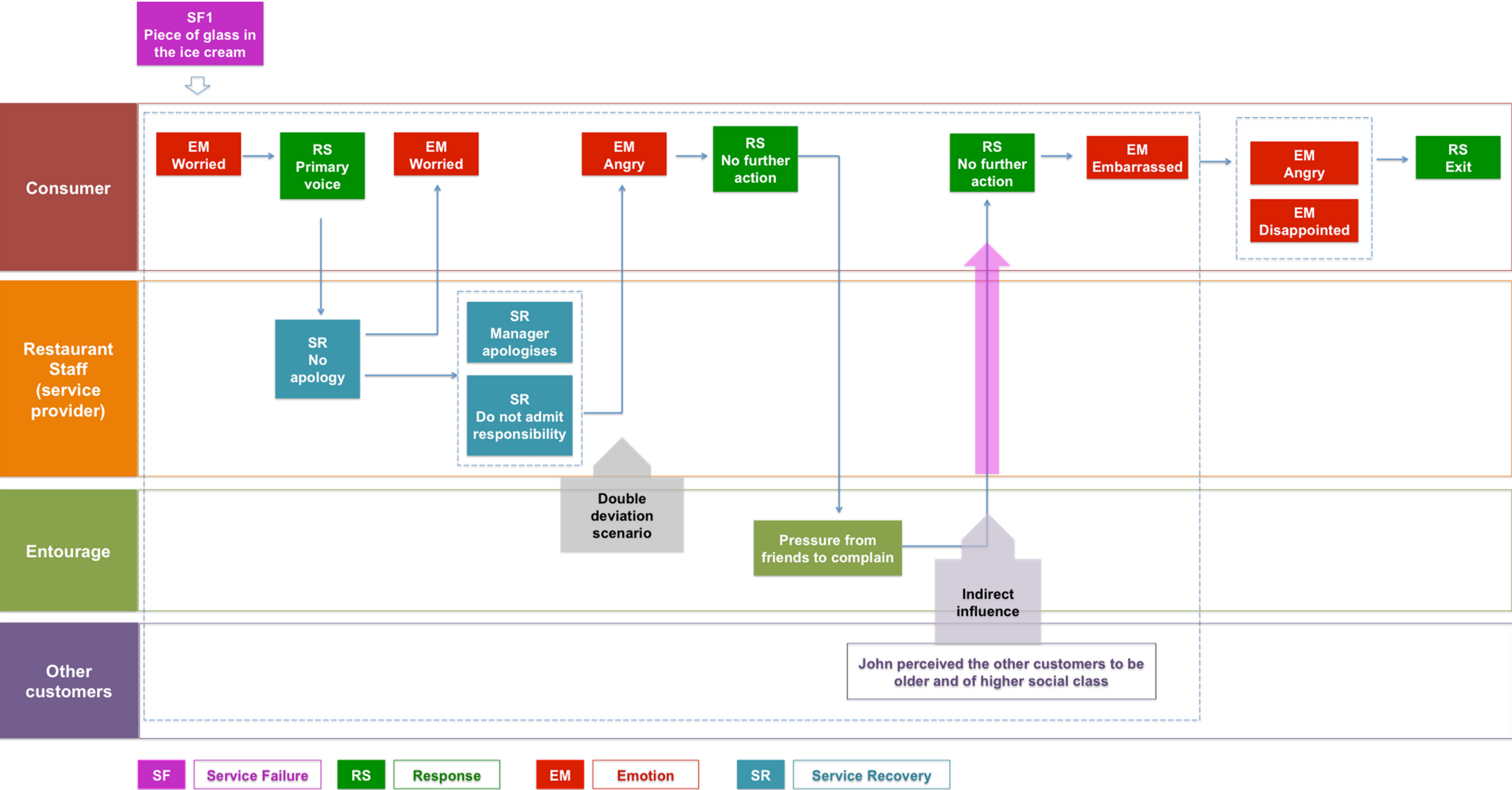
Besides John explains that the restaurant was full and the people in the restaurant were older and they looked to be of a high social class, so he did not want to make a scene. He felt embarrassed to argue.

He wasn't offered any apology or compensation. John was very angry and disappointed and decided to not go there again because they did not take responsibility for the problem and did not attempt to resolve the problem.

After he left he only told people about what happened to him to share his story and advise friends and family not to go there.

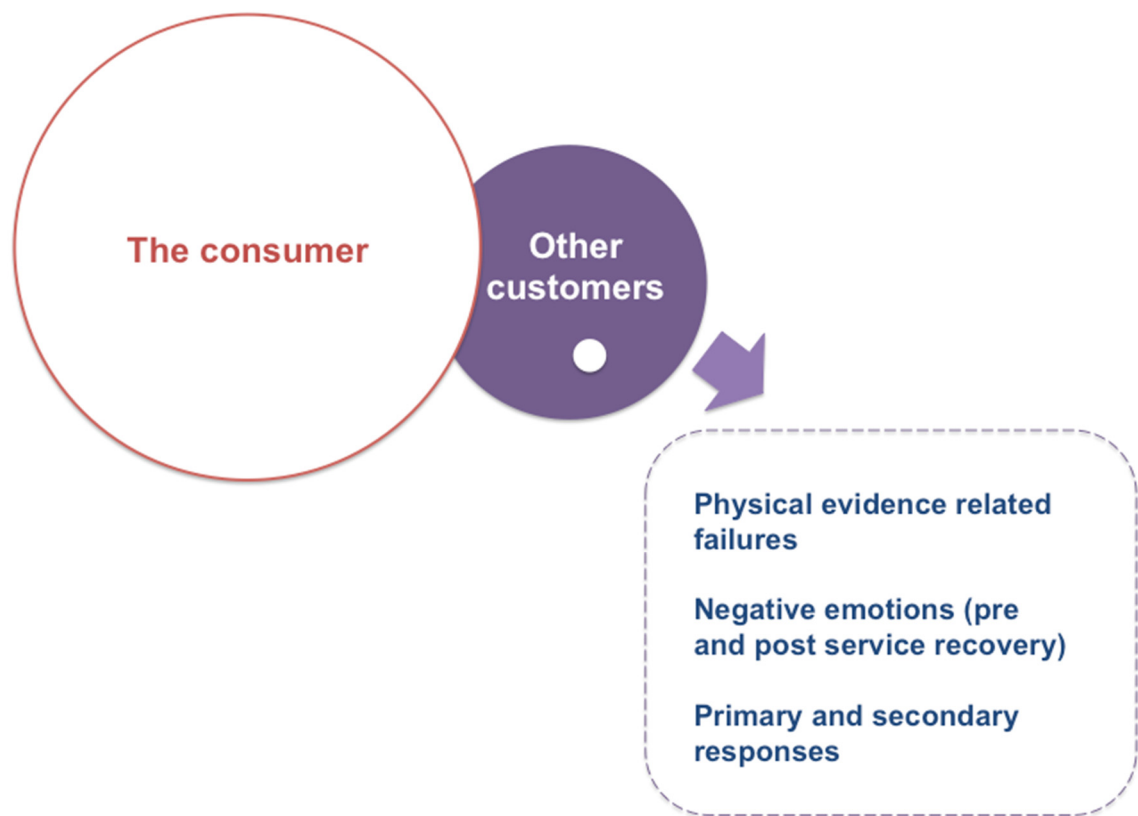
Similarly to the example of Raffa (Raffa_blue) and as the complaint journey mapping of John_glass (Figure 47) shows, the other customers indirectly played a role in stimulating negative emotions and CCB responses. John's emotions and response were influenced by the presence of these people. There was no direct interaction between them however it appears that John has individually appraised the entire context and responded accordingly. His negative emotions (embarrassment) were engendered because of the situation as a whole.

Figure 47: Complaint journey mapping of John_glass



In brief, Figure 48 shows how the interaction between the customer and the other customers dining in the restaurant influences the negative emotions and CCB responses.

Figure 48: The interaction between the consumer and the other customers dining in the restaurant



To sum up, so far the chapter has presented the findings from the analysis of the 20 stories that demonstrate how the continuous interaction throughout the entire CCB episode between the consumer on one side and the restaurant staff members, the entourage or the other customers on the other side influence the negative emotions, CCB responses and the CCB process. Hence, analysing the stories holistically and understanding the events within their natural setting and in the chronological order reported by the participants shows that these responses and emotions may vary throughout the entire dining occasion as a result of the ongoing interactions. Furthermore, the influence of the entourage and the other customers is both direct and indirect. That is, it is not crucial that a verbal or physical interaction exist between them in order to stimulate the negative emotions and responses.

In the following section, a model will be presented featuring the three main players in addition to the consumer: restaurant staff, entourage and other customers. The model will show the continuous interaction between these players throughout the dissatisfactory episode.

6.5 Social Interactions during a dissatisfactory incident

This section will summarise, through a model, the findings presented in the previous chapter and this chapter, mainly those pertaining to the roles the restaurant staff (service provider), the entourage and the other customers play throughout the entire dissatisfactory dining occasion. This model will extend the knowledge about the importance of the social factors within the CCB process. It will further shed light on how, in contexts where consumers experience services with others, the natural continuous interactions can influence (1) service failure, (2) cognitive appraisal, (3) negative emotions and (4) CCB responses (both primary and secondary).

The data has demonstrated that the service providers and the other customers dining in the restaurant can be the source of service failures: people-related and physical evidence-related failures relatively. On the other hand the entourage can help identify a failure. Furthermore, the CCB literature acknowledges that consumers assess failures using cognitive processes. The analysed data has shown that the entourage are involved in these cognitive processes precisely to confirm the validity of the failure before making any response. Participants like Ray, Jade and Raffa asked their friends to check whether they were accurate in their appraisal of the failure.

Additionally, as presented and discussed in the previous sections of this chapter, the continuous interactions between the consumer and the other identified players influence in various ways the negative emotions experienced as well as the CCB responses undertaken.

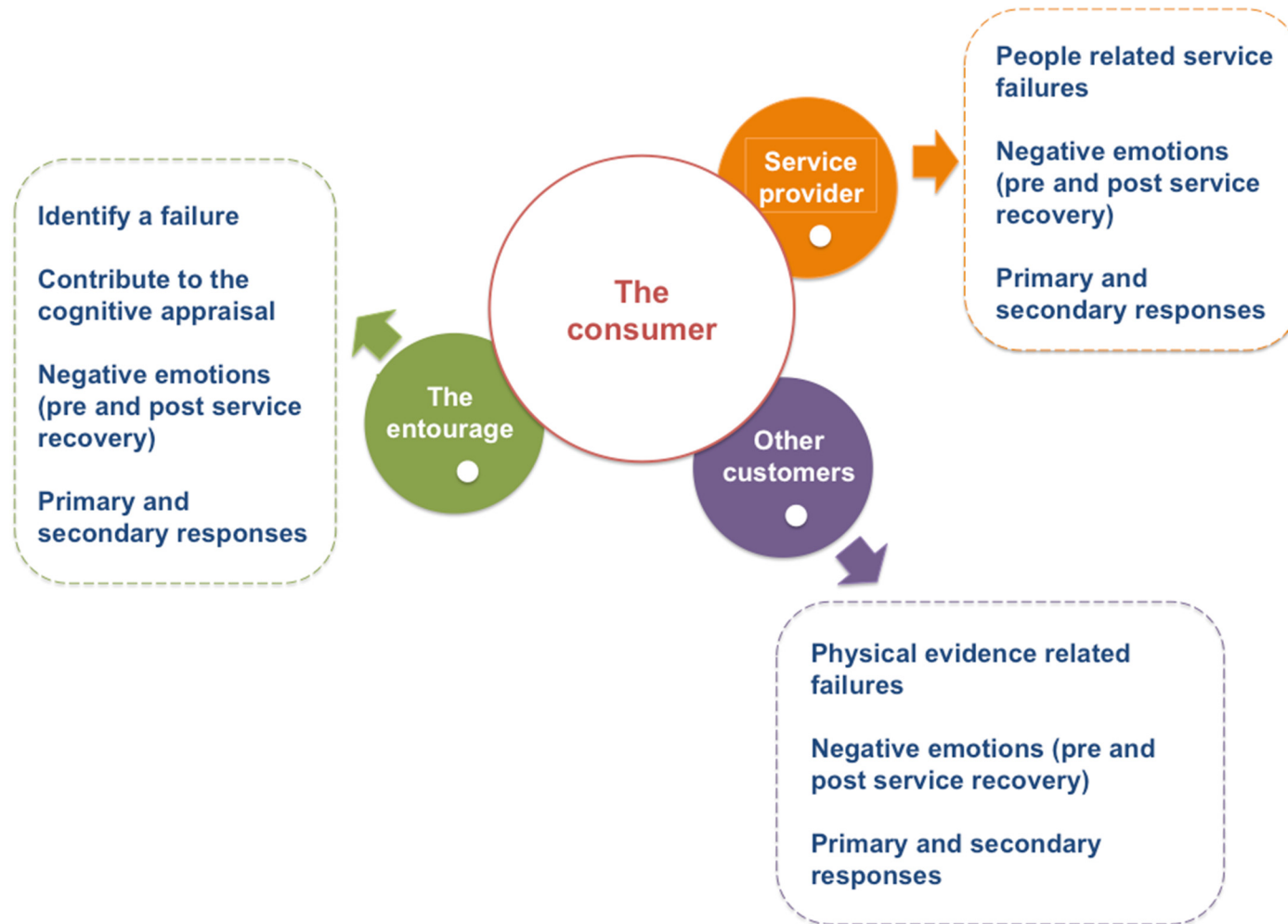
In particular, the behaviour of the restaurant staff members has a direct influence on the negative emotions and CCB responses. The influence of the entourage is in some cases direct, such as with Jade (her friends pushed her to complain), or indirect where the consumer chooses not to respond in order not

to make a scene, or feels embarrassed because of the presence of the entourage or even, as in Rita's story, feels angry because another person on the table is angry. Furthermore, as John explains, he felt embarrassed and decided not to complain further because he did not want to make a scene in front of the other people dining in the restaurant who he perceived as of a higher social class.

Not only do these interactions influence the negative emotions and the primary CCB responses, they also influence the emotions that are engendered after a service recovery has been attempted and the subsequent secondary CCB responses. In particular how consumers assess the performance of the restaurant staff members while handling the complaints influences directly the negative emotions and the secondary CCB responses. The entourage, on the other hand, directly influence the secondary CCB response by exerting pressure on the dissatisfied consumer to voice the complaint. The other customers, similar to pre-service recovery, have an indirect influence on the negative emotions (for example embarrassment) and CCB responses.

Figure 49 sums up in a model how the social interactions between the service provider, the entourage and other customers during the dissatisfactory episode influence the service failure, cognitive appraisal, the negative emotions and the CCB responses.

Figure 49: Interactions between the consumer, service provider, the entourage and other customers



6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter focused on the continuous social interactions that occur throughout the entire dining occasion between the consumer, the restaurant staff members (service provider), the entourage and the other customers. It demonstrated how these interactions influence directly or indirectly the negative emotions experienced and the CCB responses undertaken in addition to the role these entities play as being the source of the service failure and how they contribute to the cognitive appraisal process.

Furthermore, and in line with the aim of gaining a holistic understanding of the social dynamics that occur during a dissatisfactory dining occasion within its natural context, complaint journey visual mappings and vignettes of selected stories were featured demonstrating the continuous interactions between the customer on the one hand and the other three players on the other hand throughout the entire dining occasion, thus, addressing research question four (RQ4).

7.1 Overview of chapter

Chapters Five and Six have presented the findings related to the four research questions of this study. This chapter will move on to discuss these findings in light of the study objectives and the current literature on services and service failures, negative consumption emotions and CCB presented in the literature review chapters.

In particular, the findings of this study showed that the CCB process within a restaurant context has a social dimension where the interactions between the consumer, service provider and other customers (either dining with the consumer or in the restaurant) throughout the dining occasion influence the service failure, cognitive appraisal, negative emotions and CCB responses both directly and indirectly. Additionally, it revealed the negative emotions reported during dissatisfactory incidents within a restaurant context. Furthermore, it demonstrated that CCB responses have different variation such as voice, exit and NWOM responses. The findings also revealed, as reported by the participants, what stimulates both the negative emotions and CCB responses during a dissatisfactory dining occasion, hereby addressing the study's four research questions.

The findings of this current research have added to the body of literature relevant to this study and widened the understanding of CCB within a restaurant context. In particular the discussion of these findings in relation to the relevant literature will show that by following a qualitative methodological approach and exploring this phenomenon with a holistic view and in a natural setting, gaps in the literature can be addressed.

7.2 What negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

This section will present the negative emotions that the participants reported during their dissatisfactory dining occasion and discuss them within the existing literature on negative consumption emotions. These emotions reflect the subjective accounts of the participants' emotions in their stories, thus addressing the first research question of this study.

It is assumed in the literature that following a service failure, consumers experience negative emotions that may influence post purchase/consumption behaviours such as CCB responses (Kim et al., 2010; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Tronvoll, 2011; Watson & Spence, 2007; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). In relation to a restaurant context, the findings of this study extended the literature and asserted this assumption. All participants reported to have experienced negative emotions following the service failures they encountered during their dining experiences. In addition the analysis of the stories shows that these negative emotions influenced the CCB responses undertaken by the participants.

In particular, this study has revealed that within a restaurant context the most common negative emotions experienced as a result of service failures are: feeling fed up, disgust, anger and irritation, guilt, regret and embarrassment. Specifically, feeling fed up and disgust are relevant to service failures encountered at restaurants and similar contexts.

Fed up

Feeling fed up is a noteworthy type of negative emotion that emerged from the data. It has not been previously identified in the consumption negative emotions literature reviewed. However, this study acknowledged it as a negative emotion elicited during a CCB episode in restaurants because the participants expressed being fed up in certain situations and responded to the dissatisfaction because of this feeling. It can be either other or situational attributed based on the context of the incident and on the appraisal of the negative event.

The scarce literature around 'fed up' (or feeling fed up) links it to the state of mental satiation (Mojzisch & Schulz-Hardt, 2007). It occurs when one repeats or experiences the same action over and over again and thus exceeds the limits of one's satiation. This is confirmed as all participants who reported that they were fed up with the service providers or the situations experienced multiple service failures or multiple failed recovery attempts during the same dining occasion.

Additionally, these participants reported that due to feeling fed up, they chose to take no further action during their dining occasion. To further explain, they would voice their complaints when the first service failure occurred, but when more failures happen, they decide to do nothing in the restaurant. However, they would engage in NWOM or decide to terminate their relationship with the restaurant (exit) and switch providers. In this study, Nadz (Nadz_attitude) for example described that because she experienced multiple service failures and failed service recoveries she got fed up and decided not to take further action while still at the restaurant. But she said that she would never go again to that place (i.e. exit), and that she and her friends 'badmouthed' the restaurant and told family and friends about their dissatisfactory experience (i.e NWOM)

Usually the service is not good, but the food would be good. But this time neither the service nor the food was good, the long wait. I was so fed up I just didn't want to speak with them anymore. I felt it is of no use ... You know, honestly, already we waited for three hours; already they are giving us attitude. So I just wanted to leave, I just wanted to ask for the bill and leave. (Nadz_attitude)

Nadz's choice of CCB responses can also be explained within the likelihood of success construct. This refers to the perception of the dissatisfied consumer of how likely it is that the service provider or retailer will successfully solve the problem (Blodgett & Granbois 1992). Empirical results show that when the perception of likelihood of success is high, dissatisfied consumers are more likely to voice their complaints; whereas when it is low, they are more likely to exit and/or spread NWOM (Moliner-Velazquez et al., 2010; Singh, 1990a). Hence, after experiencing multiple failed service recovery attempts, Nadz felt fed up, her perception of the likelihood of success was low and thus she

decided not to voice her complaint further, exit (never go again to that restaurant) and say negative things about the restaurant to family and friends (NWOM). As this study demonstrates, feeling fed up is commonly associated with uninvolved responses. Singh (1988) and later Boote (1998) in their taxonomies of CCB responses differentiated between involved and uninvolved responses. Uninvolved responses are all responses that are not directed to the object involved in the dissatisfying encounter such as NWOM, exit, do nothing, and third party action.

Disgust

Disgust emerged in this study as a negative emotion applicable to a food context and relevant to a restaurant/dining experience. The literature is very limited around this specific emotion despite being related to food consumption. In this study in particular, disgust is a situation-attributed emotion where the participants reported to have felt disgusted because of elements in the situation such as food and lack of hygiene.

Approaching it as a food related emotion, Rozin and Fallon (1987, p.23) define disgust as follows: "Revulsion at the prospect of (oral) incorporation of an offensive object. The offensive objects are contaminants; that is, if they even briefly contact an acceptable food, they tend to render that food unacceptable". According to them when a person experiences disgust, he or she has a distinguished facial expression (commonly closing the nostrils and opening of the mouth), tries to get rid of the "offensive object", experiences nausea, and expresses dislike. There are three main categories based on which people reject food: (1) sensory-affective (for example bad taste or smell), (2) anticipation of harm after eating and (3) based on ideational factors (for example nature or origin of food).

The data confirms the literature and shows that participants who reported to have felt disgusted experienced product or physical evidence related failures and rejected the food based on one or more of the categories mentioned above. Specifically, they either found foreign objects in their food (for example hair, piece of napkin, fly), or there was a lack of cleanliness (for example dirt on plates, cups or cutlery), or the food smelled or tasted bad (for example, spoiled

food). In particular, they rejected the food either because they believed that consuming it would be harmful for their health (danger) or because the items in the food are not appropriate to consume (inappropriate). These motivations to rejection are also coherent with the four categories developed by Rozin and Fallon (1987): distaste, danger, inappropriate and disgust.

Additionally, Rozin and Fallon (1987) suggest that nausea is a physiological expression of disgust. In fact the participants who reported feeling disgusted explained that they felt nauseous as a result of the service failure they experienced.

Voicing the complaint directly to the service provider is the most recurrent response linked to disgust as reported by the participants. However as the participants explain this feeling not only led them to respond in a certain manner but it also affected their whole dining experience. For example they felt nauseous, lost their appetite, lost their motivation to continue their meal and it made them become more alert to failures. Hence, they became more vigilant and expecting a failure to occur as Grace expresses it in her story *Grace_lime water*.

And I was disgusted. Every time I looked at the glass I think, ok, what about the salad, if this is dirty from the outside what about the salad? What can there be that I can't see? (Grace_lime water)

This is a phenomenon that appears to be promising for future research especially within a restaurant context where the service experience is multi-dimensional, involves various stages and stretches over a period of time.

Anger and Irritation

Bougie et al. (2003) suggest that anger is strongly related to service failures and has a significant influence on the responses that follow. Generally, irritation is considered a mild form of anger and classified in the literature under anger (Diener et al., 1995; Laros and Steenkamp, 2005). In this study, almost all participants reported feeling either anger or irritation due to a service failure,

making these two emotions the most common to be experienced during a dissatisfactory restaurant incident.

In this study anger and irritation were treated as two distinct emotions based on how each of them influenced the CCB response. Hence, this study adds a criterion to differentiate between these emotions in addition to the arousal level recognised in the literature. These two negative emotions were perceived as either other-attributed (caused by others) or situational-attributed (caused by the situation). In particular, angry participants engaged in voicing their complaints directly to the service provider, spread negative word of mouth or boycott the restaurant. Bougie et al. (2003) explain that angry customers act aggressively, voice their complaints and engage in responses that help them feel that they *got back* at the provider and hurt it. Irritated participants, on the other hand, chose to take no action in most of the stories.

Guilt, regret and embarrassment

These three emotions emerged as self-attributed negative emotions. The participants who reported to have experienced these emotions blamed themselves for the negative incidents rather than others or the situation. In particular, guilt and embarrassment commonly occurred in the situations where the participants had invited guests for dining and service failures happened. The literature explains that when consumers are highly involved with a product/service or perceive it as important, their dissatisfaction with the failure intensifies and consequently their tendency to engage in CCB responses increases (Kim & Chen, 2010; Su & Bowen, 2001). Su and Bowen (2001) explain that during a special dining occasion dissatisfaction might be more intense than during a regular dine out. Hence when the participants were responsible for the choice or the recommendation of the restaurant and they had guests with them (that is they were highly involved and they perceived the occasion as important), they were dissatisfied, blamed themselves and consequently resorted to CCB responses such as voice, exit and NWOM.

To sum up, the findings of this study present additional confirmation that service failures and dissatisfying service encounters elicit negative emotions. It further identified a number of negative consumption emotions that might be

experienced by dissatisfied customers within restaurants contexts, specifically feeling fed up and disgust. The study widened the understanding of which CCB responses are commonly associated with the various negative emotions.

7.3 How do consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents encountered in restaurants?

This section will move on to discuss the actual responses consumers take following a dissatisfactory experience in light of the relevant literature, thus addressing the second research question of this study. Following an interpretivist approach and using qualitative methods to collect the data has allowed this study to capture the actual responses of the dissatisfied consumers within natural restaurant settings and not intentional behaviours.

In general the literature acknowledges five main types of response to dissatisfaction commonly referred to as CCB responses. These responses are: voice, exit, NWOM, third party and doing nothing. Since the early 1970s, a number of taxonomies have been proposed (Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Day, 1980; Day & Landon, 1977; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988) differentiating these responses between either behavioural or non-behavioural, private or public, involved or uninvolved and primary or secondary. However they all agree that dissatisfactory incidents trigger responses that are not mutually exclusive and can vary depending on personal and situational factors. This thesis classified the responses as primary or secondary following Boote's (1998) taxonomy taking into account the "redress boundary" which is the consumer's evaluation of the service provider's complaint handling and service recovery attempts.

In this study, the participants explained how they actually responded once they experienced the dissatisfactory incidents during their dining occasions.

Although it is a prevailing notion in the CCB literature that the majority of dissatisfied consumers do not take any action and prefer to stay silent (Andreassen, 2001; Singh & Pandya, 1991; TARP, 1996), the findings in this study showed that within a restaurant context voicing the complaint directly to the service provider is the most common response in addition to engaging in NWOM and terminating the relationship with the provider. This supports the

findings of Su and Bowen (2001) suggesting that in restaurants doing nothing is less frequent than voice in particular.

Voice

Furthermore, it emerged from this study that voicing a complaint directly to the service provider, whether it is primary or secondary, is the most common response compared to the other types of responses. These findings support earlier literature stating that for non-durable goods, consumers tend to voice their complaints more than for durable goods (Best & Andreasen, 1977; Day & Ash, 1979; Su & Bowen, 2001; Warland, et al., 1975). Additionally, this study demonstrated that there is a difference in the voice complaint when it is a primary response as opposed to when it is a secondary response based on whom it is directed.

The analysis of the data showed that following a service failure, the dissatisfied participants voiced their complaints first to the waiters/waitresses. Thus voice as a primary response is commonly directed towards the servers. Yet, in the incidents where the participants were not satisfied with the way their complaints were handled, they further voiced their complaint but to the supervisors or managers. Hence there was an escalation in the behaviour and the secondary voice response was directed to a higher authority. Naya in her story Naya_bubbly soda explains that after she and her friends complained to the waiter and she in turn refused to acknowledge the failure, they decided they needed to complain to the manager

We called the waitress and told her about it (service failure). She denied ... here one of my friends went and talked to the manager. (Naya_bubbly soda)

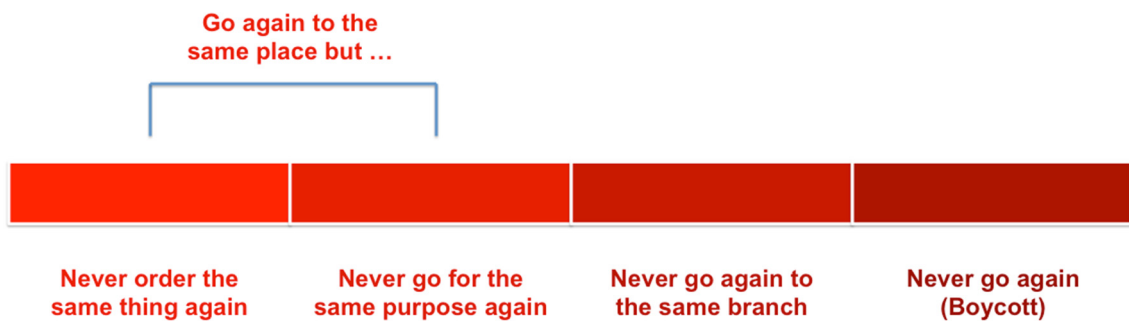
Boote (1998) in his taxonomy differentiates between primary voice complaints and secondary voice complaints, however it is not clear how they are different. This study widened this understanding and showed that dissatisfied consumers while still at the restaurant following a failed service recovery will take a higher order response directly towards the service provider. They elevate their voice complaint from the servers (primary response) to the managers (secondary

response) whom they perceive to have more authority and be more empowered to resolve the problem. Hence, in their endeavour with the secondary voice complaint, they perceive a higher likelihood of success for their complaint. Ozdemir et al. (2015) found in their study that dissatisfied consumers in restaurants took a “hierarchical approach” to voice. They started by voicing their complaints to the server, then to the manager and finally moved to the owner if they were not satisfied with the service recovery. This hierarchical approach resembles what the literature discusses as to how dissatisfied consumers move up to third party action after their attempts with the organisation to remedy their problem have failed (Kim et al., 2010; Singh, 1989). They choose to complain to a third party believing that because of the higher authority they have a better likelihood of success (Singh, 1989).

Exit

Furthermore, the findings demonstrated that the exit response was also a frequent primary and secondary response. In the literature, exit is known as the response where the dissatisfied consumer voluntarily chooses to terminate the relationship with the seller or service provider and switch to another provider (Crie, 2003; Day, 1980; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988). Hence, according to the literature reviewed exit means a total boycott of the brand, manufacturer, seller or service provider. However, this thesis revealed that the exit response in a restaurant context has four different variants and “overall” boycott is one of these variants that sit at one extreme (Figure 50).

Figure 50: The four variants of exit response



Depending on a number of stimuli such as the severity of the service failure and relationship of the consumer with the service provider, dissatisfied diners chose from a range of 'exit' responses. In some stories they expressed that despite the negative situation they experienced they would still go to the same restaurant but they (1) would not order the same dish again such as with Raffa_blue and Jade_sanfoura and (2) would not go there for the same purpose for instance to work (Joelle_slow service) or to organise a company social event (June_no service). Thus, the dissatisfied consumers in these two cases did not choose to leave the service provider altogether, although they might switch to other providers to fulfil certain dining purposes. These findings support what Best and Andreasen (1977) suggested that not all exit actions mean changing seller or brand patronage. Some exit actions refer to consumers changing their buying habits to avoid experiencing the same problem.

The data further shows that for restaurants that have more than one branch, the dissatisfied consumer might choose to only terminate the relationship with the branch where he/she experienced the service failure such as with Laura_pizza, Julz_sushi, and Grace_lime water. In these cases the consumers were returning consumers and they reported that they know the restaurants' standards, offerings and procedures. According to Gutek (2000) their relationship with the restaurant is a pseudo-relationship. They have a strong tie with the restaurant but not necessarily with a specific server. Based on this type of relationship, they can predict how their future experiences with the organisation will be but not with a specific employee or in this case branch. Additionally, the literature suggests that because of such relationships when

consumers experience service failures, they tend to be forgiving and blame the failure on chance (Mittal, Huppertz, & Khare, 2008; Yang & Mattila, 2012). This explains why these dissatisfied consumers would still go to the same restaurant but choose a different branch, in such a way, not terminating their relationship with the whole organisation.

At the end of the spectrum lies the 'never go again' variant of the exit response. This response involves the situations when the dissatisfied consumers decide that they will voluntarily terminate their relationship with the restaurant (service provider). This variant of 'exit' response is what is referred to in the literature as exit or boycott. Hirschman (1970) was the first to identify it as a possible response to dissatisfaction. Later it was included in all taxonomies of CCB responses. Day and Landon (1977) considered it as a private action, as did Singh (1988), Boote (1998) classified it as an uninvolved response that can be either primary or secondary and Crie (2003) labelled it as a behavioural response directed towards the market. All these classifications referred to completely ending the relationship with the seller or service provider. In this study, the dissatisfied diners who reported that they would never go again to the restaurant also expressed that the failures they experienced were severe such as with Pap_napkin, Nadz_attitude and John_glass.

These nuances of the exit response extend the literature and add to the understanding of this response especially within a restaurant context. As previously explained a restaurant experience is complex and involves more than the food served. Furthermore, it is common for restaurants to have more than one location each offering a distinctive experience. Thus, as this study revealed that if a consumer encounters a service failure in one dimension of the dining experience or at one of the many locations of the organisation, this does not necessarily imply that he/she will boycott the overall organisation.

Negative Word of Mouth (NWOM)

Spreading Negative Word of Mouth (NWOM) is another response to dissatisfaction. It is considered a private action or behaviour that is not directed towards or involves the service provider (Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Day & Landon, 1977; Emir, 2011; Lam & Tang, 2003; Singh, 1988). In this study

almost all the participants reported to have shared the stories of their dissatisfactory experiences with others whether they had voiced their complaints to the service provider or not. This supports earlier empirical findings showing that both complainers and non-complainers engage in NWOM (Bolfing, 1989; Kim & Chen, 2010; Voorhees et al., 2006).

However, the data identifies four different motives for engaging in NWOM: (1) to share my story with others, (2) to vent anger and frustration, (3) to advise friends and relatives not to go and (4) to say negative things about the restaurant to other people. These four motives vary in their intensity of aggression towards the service provider. When sharing the story with others and venting anger the dissatisfied consumer is not intentionally aiming at harming the service provider, whereas the act becomes more aggressive when he/she says negative things about the restaurant and advises others to boycott the place. These motives are distinct but are overlapping. Although the participants explained that when they shared their stories with family or friends or even told people about the dissatisfying incidents they did not intend to cause any harm to the organisation, however this harm can still happen indirectly and the message to boycott a place can still be communicated (even unintentionally). In the other two cases (say negative things about the place and advise others to boycott the restaurant) the participants explicitly reported that they wanted to hurt the organisation, a form of retaliation and getting even with them.

These motives support to some extent the motives classified by Sundaram, Mitra, and Webster (1998). Their four motives are: (1) altruism, (2) anxiety reduction, (3) vengeance and (4) advice seeking. Engaging in NWOM helps as this study and as Sundaram et al. (1998) found to reduce anger and anxiety. These participants explained that they were feeling angry and wanted to express their emotions. Furthermore, advising others not to go to the restaurant where they experienced the dissatisfactory incident resembles altruism. Participants such as Ray_black, John_glass, and Naya_bubbly soda perceived the failure(s) they experienced as severe and wanted to warn others not to go to that restaurant again. However, along with saying negative things about the restaurant, advising others to avoid the restaurant serves as vengeance. For

instance, Jade_halloume, Nadz_attitude, and Grace_lime water explained that they intended to say negative things about the restaurant and harm its reputation.

Basically this place is known to be a very well known restaurant in the middle of down town. So, yes, honestly we really badmouthed it a lot.
(Nadz_attitude)

In this study the most recurrent motive to spread NWOM was to tell others what they experienced. The participants explain that they were not intending to advise others not to go to the restaurant, say bad things about the place or vent their anger. They just wanted to share their dissatisfactory stories. In some of these incidents the participants were even satisfied with how the service providers handled their complaint such as with Jade_sanfoura; yet they still shared their negative experience.

I told some friends because they said they wanted to go eat there. I told them what happened and I told them the negative and positive.
(Jade_sanfoura)

More recent literature refers to the electronic NWOM and complaining online especially with the advancement in information and digital technology. In this study using social networking sites or online platforms to complain did not emerge as a recurrent theme. In only one out of the 20 stories did a participant resort to a social networking sites (Facebook) to share her dissatisfactory incident. In accord with what Ward and Ostrom (2006) argue, this dissatisfied consumer engaged in public electronic NWOM after the restaurant failed to properly address her complaint in an offline setting. In this case she used her personal Facebook page to tell her friends on Facebook about what happened to her. This raises an important question: is this act a private or a public response? This is an area that appears to be worthy of investigation in future research.

Retaliation

Boote (1998) included retaliation in his taxonomy of responses to dissatisfaction as a secondary response. Huefner and Hunt (2000, p.63) define it as “You got me. I got you back. Now we’re even.” Therefore it is an aggressive behaviour that the dissatisfied consumer engages in with the intention of getting even with the organisation. In this thesis, the dissatisfied consumers expressed retaliation by not leaving tips for the servers. These consumers experienced people related failures specifically linked to the behaviour and attitude of the waiters/waitresses.

Layla (Layla_latte) was angry at how the waiter treated her friends and her. Although they chose not to voice their complaint to the waiter about his attitude, at the end of their meal they decided not to leave him a tip. Whereas with Naya (Naya_bubbly soda) she did not leave a tip because she was dissatisfied with how the restaurant staff (waitress and manager) handled her complaints. She and her friends experienced multiple failures, some of which she perceived as severe, yet even after voicing her complaints first to the waitress serving them and then to the manager, her problems were not resolved.

As Huefner and Hunt (2000) explain retaliation is cathartic from the consumer’s perspective. It helps them feel that they achieved “a state of psychological equity” (Phau & Baird, 2008; p. 591). Therefore, these findings extended the literature to show that retaliation is not only directed towards the organisation (hurting the organisation) but also towards the individual staff members. The act of not leaving a tip primarily negatively affects the servers.

No action/No further action

Doing nothing or taking no action was first recognised by Day and Landon’s (1977) classification of CCB responses. Boote (1998) classifies ‘no action’ as a primary uninvolved response and no further action as a secondary uninvolved response. In this thesis, no action and no further action refer to the incidents where the participants following a service failure chose to take no direct action towards the service provider while still at the restaurant.

These responses occur along other types of responses such as exit and NWOM. For instance Laura (Laura_pizza) chose to take no action while she was in the restaurant but later she engaged in NWOM and expressed that she will never go again to the same restaurant branch (exit). Furthermore, in the case of multiple failures happening during the same dining occasion, it is common that the participants choose to take no action regarding one failure but voice a complaint following another failure. Ray (Ray_black spot) did nothing when the service was slow and voiced her complaint when her glass was dirty.

In this study a number of stimuli emerged to be associated with the 'no action' response. These stimuli among others will be discussed within the context of the relevant literature in Section 7.4. Mainly dissatisfied consumers who chose not to take any action as a primary response perceived the failure not to be severe. CCB responses are influenced by the intensity of dissatisfaction (Singh & Pandya, 1991). If the intensity of dissatisfaction is perceived as low, consumers will not engage in responses that require effort such as voice. Also when consumers attributed the failure to themselves (blamed themselves for the failure), did not think the service provider was responsible for the failure or could solve it (attribution), they chose to take no action. Attribution may influence the CCB response. Consumers who blame themselves for the dissatisfaction or believe the organisation has no control over the failure usually take no action in response to the failure (Su & Bowen, 2001; Phau & Sari, 2004). Furthermore, the dissatisfied consumers who chose to take no action reported to have been influenced by the other customers dining with them on the table or the other customers in the restaurant. These stimuli will be elaborated in Section 7.5.

However, when the dissatisfied consumers decide to take no further action (secondary response), the data has demonstrated that it is associated with them feeling fed up after experiencing multiple failures or multiple failed recoveries during the same dining occasion. Furthermore it can be also explained within the construct of likelihood of success.

As explained in the previous section, feeling fed up is linked to mental satiation (Mojzisch & Schulz-Hardt, 2007). Therefore in stories such as Nadz_attitude, Ray_black spot, Layla_latte and Joelle_no service, the multiple service failures left the consumers feeling fed up and not wanting to take any further action while at the restaurant. In other words they gave up.

I was not satisfied at all. So I didn't bother anymore. Already I wasn't satisfied. I don't want to put more effort. I consider that I have given him so many chances and that is it. (Layla_latte)

In addition to feeling fed up, when consumers experience multiple failed recoveries during the same dining occasion their perception of the likelihood of success of their complaint becomes low. Therefore they decide to do nothing further while at the restaurant. But this does not imply that they did not engage in other forms of responses outside the restaurant like NWOM and exit. This supports the literature which assumes that when the likelihood of success is low, dissatisfied consumers are less likely to voice their complaints and more likely to spread NWOM and exit (Singh, 1990; Moliner-Velazquez et al., 2010).

To conclude, the findings of this study extended the literature regarding the classification of CCB responses: voice, exit, NWOM and doing nothing. It further distinguishes between voice as primary response and as a secondary response depending on the hierarchy in the organisation it is directed to. It also identifies variation in the exit response where they range from change in buying habits to a complete boycott of the organisation. Additionally it recognises a number of motives for spreading NWOM showing that not all motives aim at harming the organisation. Furthermore, taking no action as a primary response and taking no further action as a secondary response are stimulated by different factors. They exist alongside other responses that the dissatisfied consumers choose to take outside the restaurant. In addition to these responses, this study widened the understanding of consumer retaliation within a restaurant context and gave an example of how it is expressed. However, in this thesis, third party response did not emerge as a CCB response. This is in accord with what Jones et al. (2002) believe that third party actions are irrelevant in restaurants. Additionally there can be a number of explanations (as introduced in Chapter 5)

for this phenomenon, especially in a Lebanese context, that could be addressed in future research.

7.4 What stimulates these negative emotions and CCB responses?

So far this chapter has discussed the findings addressing research questions one and two, particularly the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken following dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants. This section will present and discuss within the relevant literature what stimulates these negative emotions and responses as reported by the participants (RQ3).

The literature suggests there is a link between negative emotions and post purchase behaviours such as CCB responses (Bougie et al., 2003; Moliner-Velazquez & Fuentes Blasco, 2012; Stephens & Gwinner, 1998). According to the cognitive appraisal theory, emotions are engendered following the consumer's appraisal of an event (Donoghue & de Klerk, 2013; Lazarus, 1991; Soscia, 2007). During primary appraisal, individuals evaluate the event based on goal relevance, goal congruence/incongruence and goal content. Secondary appraisal includes blame or credit, coping potential and future expectations (Lazarus, 1991). However Lazarus (1991) indicates that primary appraisal in addition to the blame or credit are sufficient to explain the generation of emotions and to differentiate them. Blame or credit refers to knowing who is responsible for the harm or benefit and thus relates to attribution. Additionally, attribution has been acknowledged in the literature as a trigger to CCB responses (Bolfing, 1989; Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Day, 1984; Singh, 1990; Weiner, 2000). It has three dimensions: responsibility, stability and controllability. The evaluation of a negative event based on these three dimensions influences the type of CCB response.

Attribution

The data in this research has revealed that attribution is a recurrent stimulus for negative emotions and CCB responses. When the participants blamed themselves for the failure (although they did not cause the failure, the restaurant did) such as Julz in his story Julz_night they experienced the self-attributed negative emotions guilt, regret and embarrassment. Consequently, the most common CCB response reported was choosing to do nothing. This is

in line with the findings of Phau and Sari (2004) who suggest that when consumers blame themselves for the dissatisfaction they do not take any action.

However when the consumers blamed the service provider for the failure, other-attributed emotions were commonly experienced, specifically anger. These dissatisfied consumers like Jade in her story Jade_halloume and Pap in his story Pap_napkin voiced their complaints directly to the service provider and engaged in NWOM and/or exit.

This thing I don't accept at all. He is responsible for this. If a hair fell, I would excuse him and accept his apology. But paper? While he is drying his hands and the plate is under his hands and the paper fell in the plate, I don't pardon him at all! The whole procedure in the restaurant is wrong.
(Pap_napkin)

Stability and controllability are the other dimensions of attribution and they were also found to influence negative emotions and CCB responses. Specifically when consumers perceived that the service providers have no control over the failure they chose to take no action and did not report to have experienced any negative emotions. However, when they believed that the restaurant could have avoided the failure they reported to have been irritated and disappointed and consequently voiced their complaints. This further supports the literature that assumes that when dissatisfied consumers believe the service provider could have avoided the failure, they are more likely to engage in some form of CCB response (Crie, 2003; Su & Bowen, 2001).

Furthermore, when the consumers evaluated the situation and believed that the failure happens regularly such as in the case of Raffa_blue they chose to exit and they reported to have experienced disappointment, irritation and regret. These findings are aligned with the literature suggesting that consumers who perceive the problem to be permanent tend more to spread NWOM and boycott the provider (Blodgett et al., 1995; Matos et al., 2009; Su & Bowen, 2001).

Failure traits

The characteristics of the failure have also emerged as prevailing stimuli for negative emotions and CCB responses. The failures vary in their perceived severity ranging from mild to severe. The data has further showed that the severity of the failure directly influences the intensity of dissatisfaction and the arousal level of negative emotions. For example in the stories where the participants reported that the failures they encountered were not severe they also reported that they were only mildly irritated and consequently chose to take no action in response to the dissatisfaction. These failures were commonly process related failures such as slow service. Precisely, the consumption emotions literature explains that during the primary appraisal phase, consumers appraise the goal congruence or incongruence of the negative event. If their evaluation is goal congruent, it means that they believe the situation is not harmful and consequently no negative emotions are experienced (Nyer, 1997). Therefore, when the consumers evaluated the failures as not severe, they also evaluated the situation as not harmful and consequently no negative emotions were evoked and they chose not to engage in any form of CCB responses.

However, the perceived intensity of dissatisfaction was high when the participants believed that the service failures were severe. As a result they experienced negative emotions such as anger and disgust. Examples of these failures included lack of hygiene (in cutlery and environment) or finding foreign objects in food. The participants believed that these failures were harmful and threatening to their wellbeing. Hence, they evaluated the events as goal incongruent; harmful; and consequently as Nyer (1997) suggests, in such encounters negative emotions are aroused.

The consumers encountering these events not only voiced their complaints directly to the service providers but also chose to spread NWOM and/or exit. These findings broadly support the literature stating that the intensity of dissatisfaction influences CCB responses (Bolfing, 1989; Singh & Pandya, 1991; Su & Bowen, 2001). Singh and Pandya (1991) specifically use the term “threshold effect” to explain that as the level of dissatisfaction increases and surpasses the threshold consumers are more willing to engage in CCB responses that require effort such as voice. They further explain that when the

dissatisfaction intensity is high (for example the failure is severe) consumers might choose to combine private, public and third party responses. This was evident in all the stories where the participants perceived the failure to be severe. They voiced their complaints directly to the restaurant staff members (public), engaged in NWOM (private) and chose a form of exit response (private). In this study as explained earlier and contrary to what the literature suggests in similar situations no third party actions was reported.

In addition to the severity of the failure, the data has demonstrated that the number of failures occurring during the same dining occasion act as a stimulus for negative emotions and CCB responses. In particular, participants who encountered multiple failures reported to have experienced negative emotions such as anger and feeling fed up. With regards to CCB responses, it is noticeable that these participants voiced their complaints when they first started encountering the failures, however when they realised that the failures were accumulating they chose to take no further action while still at the restaurant. Nevertheless, they engaged in NWOM and ended their relationship with the restaurant (exit). Maxham III and Netemeyer (2002) found that when consumers experience multiple failures they tend to evaluate the second failure as more severe than the first one. Additionally they held the service provider responsible for the failures and perceived them as stable. This links back to attribution and the severity of the failure that were discussed earlier and how they stimulate strong negative emotions and CCB responses such as NWOM and/or exit.

The theme multiple failures also involved perceived multiple failed recoveries. Once the dissatisfied participant has voiced her/his complaint, the service provider attempts to rectify the failure. On occasions where the participants perceive the service recovery as ineffective, they are dissatisfied and consequently engage in secondary CCB responses. This is referred to in the literature as perceived justice (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992) or a double deviation scenario. The consumers appraise these situations as extremely stressful and consequently negative emotions such as anger are elicited (Casado-Díaz et al., 2007). Furthermore when the consumer experiences multiple failed recoveries the repetitiveness of the failure leads to feeling fed up.

Multiple failed recoveries and the emotions and CCB responses experienced as a result of this can be also explained within the likelihood of success factor. This factor was acknowledged by the literature to have an influence on CCB responses (Bodey & Grace, 2007; Bolting, 1989; Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Jacoby & Jaccard, 1981; Singh, 1990). Consumers tend to voice their complaints if they believe that there is a high likelihood of success of their complaint. Conversely when they believe the likelihood of success to be low they are more prone to take no action directly towards the seller or service provider but engage in NWOM and/or exit. In particular, the data shows that when the participants encountered multiple failed recoveries they formed the belief that the service provider would not resolve their problem effectively (low likelihood of success) so they opted to take no further action directly towards the service provider but they spread NWOM and chose to exit.

Attitude towards complaining

Attitude towards complaining (ATC) is another stimulus of CCB responses. The data did not imply a direct association between ATC and negative emotions experienced. The participants who expressed that it is their right to complain and that they always complain following a service failure are categorised as having a positive ATC, whereas those who reported that they usually don't like to complain are considered as having a negative ATC. Consequently the participants with positive ATC commonly voiced their complaints directly to the service provider. Those who have negative ATC refrained from voicing their complaints directly and preferred to engage in NWOM and/or exit. This broadly supports the literature suggesting that individuals with a positive ATC are most likely to voice their complaint whereas individuals with negative ATC choose private responses such as NWOM and exit (Blodgett et al., 1997; Bodey & Grace, 2007; Yuksel et al., 2006).

However, the data has demonstrated that ATC alone does not explain why the dissatisfied consumers chose to undertake a certain CCB response. Even though an individual has a negative ATC such as participant Jade, he/she might choose to voice the complaint. Jade has explicitly expressed that she usually does not like to complain or engage in confrontations. However she found herself in two situations voicing her complaints directly to the service provider.

In the first situation the severity of the failure, the high intensity of the dissatisfaction and her evaluation of the situation as harmful drove her to complain to the waiter despite her loath of complaining. The influence of these factors on CCB responses has been discussed earlier. In the second situation the pressure from the other people dining with her at the same table forced her to complain. This factor will be later discussed in this chapter. These findings extend within a service context what Lervik-Olsen, Andreassen, and Streukens, (2016) concluded in their recent empirical study: that dissatisfied consumers go through a rigorous mental appraisal of the situation and do not depend on their attitude of complaining when deciding to complain or not. Also this study presents further confirmation to an earlier assumption in the CCB literature that there is not a single trigger for CCB responses but usually a number of personal, situational and social factors are involved to explain this phenomenon (Bodey & Grace, 2006; Boote, 1998; Crie, 2003; Thøgersen et al., 2009).

Other situational stimuli

The data has revealed that in addition to the failure trait, other factors related to the situation (dining occasion) act as stimuli for negative emotions and CCB responses. The behaviour and attitude of the service providers (restaurant staff) commonly elicit negative emotions and trigger CCB responses. Additionally, there are self-related factors that involve issues related to the participant within the situation. These factors will be further discussed in the next section of this chapter when addressing the social dynamics within a dissatisfactory incident.

Loyalty

The literature suggests that customer loyalty can also influence CCB responses. Kim et al. (2014; p 889) refer to it as the “customer’s emotional attachment towards a certain service provider”. They argue that this emotional attachment influences CCB responses. The data has demonstrated evidence that the relationship between the consumer and the restaurant influences the CCB responses. In this study this relationship is categorised as explained by the participants being either first timer, returning customer or loyal customer.

When loyal consumers such as Mia (in her story Mia_quatro) encountered service failures, they were forgiving and did not engage in harmful uninvolvement responses such as NWOM, exit or third party action. Mia for example, although she experienced multiple failures during her dinner, reported that she did not spread NWOM and definitely is returning to this restaurant. However, she voiced her complaints directly to the waiters after each failure. Furthermore, she said that she was only mildly irritated by the failures. Mia explained that she and her family have a strong relationship with this organisation.

We consider this restaurant as the kitchen at our house. We are used to it. Every Friday and Saturday we take the kids there. They play and have fun. Maybe the restaurant staff gets annoyed with us. That is why we are ok with such problems. (Mia_quatro)

These findings widen the existing literature within a restaurant context and support the assumption that loyal customers with a strong emotional bond with the service provider are more lenient when faced with a service failure. They would voice their complaints directly to the service providers as Kim et al., (2014) earlier suggested, but they would not spread NWOM as frequently (Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Zhang et al., 2014).

Social element

In addition to all the stimuli discussed in this section, the data has revealed that negative emotions and CCB responses are also influenced by the ongoing interaction throughout the dining occasion between the consumer on one side and the service provider, the other people dining with the consumer on the same table (the entourage) and the other customers in the restaurant. These stimuli will be further discussed in the next section of this chapter.

To sum up, when consumers encounter service failures in restaurants, negative emotions and CCB responses are stimulated. In line with CCB literature, although dissatisfaction is necessary, it is not sufficient to generate CCB responses. Other factors or stimuli should be present. Additionally the cognitive appraisal of a stressful event elicits negative emotions. The study has revealed that failure traits, attribution and consumer loyalty are common stimuli of

negative emotions and CCB responses. In addition the attitude towards complaining can explain the choice of CCB responses. However it was not found to influence negative emotions. Other social stimuli related to the ongoing interaction between the consumer and service provider and between the consumer and other customers will be discussed in the next section.

7.5 How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

When researching CCB in services the literature acknowledges the relationship between the behaviour of the service providers and the consumer's complaint responses (e.g Bitner et al.; 1990; Blodgett & Granbois, 1992; Boote, 1998). However, until very recently the influence of other customers present with the focal consumer at the time of the service failure on the complaint behaviour has been neglected. Malafi (1991) presented a conceptual paper speculating how informal social influence impacts CCB responses. Almost 20 years later, Yan and Lotz (2009) investigated how other customers influence CCB. The reviewed literature relevant to this thesis identifies only a few published works that tackle this topic directly (Huang et al, 2014; Wei et al., 2012). Other papers investigate the influence of other customers on issues such as the service experience, customer satisfaction and word of mouth. This thesis, by addressing research question four presents findings demonstrating how the social dynamics that occur during dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process. These findings will expand the CCB literature by understanding the social factor involved in addition to the already acknowledged factors.

During a service encounter interactions happen between service providers and consumers, consumer and elements in the environment and between the consumer and other customers. These interactions are continuous and stretch throughout the duration of the service encounter (Wu, 2008). Zhang et al. (2010) found that the influence of other customers is the highest in restaurants among other service industries investigated. Tombs and Mccoll-kennedy (2003) explain that in services (for example restaurants) the consumer's experience is influenced to a larger extent by the other individuals present such as the service providers and/or other customers more than the physical setting.

The findings of this study have revealed that the social element is present in a CCB process and understanding it can explain negative emotions and responses. Consumers in a service context, as this study has also demonstrated, do not usually consume in isolation and share the service environment with other customers (Colm et al., 2017). Therefore, as this research has shown, the ongoing interactions (directly or indirectly) between the focal consumer and the other individuals present during the dissatisfactory service encounter (service providers and other customers) influence elements of the CCB process, the negative emotions experienced and the post-consumption responses undertaken.

A restaurant service encounter is complex in nature and multi-dimensional. It includes in addition to the food, the service, the atmosphere and the social interaction with other customers (Ozdemir et al., 2015). One of its main characteristics is inseparability: meaning that the consumer and employee together make the product (Kotler et al., 2014). Trovoll (2007) argues that the service experience is driven by the ongoing interaction between the service provider and the consumer. Crie (2003) explained that CCB is the result of a dynamic interaction and relationship between four elements: the product or service, the dissatisfactory incident, the customer and the service provider. Hence, the relationship between the customer and the service provider is core to the service experience and the CCB process.

Consumer-service provider interaction

In this research it has emerged that when consumers evaluate the behaviours and attitudes of the service providers and how they respond to failures or complaints as dissatisfactory they perceive them as service failures. These failures were categorised under people-related service failures. In particular, rudeness, unprofessionalism, disrespect, inefficiency, lack of organisation and inattentiveness are some of the behaviours that left the customers dissatisfied. Bitner et al., (1990) found that what causes dissatisfaction within a service encounter are not only the initial failures but also how the service providers respond to failures. They explain that the appraisal of these behaviours and attitudes leads to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Furthermore, it is evident that in all the literature reviewed in this thesis relevant to service failures, failures that are related to service providers are recurrent. For instance, rude/unfriendly service (Su & Bowen, 2001), inappropriate staff behaviour (Ozdemir et al., 2015), responsiveness, courtesy, professionalism, credibility and competency (Loo et al., 2013) are some of these failures identified in the literature.

These service failures that consumers relate to the service providers (employees) consequently impact the negative emotions experienced and the CCB responses undertaken in a dissatisfactory restaurant encounter. In this research the participants reported that the behaviour of the staff while serving them and their performance when attempting to recover the failed service were stimulants to negative emotions and CCB responses. In a consumption context, negative emotions and post-consumption responses are believed to be generated following a dissatisfying incident (service failure) (Kim et al., 2010; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Yi & Baumgartner, 2004; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

Mainly participants such as John, in his story John_glass, expressed that because of these dissatisfactory interactions with the service providers, they experienced anger, disappointment and feeling fed up. According to Voorhees et al. (2006) consumers who are dissatisfied with the recovery attempts are more likely to experience strong negative emotions such as anger.

I didn't care for the money, but he treated me in a very bad way and this annoyed me. (John_glass)

Furthermore, the data showed that the diners dissatisfied with the behaviour of the service providers chose to take no action while still in the restaurant but reported to have engaged in NWOM and/or choose a form of exit after leaving the restaurant. Hence, they did not engage in involved responses and chose uninvolved responses that did not put them in direct confrontation with the service providers. The reason why they chose less confrontational responses in a restaurant context appears to be an intriguing area for future research.

Additionally, the service recovery and perceived justice literature explains that the consumer's appraisal of the organisation's remedial activity influences what Boote (1998) refers to as the post-redress responses. Mattila and Wirtz (2004) explain that the evaluation of the service recovery influences post purchase behaviours. Therefore, it can be inferred that the likelihood of success construct might explain the choice of uninvolved responses by the dissatisfied consumers. According to Kim et al. (2010) dissatisfied consumers might choose to do nothing, exit, spread NWOM or complain to a third party. These responses are commonly secondary responses that consumers would undertake when they believe that the likelihood of success of their complaint to the service provider is low. It is important to note here that the data demonstrated that people-related failures by themselves were not direct triggers for CCB responses such as voice, exit and NWOM. They had to occur with other types of failures to induce these responses.

Consumer-other customers interaction

In addition to the service providers, other customers present at the time of the service encounter are found to influence the service experience, either positively or negatively. Although the social surrounding or other customers have been recognised as part of the service encounter as early as the mid 1970s (as discussed in Chapter 3) little has been understood about their influence on the focal consumer (Zhang et al., 2010). The interaction between customers present in the same surrounding is emerging as a recurrent phenomenon especially in industries such as retail, leisure, hospitality, travel and education (Fakharyan, Omidvar, Khodadadian, Jalilvand, & Nasrolahi Vosta, 2014). Thus, understanding customer-to-customer interaction (CCI) has recently become significantly important in service research (Albrecht, 2016). However, as mentioned earlier, little is known about the influence of other customers on the complaint behaviour in particular. This study adds to the body of knowledge regarding CCI and CCB and addresses a gap in the literature by understanding the influence of other customers present at the time of the service encounter on the CCB process.

Two categories of other customers have been identified in this study. The first group includes the customers dining with the focal consumer and they are referred to as the entourage. The second group includes the other customers dining at the restaurant at the time of the dissatisfactory service encounter, referred to as other customers. Both categories play an important role in the CCB process. They influence the cognitive appraisal of the dissatisfactory encounter, the negative emotions experienced and responses undertaken.

Huang and Wang (2014) differentiate between intergroup and intra-group interactions during a service experience. Yan and Lotz (2009) similarly grouped the other customers based on their relationship with the focal consumer: acquainted customers and unacquainted customers. Wei et al., (2012) used the term “co-consumption others” to refer to people sharing the consumption experience with the consumer and that includes friends, family or colleagues. This study, as mentioned earlier, categorises the others customer as entourage or other customers.

Furthermore, the data has demonstrated that the other customers (entourage and other customers) can influence the CCB process by direct and/or indirect interactions with the focal consumer. Direct interaction occurs when there is direct contact and involves interpersonal interactions such as confrontation and/or conversation, whereas indirect interaction happens by the mere presence of the other customers (Martin & Pranter, 1989; Zhang et al., 2010). Both the direct and indirect interactions between customers sharing the same social environment have a strong impact on the evaluation of the service experience (Martin, 1996).

The entourage

This study widens the knowledge about the role of the entourage on CCB revealing how they impact the CCB process both directly and indirectly in various ways. First, because of their close physical proximity when sharing the dining occasion (sitting on the same table) they can point out the failure to the focal consumer (in the situation when he/she does not notice the failure at first such as Jade as she explains in her story Jade_halloume).

Actually the girl facing me looked like this with her eyes wide opened. And then I saw it ... She did like this, "yucky!" I didn't understand at first. So I looked and then I found a very, very long hair. (Jade_halloume)

In doing so the entourage are spontaneously helping their family, friend or colleague avoid consuming a failed product or experiencing a dissatisfactory encounter. The literature relevant to the influence of other customers and CCB does not acknowledge such a role for the entourage. Hence, these findings expand the understanding of a role the entourage (acquainted customers) might play during a CCB episode. In McGrath and Otnes's (1995) work they suggest that unacquainted customers can be proactive helpers. These customers have an innate need to help others. Their study aimed at exploring the roles unacquainted customers play in a retail context. In this sense when other acquainted customers (entourage) interfere to help a friend, family or colleague they are helping proactively.

Furthermore, the data showed that there are situations when the consumer experiences a service failure and he/she asks the help of his/her entourage to confirm their evaluation of the failure before they respond like in the case of Raffe (Raffa_blue). He asked his entourage to check if his food was cooked as he ordered it before voicing his complaint to the service provider.

I directly told the waiter. But also my friends with me on the table tried it and said that it is well well done. (Raffa_blue)

This is a direct involvement of the entourage in the consumer's cognitive appraisal process. Commonly when a consumer encounters a dissatisfactory consumption or purchase he/she cognitively appraises the situation. In all CCB models cognitive appraisal precedes responses. Yan and Lotz (2009) found that other acquainted customers who are present with the focal consumer at the time of the dissatisfactory service encounter could influence by encouragement, confidence and support. They help the consumer feel confident about the decision to voice a complaint. The findings of this study expand beyond this and show that not only do the entourage transfer their encouragement and support to speak out when dissatisfied but they also help in confirming the evaluation of

the service failure. Hence, they take an active supportive role during the cognitive appraisal stage of the CCB process.

The entourage, according to the findings of this study, could also influence the CCB response by exerting pressure on the focal consumer to respond to the dissatisfaction and voice the complaint. In some situations such as in the case of Jade in her story Jade_halloume; she found herself obliged to voice her complaint although initially she had decided to do nothing. Boote (1998) refers to it as social factors. He explains it as the extent to which a consumer is responsive to peer or social pressure to act. Malafi (1991) cites several earlier works that acknowledge the influence of social pressure on compliant behaviour (e.g. Leary, 1983; Nantel, 1985). He suggests that even though it is possible that consumers might be seeking conformity, they might also be looking for support and information when communicating with others.

Another direct interaction between the focal consumer and the entourage that has an influence on the CCB process is when members of the entourage feel obliged and responsible to voice a complaint on behalf of the focal consumer. In these situations the focal consumer chooses not to respond to the dissatisfaction while in the restaurant. Yan and Lotz (2009) refer to this as obligation, although in their paper they meant that the focal consumer feels obliged to act. In this study it appeared that members of the entourage might find themselves obliged to complain about a failure experienced by the focal consumer either to ensure a satisfactory situation or to relieve a stressful situation.

This study also showed that the interaction between the consumer and the entourage not only influences the CCB process directly but also indirectly. The mere physical presence of others sharing the consumption occasion impacts the type of CCB response a dissatisfied consumer makes. Commonly their presence may hinder the focal consumer from voicing a complaint in an attempt to avoid making a scene and experiencing embarrassment especially if they know that members of their entourage are prone to react in a strong way. Yan and Lotz (2009) refer to this as embarrassment avoidance. It occurs when a consumer avoids voicing a complaint in order not to be perceived negatively by

the acquainted others. It also happens in the case of Ray in her story Ray_black spot, when the consumer avoids voicing a complaint in order not to make a scene when knowing that members of the entourage may have a negative strong reaction to the complaint.

Furthermore, this research showed that dissatisfied consumers might appraise the service failures they are experiencing by comparing them to the service failures other members of their entourage are encountering. Consequently, this evaluation influences their choice of response to the dissatisfaction; either voice or do nothing. Julz, in his story Julz_night, for example explains that he decided not to voice his complaint because he considered his failure less severe than the failures his friends were experiencing. Hence, the influence of the entourage is indirect without any interpersonal interaction happening but through comparison. Yan and Lotz (2009) explain that customers decide to complain after they compare their service with that of the unacquainted other customers present at the time of the encounter. In their study they find that customers become aware of their problem by comparison. Their findings are limited to the influence of the unacquainted customers. This study widens this notion and extends it to the influence of acquainted other customers – the entourage.

Finally, the data has revealed that service failures experienced by members of the entourage can cause the focal consumer to experience negative emotions. On occasions when other customers encounter severe failures and they express negative emotions such as anger and voice their complaints these emotions and behaviours “spill over” to the focal consumer and influence his/her service experience. Rita in her story Rita_carrots explains that because one of her entourage was angry as a result of a failure she experienced, everyone sharing the same table was affected.

It affected in a way, it made us annoyed a bit. Especially her husband, he wanted to solve the issue. Usually her husband calms her down but this time he was also angry. (Rita_carrots)

In their typology of “customer co-presence influence modes”, Colm, et al., (2017) identify “behavioural spillovers”. It is when then the behaviour of other customers influences the focal consumer’s service experience. They refer to other unacquainted customers who are sharing the same service space with the focal consumer. Hence, the findings of this study extend Colm et al.’s (2017) typology to conclude that the behaviour and emotions experienced by the other acquainted customer influence the emotions, behaviours and the service experience of the focal consumer.

Other customers

Other customers, as the data demonstrated, can be the source of the service failure experienced by the focal consumer. In this study these types of failures were categorised under physical evidence related failures. The behaviour of other customers can be perceived by the consumer as service failure, cause dissatisfaction, generate negative emotions and influence CCB responses. For instance as Raffa explains in his story Raffa_blue other customers who were sitting on the next table were smoking despite the fact that it is a closed space. Raffa considered their behaviour to be inappropriate and he reported that it made him and his entourage irritated and he voiced his complaint to the service provider. This can be explained within Colm et al.’s (2017) behavioural spillovers typology where they explain that the behaviours of other customers have an impact on the behaviour of the focal consumer.

CCI literature has widely investigated the influence of other customers (unacquainted customers) on the satisfaction and service experience of the focal consumer. Huang (2008) referred to it as “other-customer failure”. It involves all actions done by the other customers that affect the focal consumer’s experience whether intentionally or unintentionally. Zhang et al. (2010) found that these negative customer-to-customer interactions may be very severe and direct such as fighting and confrontations or less severe and indirect such as loudness and rudeness. These behaviours are forms of “dysfunctional behaviours” according to Harris and Reynolds (2003). For a detailed review of the research relevant to these negative interactions see Albrecht (2016), Huang and Wang (2014) and Nicholls (2010). Therefore, as this study revealed, the

focal consumer perceives the behaviour of other customers as failures that consequently influence both the negative emotions and behaviours.

Another way other customers can influence CCB behaviours is demonstrated in the story of John (John_glass). Despite the severe failure, failed service recovery and pressure from his entourage to voice a complaint, John chose to do nothing in the restaurant because as he explains the other customers were much older and seemed of a high social class so he did not want to make a scene and embarrass himself.

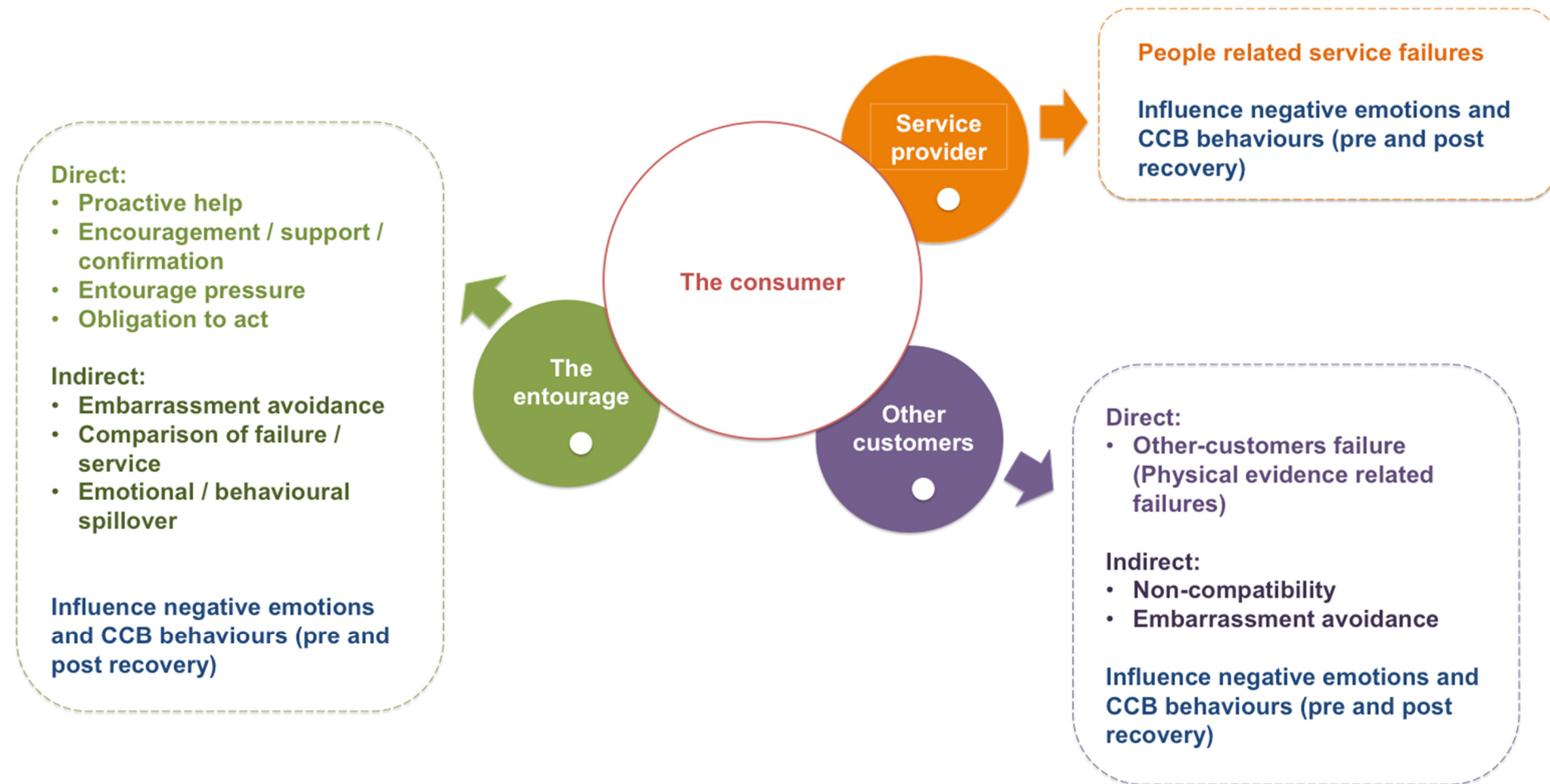
This is a phenomenon that has been addressed in the CCI literature but not in the limited literature that investigated the relationship between CCI and CCB. An early work by Martin and Pranter (1989) introduced the framework of “customer compatibility management”. In their framework they propose that securing compatibility between customers (for example in terms of age, benefits and beliefs) sharing the same service setting increases customer satisfaction. Albrecht (2016) reviewed a number of papers that agree that when customers perceive similarities between themselves and the other customers present during the service it positively affects their service experience, attitude, behavioural response (for example, loyalty, switching behaviour and repurchase intentions) and evaluation of the service provider. Such characteristics include demographical and psychological criteria (for example, age, appearance or social status). Colm et al. (2017) introduces behavioural fit that exists when customers present in a same service setting conform to the social norms. In such situations customers are more comfortable when they are in an environment among others who behave in the same way they believe to be appropriate. Additionally, Thakor, Suri, and Saleh (2008) found that in the presence of older adults, the attitude of young customers might be negatively influenced.

Therefore, and building on what has been presented the behaviour of a dissatisfied consumer and the decision to complain can be influenced indirectly by the perceived compatibility with the other customers present and the similarities or differences in terms of age, social status, social norms, appearance, etc. In the case of John, he might have felt that his behaviour to

complain might not fit with the behaviours expected from other older customers, thus violating the behavioural fit.

To sum up, and as Figure 51 demonstrates, this research has found that CCB within a service context where the focal consumer shares the service setting with other customers has a social dimension. The ongoing interaction between the focal consumer and each of the service providers, entourage and other customers influence directly and indirectly the CCB process (appraisal, emotions and responses) in a number of ways.

Figure 51: The direct and indirect influence of the service provider, the entourage and other customers on CCB responses and emotions



7.6 Chapter summary

The summary of the discussion of the findings shows that the social dynamics naturally occurring during a dissatisfactory dining occasion influence the consumer complaint behaviour process. In a restaurant context and throughout the service encounter the consumer interacts with the service provider and other customers. These interactions along with other previously acknowledged situational and psychographic factors stimulate CCB responses and negative emotions. Additionally, the behaviour of the service provider and other customers during these encounters can be the source of service failures. Furthermore, these interactions may influence the cognitive appraisal process.

Following a service failure or a failed service recovery the dissatisfied consumers experience a number of negative emotions that are differentiated based on the causal agency dimension. Some of these negative emotions are: fed up, disgust, anger and irritation, guilt, regret and embarrassment.

Consequently these negative emotions along with other stimuli lead to a number of CCB responses. In a broad sense the findings of this study confirmed the general classification of CCB responses. However it distinguished between primary and secondary voice responses, it presented four different variants of the exit response, identified a number of motives for NWOM and differentiated between no action as a primary response and taking no further action as a secondary response. Furthermore, it extended the knowledge about consumer retaliation as a secondary response.

As for the factors that stimulate negative emotions and CCB responses, failure traits, attribution, customer loyalty and attitude towards complaining are some of the most common stimuli. The ongoing interaction between the customer and service provider and other customers also act as stimuli for negative emotions and CCB responses.

Finally, in service industries where consumers and service providers interact and where other customers are present at the time of the service encounter such as in restaurants, the social factor must be acknowledged as a central element in CCB as it influences the entire process directly and indirectly in various manners.

Chapter Eight: Conclusion

8.1 Overview of chapter

This final chapter of the thesis will put together what has been presented in the previous chapters revealing the importance of this research. It will start by revisiting and reviewing the research objectives and questions. Then it will move to explain in detail how this research contributes to theory and practice. This chapter will also discuss the limitations of the study and the quality of the research. It will conclude by presenting a number of suggestions for future research that would further add to the knowledge regarding CCB in services.

8.2 Revisiting the research objectives and questions

The main goal of this study was to understand the natural social dynamics that occur during a dissatisfactory incident in a restaurant. In particular investigating what negative emotions dissatisfied consumer experience, the responses they undertake and what stimulates those responses.

In order to address this goal a number of research objectives were set (see Section 1.4 Chapter 1). The following table demonstrates how these objectives were met by stating where in the thesis they were addressed and fulfilled.

Table 14: Research objectives

	Research Objectives	Relevant Chapter(s)
Research Objective 1	Critical review of the literature relevant to CCB in services in particular: service failures in restaurants, cognitive and affective appraisal theories, negative emotions and CCB (responses, triggers and models)	Chapters Two and Three
Research Objective 2	Identify the research gaps and develop the research questions	Chapter Three
Research Objective 3	Design an appropriate methodology to collect and analyse the data addressing the research questions	Chapter Four
Research Objective 4	Present and understand the research findings within the current relevant literature in order to develop an original contribution in the field of CCB	Chapters Five, Six and Seven
Research Objective 5	Understand the limitations of the current research and recommend areas for future research	Chapter Eight

Having fulfilled these objectives, the four research questions introduced in Chapter Three were successfully addressed.

- **RQ1:** What negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?
- **RQ2:** How do consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents encountered in restaurants?
- **RQ3:** What stimulates the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by consumers as a result of dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?
- **RQ4:** How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

In order to meet **research objectives one and two**, a thorough critical literature review has been conducted. It allowed for a comprehensive understanding of the relevant areas, mainly: service failures in restaurants, appraisal models of dissatisfaction, cognitive appraisal model and consumption negative emotions, CCB (definition, responses, triggers and models) and CCB in services. This review led to the identification of the gaps in the knowledge.

CCB has been extensively researched since the early 1980s. However, the broad body of literature has concentrated on studying CCB with goods and not services. Thus it has largely been assumed that CCB is a consequent response to dissatisfaction while acknowledging that dissatisfaction alone is not sufficient to induce such responses but other situational and psychographic triggers must be present. Recent literature has concentrated on specific areas relevant to CCB within the service industry, suggesting that CCB should be investigated as a process and not as a static phenomenon where the response is the result of the ongoing interactions and evaluations along the course of the service encounter.

However even though there was a shift in the study of CCB to involve services, much of the existing research has been undertaken from a positivist stance. This approach does not allow for an in-depth understanding of CCB from the dissatisfied consumer's perspective. Also it fails to capture the natural social dynamics and interactions associated with lived dissatisfactory experiences in

which the consumer shares the service setting with other customers and interacts with the service provider. To date no study has followed an interpretivist approach to attempt and investigate the natural social dynamics that occur during a dissatisfactory dining occasion and understand the CCB process holistically by identifying the negative emotions and CCB responses and their stimuli from the consumer's own perspective. This gap allows for an original contribution to knowledge and practice.

Research objective three was fulfilled by developing a method that successfully addressed the research questions. The main aim of this research was to gain a holistic understanding of the natural social dynamics that occur during a dissatisfactory dining occasion, including the emotions experienced and the responses undertaken, and thus acquire a subjective understanding of the dissatisfied consumers' experiences from their own perspective. This aim required assuming a social constructionist epistemological approach and an interpretivist perspective. The method developed draws upon Critical Incident Technique.

The qualitative data were collected using qualitative research diaries in the first phase and semi-structured interviews in the second phase from participants who were all Lebanese diners who experienced a dissatisfactory dining occasion at a restaurant. This method allowed capturing actual complaint behaviours rather than behavioural intentions, uncovering the emotional responses to dissatisfaction and gaining a holistic understanding of the social dynamics and complex interactions between the actors involved in the incident. The data collected through the interviews was analysed using template analysis. Furthermore four-tier complaint journey mappings of the incidents were developed in order to track the events that happened during these incidents and understand their influence.

Research objective four was met by presenting and discussing the findings of the study within the relevant literature. Chapter Five presented the findings related to research questions one, two and three. Chapter Six presented the findings addressing research question four. These findings were discussed in the context of the existing literature and research questions in Chapter Seven.

The findings demonstrate that the interactions between the consumer and service provider and the consumer and other customers present at the time of the dissatisfactory service encounter influence the CCB process, including the service failure, cognitive appraisal stage, negative emotions experienced and the responses undertaken. Furthermore these findings extended the knowledge related to consumption negative emotions, CCB responses and their stimuli. In the next section the outcomes of the discussion of each of the research questions will be presented as well as the contribution to knowledge and practice.

Sections 8.4 and 8.5 of this chapter will demonstrate how **research objective five** was met. Throughout the course of this thesis, a number of limitations were acknowledged as well as areas for future research being developed.

Based on what has been presented, it is evident that the five research objectives of this study have been met. This shows that the study has followed a rigorous research process that allowed for answering the research questions, addressing gaps in the knowledge and offering original contributions to knowledge and practice regarding CCB in services and restaurants in particular.

8.3 Contributions to knowledge and practice

This section will present what original contributions to knowledge this study offers by revisiting the four research questions. It will also discuss the methodological and practical contributions this study offers. Table 15 below presents briefly these contributions. This section will end by evaluating the quality and validity of this research.

Table 15: Theoretical, methodological and practical contributions

Theoretical contribution
Social dynamics <ul style="list-style-type: none">• In services, CCB has a social element.• Develop a diagram that demonstrates how the service providers, entourage and other customers influence directly and indirectly the CCB process, including service failures, cognitive appraisal process, CCB responses and negative emotions.
CCB responses <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Identify the actual responses (as opposed to intended behaviours) dissatisfied consumers in a restaurant undertake following a service failure.• Extend the taxonomy of responses by recognising nuances of variations in these responses.
Negative emotions <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Identify negative emotions most commonly experienced in a restaurant context especially feeling fed up and disgust.
Stimuli of CCB responses and negative emotions <ul style="list-style-type: none">• In addition to situational and psychographic stimuli recognised in existing literature, the natural social dynamics occurring during a dissatisfactory service encounter must be considered when explaining the CCB responses undertaken and the negative emotions experienced.
Methodological contribution
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Following a qualitative approach allowed understanding the actual behaviours and not intentional behaviours as is common with quantitative methods.• The data collection method especially the QRD minimised the retrospection and problems of recall normally associated with CIT interviews. It captured the current cognitive and affective particularities of the incident by collecting the data as close as possible to the incident.• The complaint journey maps developed during data analysis present a novel way of capturing the natural dynamics that occur during dissatisfying incidents in contexts such as restaurants between the focal consumer, the service provider, the entourage and other customers.
Practical contribution
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Acknowledge the social element when developing CCB strategies.• Acknowledge the role service providers, entourage and other customers play during a dissatisfactory service encounter.• Understand the influence of certain negative emotions on attitude and behaviour.• Understand what in a restaurant context can stimulate negative emotions and CCB responses.

8.3.1 Theoretical contribution

Research Question One:

1. What negative emotions do consumers experience in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

The findings of the study regarding the negative emotions experienced in response to dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants contributed to the existing knowledge by identifying two emotions related to a restaurant context; feeling fed up and disgust. In addition to these two, the participants mentioned other negative emotions that are acknowledged in the previous studies such as anger and irritation, guilt, regret and embarrassment.

Feeling fed up was not previously identified in the consumption negative emotions literature reviewed. However, this study found it to be a predominant negative emotion experienced within a restaurant context. It is mainly categorised as other or situational attributed based on the context of the incident and on the appraisal of the negative event. This emotion was engendered in situations when the dissatisfied consumer faced multiple service failures and/or multiple failed recoveries. It can be explained as a state of mental satiation. This emotion also influenced the CCB responses where dissatisfied consumers reporting feeling fed up also reported choosing uninvolved responses such as take no further action while at the restaurant but choosing exit and/or NWOM afterwards. The choice of responses can be explained within the perception of a low likelihood of success of a voiced complaint.

Disgust was experienced in response to service failures related to the food or the environment, in particular finding foreign objects in food or lack of cleanliness of cutlery and utensils. This negative emotion consequently had an impact on the CCB response and the attitude of the consumer. Disgusted consumers chose to directly voice their complaint to the service provider and they explain that this feeling negatively impacted their whole dining experience. Particularly, they became more vigilant and expected another failure to occur.

This study identified a number of consumption negative emotions specific to a dining experience which extended the literature regarding the understanding of what negative emotions dissatisfied consumers experience within a restaurant context and how they impact their CCB responses.

Research Question Two:

2. How do consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents encountered in restaurants?

This study has gone some way towards enhancing the understanding of the actual CCB responses undertaken by dissatisfied consumers as opposed to intentional behaviours both before and after the organisation's service recovery attempt. It allowed further development of this taxonomy of responses widely acknowledged in CCB literature by recognising nuances of variations in these responses.

In particular, this study found that there is differentiation in the voice response as a primary or a secondary response. When it is a primary response the dissatisfied consumer voices the complaint directly to the servers, however when it is a secondary response (following a failed service recovery attempt) he/she voices the complaint to a higher authority staff member such as the manager or supervisor. They elevate their voice complaint to a higher order hoping for better chances of success for their complaint.

With regard to exit, this study identified four variants of exit as opposed to what is defined in the literature as completely terminating the relationship with the seller or service provider. Dissatisfied consumers may still go to the same place but they would change their consumption habits for example never order the failed dish again or never go for the same purpose again. They might also still patronise the same organisation but boycott the branch or location where they experienced the failure. Finally, they will permanently end their relationship with the organisation and decide to never go again. These variations of the exit response widen the understanding of the exit response especially within a restaurant context that is multi-dimensional and complex. The dissatisfied

consumer in a restaurant who responds by 'exit' to a service failure does not necessarily suggest an overall boycott of the organisation.

As for NWOM, four motives for engaging in NWOM were identified in this study that vary in their intensity of aggression towards the service provider. It is found that dissatisfied consumers engage in NWOM to vent their anger and frustration warn their friends or say negative things about the restaurant. However most commonly dissatisfied consumers engage in NWOM because they want to share their experiences (stories) with others regardless of the severity of the failure and the result of the service recovery. These motives appear to be distinct, but they overlap. Even if the intention of the dissatisfied consumer is not to harm the organisation he/she cannot prevent the negative message from unintentionally being communicated.

This study further developed what Boote (1998) referred to as retaliation being a type of secondary response. Within a restaurant context retaliation was manifested through the act of not leaving tips for the waiter. It was undertaken in response to people-related failures specifically the behaviour and attitude of the servers in such a way to directly hurt the server and not the organisation. This extends the understanding of this response and shows that it can be directed both to the individual and to the organisation.

In this study, doing nothing (taking no action) and taking no further action refer to the responses undertaken while the dissatisfied consumer was still at the restaurant. Doing nothing is a primary response while taking no further action is a secondary response. The latter is closely related to feeling fed up and the evaluation of a low or null likelihood of success of their complaint.

To sum up, the findings of this study distinguish between voice as a primary response and as a secondary response, it identifies variation in the exit response, it acknowledges a number of motives for spreading NWOM, it differentiates between taking no action as a primary response and taking no further action as a secondary response and it widened the understanding of consumer retaliation within a restaurant context. Primarily it closes a gap in the

literature to widen the understanding of what actual behaviours and responses dissatisfied customers in a restaurant undertake following a service failure.

Research Question Three:

3. What stimulates the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken by consumers as a result of dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants?

This study contributes additional evidence and confirms previous findings that alongside dissatisfaction other factors must be present to stimulate negative emotions and CCB responses. It has shown that within a restaurant context and from the perspective of the dissatisfied consumer, failure traits (severity of the failure and number of failures during the same dining occasion), attribution (mainly who is responsible for the failure) and consumer loyalty are common stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses. The data did not suggest that ATC influences the negative emotions experienced however it does influence the CCB responses.

However, one of the noteworthy contributions is identifying that the ongoing interactions between the consumer and service providers and the consumer and other customers during the dissatisfactory service encounter is a major stimulus. It follows that these interactions influence the negative emotions experienced and the CCB responses undertaken directly and indirectly and before and after the organisation has attempted to recover the failure.

Research Question Four:

4. How do the social dynamics within dissatisfactory incidents in restaurants influence the CCB process?

This study has investigated a CCB incident holistically in its natural setting using an interpretivist approach. This allowed it to reveal the social dynamics that occur during dissatisfactory service encounters and demonstrate how the ongoing interactions between the consumer and the service providers and the consumer and other customers present at the restaurant (entourage and/or other customers) influence not only the negative emotions and responses but also has an impact on the entire CCB process. Hence, it has shown that in

services where the customer shares the service setting with other customer (such as restaurants) CCB has a social element.

The findings of this study enhanced the understanding of how the interaction between the consumer and service providers influence the negative emotions and CCB responses. The CCB and satisfaction literature acknowledges the influence of service providers on satisfaction/dissatisfaction and post-purchase/consumption behaviours. In this study it was revealed that consumers perceive the dissatisfactory behaviours and attitudes of service providers as service failures (people-related failures). These behaviours and attitudes consequently generate negative emotions such as anger, disappointment and being fed up. However the dissatisfied consumers in such occasions commonly choose to take no action while still at the restaurant and resort to uninvolved responses. Nevertheless when these failures occur alongside other types of failures the dissatisfied customers engage in other forms of CCB responses such as voice, NWOM and/or exit.

Besides the service providers the consumer at a restaurant interacts directly or indirectly with others customers. These other customers can be either the customers sharing the dining experience with the customer referred to here as entourage or the other customers that happen to be present at the restaurant at the time of the dissatisfactory incident, referred to as other customers.

A very limited number of published works have addressed the relationship between the other customers and CCB. The vast majority of research around the area of customer-to-customer interactions has focused on customer satisfaction and service experiences. This study addresses a gap in the literature and presents an original contribution to knowledge through understanding how the ongoing interaction between the focal consumer and the other customers (entourage and other customers) influences the CCB process. This influence can be either direct or indirect and can affect the negative emotions and CCB responses pre and post a service recovery attempt by the organisation.

The findings revealed several ways the entourage could influence the CCB process including the cognitive appraisal process, negative emotions experienced and CCB responses undertaken. In particular, the entourage, because of their close physical proximity with the focal consumer, could directly play the role of a proactive helper for example by pointing out the failure to the customer before he/she notices it. Also the data has found that during the cognitive appraisal process when the dissatisfied consumer is assessing the failure, the entourage can influence the evaluations by offering confirmation of the failure and encouragement and support for the response decision. Furthermore, they can exert pressure on the focal consumer to respond in a certain way. In other situations the entourage find themselves obliged to respond to the failure on behalf of the focal consumer. In such situations they usually voice the complaint to the service provider.

The entourage could also influence the CCB process indirectly. The data has shown that in some incidents the focal consumer would refrain from voicing a complaint in order to avoid embarrassment especially if he/she knows that their entourage would react strongly in such situations. In addition, and without any direct interaction, the focal consumer's decision to respond to a service failure can be moderated by comparing his/her failure with the failures experienced by other members of the entourage. Finally, the strong negative emotions and behaviours of members of the entourage could 'spill over' to the other people sharing the same table including the focal consumer and consequently influencing their negative emotions and behaviours.

The other customers present at the restaurant and sharing the service space with the focal consumer could also influence the CCB process both directly and indirectly as this study has demonstrated. A common mode of influence is what is referred to as other-customer failures. This occurs when the focal consumer perceives the behaviour of the other customers such as smoking, noise and rudeness as a service failure. In this study these types of failures are categorised under physical evidence related failures. Consequently these failures are found to stimulate negative emotions, primarily irritation and anger, and CCB responses, commonly voice.

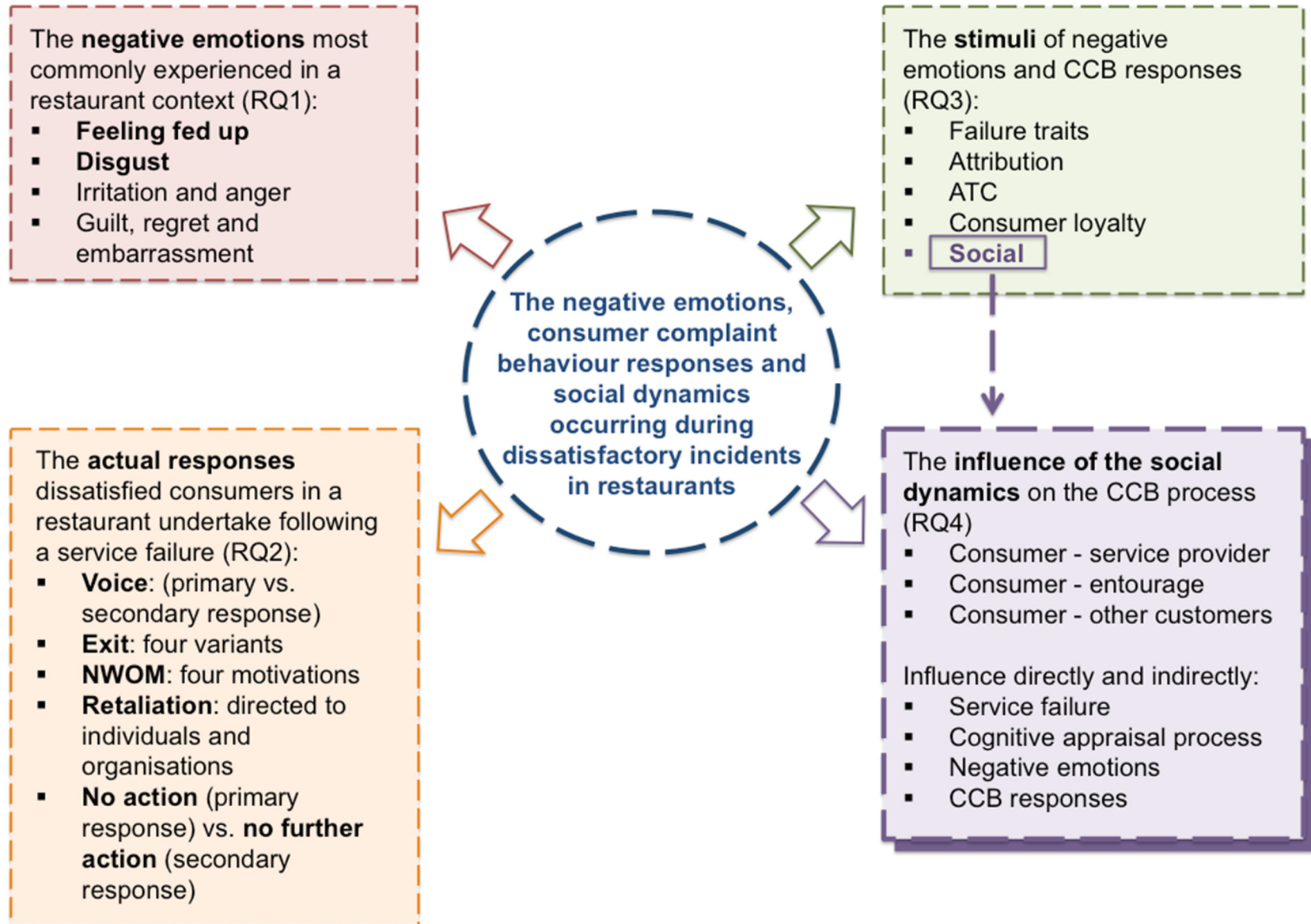
Incompatibility in age, social class, social norms, appearances, education, etc. are found to influence the negative emotions experienced and CCB responses chosen by the dissatisfied focal consumer. The focal consumer might find himself/herself embarrassed to voice a complaint because he/she perceives no similarities with the other customers. Also this factor could influence the CCB response; mainly in such cases the focal consumer chooses not to voice the complaint to the service provider and take no further action even if he/she were not satisfied with the service recovery attempt.

The model developed and presented earlier in Chapter Seven demonstrates that CCB within a service context (such as restaurants) has a social element where the natural social dynamics between the players involved (focal consumer, service provider and other customers) and the consequent ongoing interactions between them influence the CCB process. Hence, along with the other situational and psychographic stimuli that are identified in this study and in the existing literature, the natural social dynamics during a dissatisfactory service encounter must be considered when explaining the CCB responses undertaken and the negative emotions experienced.

This model demonstrates that the construction of a CCB response is not an isolated and static act but involves the dynamic interactions (directly and/or indirectly) that occur between the consumer, service provider and other customers. Therefore studying CCB in services should take into account group dynamics and not only focus on the individual consumer. Organisations in the service industry on the other hand, should consider complaint-handling strategies that acknowledge the possible influence of the group on the individual.

To sum up, the graphic below (Figure 52) brings together briefly the key theoretical contributions of this study.

Figure 52: The key theoretical contributions



8.3.2 Methodological contribution

Following an interpretivist approach as opposed to the positivist approach dominating much of the existing CCB literature has allowed answering of the research questions and addressing limitations associated with the traditional CCB research that utilises quantitative methods.

In this study actual dissatisfying incidents experienced by consumers, told by them in their own words and from their own perspective, were collected and analysed. Thus, the behaviours of the dissatisfied customers are actual behaviours, what they actually did (or did not do), and not intentional behaviours they assumed based on fictional situations, as is common with quantitative methods.

Moreover, investigating CCB from this interpretivist perspective allows for an in-depth understanding. In particular, the data collection tools (QRD and semi-structured interviews) empowered the participants to share their stories and express their views in their own words. This multi-method approach and specifically the interview phase offered the researcher the opportunity to ask about the story details and probe to uncover unquantifiable factors and also the participants could elaborate on what happened to them and why they felt or acted the way they did.

Furthermore, the data collection method (QRD and semi-structured interviews) addressed the limitations associated with CIT interviews being retrospective in nature and holding a high risk of recall bias. The QRD minimised the retrospection and problems of recall. It captured the current cognitive and affective particularities of the incident. In addition, conducting the semi-structured interviews within one week from the incident further contributed to further minimising the recall bias.

Therefore, this approach allows for drawing a holistic image of the situation within its natural setting reflecting the dynamics and interactions that occur between the different players involved such as in the case of this research: the consumer, service provider and the other customers. Also it helps to identify variables that are not easily measured such as emotions and underlying stimuli

that cannot be controlled for. This approach appears to be useful for future research to extend the existing knowledge relevant to the CCB theory that has been predominantly investigated using positivist methodologies. Furthermore, it can be useful when researching dissatisfaction where consumers experience services in groups rather than as individuals (for example tourism).

In addition, during data analysis, diagrams mapping the complaint journey of each of the participants were developed. These diagrams helped further understand the natural dynamic interplay that occurred during these dissatisfying episodes between (1) the consumer, (2) the restaurant staff, (3) the entourage and (4) the other customers. They showed the incidents taking place as well as the negative emotions and the responses in a chronological order as reported by the participants.

8.3.3 Practical contribution

The findings of this study not only offer an original contribution to the CCB body of knowledge but also have practical implications. Managers and service providers, when developing CCB strategies, need to include the social element and acknowledge that the emotions and behaviours of the dissatisfied consumers are influenced by the dynamics that occur during a dining experience.

They need to be aware that the behaviour and attitude of the service providers serve as stimuli for these emotions and responses and therefore, employ thorough staff training on the most appropriate manners to serve and to recover a failed service. Furthermore, they have to acknowledge the role the entourage plays during a dissatisfactory service encounter and not only focus their strategies on the focal consumer. In addition, they should implement ways to minimise other people failures as they can cause dissatisfaction by acting upon any behaviour that might cause disturbance to the other customers.

In terms of negative emotions, service providers must be aware of how, following a dissatisfying incident, some negative emotions can affect behaviours and attitudes. For example, when a consumer experiences a failure related to hygiene or a foreign objects in food that was found to elicit disgust, that in turn

affects the entire dining experience. The service provider must be trained to deal with the consumer with empathy and try to remedy the situation. Also in the occasion of multiple failures or multiple failed recoveries, the service providers must anticipate that the consumer might be feeling fed up, which was found to result in responses such as NWOM or exit. In such cases the service providers must be proactive and attempt to resolve the situation even if the consumer did not voice a complaint in the restaurant.

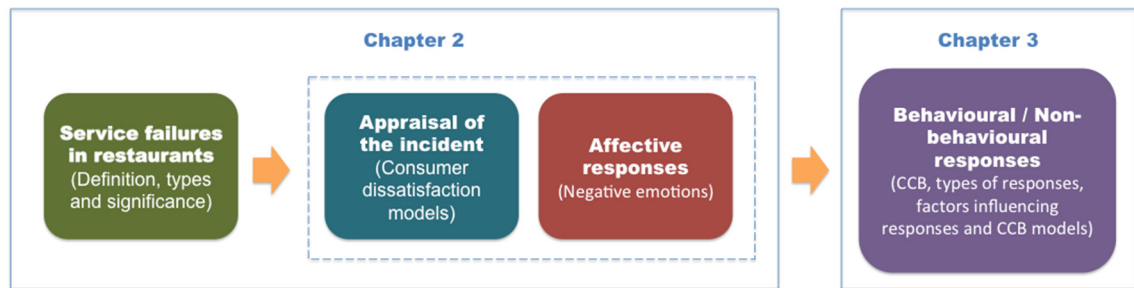
When CCB responses are concerned, managers and supervisor (or owners) should be aware that if consumers voice their complaints to them, this means that the primary voiced complaints to the servers were not handled properly. Thus they need to step up and recover the failure to avoid having a dissatisfied customer. Furthermore, service providers should realise that when consumers do not leave any tip, this means that they were dissatisfied with the behaviour of the service provider: either while serving or when attempting to recover the failure; and that the consumer chose this response as a form of retaliation.

8.3.4 Evaluation of the thesis

This section will revisit the guidelines listed in Chapter Four (Section 4.7) to evaluate the research. It will show how this thesis met each of these criteria.

Sensitivity to context: The study presented and critically reviewed in Chapters Two and Three the existing literature relevant to the investigated topic. In particular, Chapter Two started by reviewing service failures in restaurants and their significance in consumer complaint behaviour research. It then moved to introduce the appraisal models of dissatisfaction most relevant to this research as well as the cognitive appraisal model that explains how specific emotions are elicited as a result of such encounters. Chapter Three followed on and critically reviewed the major CCB models explaining responses and triggers. Figure 53 that was introduced in Chapter Two is here again to demonstrate the topics covered in the literature review.

Figure 53: Structure of the literature review chapters



Chapters Five and Six presented the findings from the analysed interviews. They presented the themes that emerged from the data that addressed the research questions.

Following an interpretivist approach and collecting the data using QRD and semi-structure interviews provided space for the participants to express their subjective accounts. Furthermore, due to the nature and duration of the data collection process an interactional relationship between the researcher and the participants developed. In addition, the researcher and the participants share the same culture which helped the researcher to be more consciously sensitive to issues such as language, beliefs and expectations during research design, data collection, analysis and reporting. Finally, all ethical issues including ethical approval, consent form, confidentiality and anonymity were considered throughout the study as detailed in Chapter Four Section 4.8.

Commitment and rigour: The researcher has been engaged with this research since the beginning of her PhD journey. She is deeply immersed in the data through personally designing the data collection procedure, collecting the data, transcribing and translating the interviews and coding and analysing the data.

Chapter Four presented in detail the methodological choices made in this research. The research assumed a social constructions epistemology, an interpretivist theoretical perspective, a qualitative methodology and the data collection tool (QRD and semi-structured interviews) allowed for the collection of rich data. The collected data was analysed using template analysis that helped capture the particularities of the participants' experiences and accounts.

Transparency and coherence: Chapter Four Section 4.5 explained in details the method used to collect that data including sampling, data collection tools, recruitment of participants, collection of data, transcription and translation of the interviews. Section 4.6 described the data analysis process covering all the steps involved in the template analysis.

Chapters Five and Six presented the research findings and the themes that emerged from the analysis of the interviews to address the four research questions. Chapter Seven discussed these findings in the light of the reviewed literature.

Impact and importance: The research objectives were first introduced in Chapter One and then they were revisited in Section 8.2 of this chapter showing how and where in the thesis they were met. The research contributions were presented in Section 8.3 of this chapter. The four research questions were revisited and the original contribution to knowledge pertaining to each one was highlighted. The methodological and practical contributions this study offered were also presented. Hence, this thesis has enhanced the understanding of CCB in services, both theoretically and practically.

To sum up, this section has demonstrated that the thesis has fulfilled the criteria to evaluate its quality.

8.4 Research limitations

The previous section has highlighted the theoretical, methodological and practical contributions that this study offered as well as reflections on the evaluation of this research. This section will identify the limitations of the research that fall into two categories: personal and methodological limitations.

8.4.1 Personal limitations

This research aimed at gaining an understanding of the social dynamics that occur during a dissatisfactory incident at a restaurant. Hence, the topic required knowledge of the literature relevant to CCB and the hospitality sector (restaurants in particular). The researcher chose to collect the data in Lebanon

(her home country), which posed a challenge when attempting to locate the appropriate literature regarding this topic. She faced difficulty in identifying any related published literature either in academic or managerial journals. Therefore, understanding this phenomenon within a Lebanese context prior to designing the study and collecting the data stood as a personal knowledge limitation. This limitation was addressed by meeting with practitioners in the industry in order to develop a clear understanding of the sector, their perception of CCB in restaurants and the service recovery strategies most commonly used.

8.4.2 Methodological limitations

Although the method developed in this research offered methodological contributions for studying CCB in services as well as allowing for contributions to the CCB body of knowledge, it presents some challenges or limitations as discussed in Chapter 4 Section 4.9.

Sampling

The research participants were selected purposively. Although the researcher diversified the recruited participants in terms of the basic demographic factors it was not possible to keep this diversification in the final sample of participants who reported their dissatisfying incidents. The researcher had limited control over the profile diversity of the final sample. To address this limitation, the researcher monitored the demographic profile of the participants who reported incidents throughout the duration of the data collection and recruited more participants from the missing profiles.

Data collection tools

Although the introduction of the qualitative research diaries in the first phase of data collection minimised the recall bias associated with interviews following CIT, it created another bias. Alaszewski (2006) points out that engaging in research diaries might affect the behaviour of the research participants. Some participants expressed that because of the diaries they became more aware of and alert to service failures than they normally were. The researcher used the semi-structured interviews in the second phase to investigate whether that was the case with the participant.

Logistics

The data collection period stretched over two months. This required complete commitment from both the researcher and the participants. The researcher had to be physically present close to the participants (in Lebanon) in order to follow up with the participants, motivate them, solve any problems they faced regarding the research and conduct the interviews.

Translation

The native language in Lebanon is Arabic. All the participants were trilingual (fluent in Arabic, English and French) and they were given the freedom to express themselves in any of the three languages. They all chose to mainly speak in Arabic with some use of English and French expressions. The researcher transcribed and translated all the interviews into English. When it was difficult to find the most accurate translation for the Arabic terms, these terms were kept in Arabic in the transcripts to preserve the true meanings of the words. One limitation of translating text is that it is impossible to have an objective translation. There is always the bias of the translator's interpretation (van Nes *et al.*, 2010). In order to address this limitation the researcher, after translating the transcripts, worked alongside a professional translator to double check parts of the translated transcripts and the developed template for analysis.

Collected data

The data collected either through the diaries or the interviews is the participants' accounts of their dissatisfying experiences. It is the information that they were willing to share. Therefore the analysed data and consequently the findings are dependent on what the participants disclosed. The negative emotions that emerged from the analysis of the interviews are what the participants reported of their emotional experiences and are not the result of any experiment or observation. Thus, this can be considered as a limitation and the findings of this study should be interpreted accordingly.

8.5 Suggestions for future research

At this point the thesis comes to an end, but not the research. Working on this study has raised questions and opportunities for areas for future research in CCB.

Methodological Approach and Method

This study is an exploratory study that followed a qualitative approach. It has opened the door for new insights about CCB in services such as the specific negative emotions experienced, responses undertaken and stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses. Since qualitative studies aim at gaining in-depth understanding of a phenomenon and the findings are not generalisable, studies in future could incorporate these findings in a quantitative study to test them and make more general claims.

Furthermore, the data collection method offers some methodological contributions (as explained in Chapter Four and in Section 8.3.2 of this chapter). It addressed a number of limitations associated with quantitative approaches used to study CCB. Therefore, it is suggested that this method be used in service contexts other than restaurants where consumers interact directly with service providers and share the service space with other customers, such as tourism and education.

The stories collected in this study involve a series of incidents. These incidents were ordered based on how the participants' reported their flow. Thus, although the research captures the sequence of the incidents and the emotions they elicit, the data collection tools used do not allow for recording the exact time lapse between these incidents. Therefore future research could further develop the methodology to have a more accurate account. This could help in better understanding the whole dissatisfactory experience, in particular the impact of the stimuli on the negative emotions and CCB responses.

Negative emotions

This study has found that dissatisfied consumers who reported feeling fed up as a result of multiple failures and/or multiple failed recoveries also explained that they chose to undertake uninvolved CCB responses such as doing nothing/taking no further action, exit and/or NWOM. Hence, it is established that there is an association between this negative emotion and these CCB responses. However, investigating the strength of this relationship within other service contexts appears to be a promising area for future research.

Furthermore, when disgust was reported as a negative emotion, the dissatisfied consumers expressed that in addition to having an influence on their response (e.g. voicing their complaint), this emotion affected their attitude, precisely their consumption perceived vigilance. A restaurant service encounter stretches over a period of time and involves different dimensions and stages. Service failure can occur at any stage and with any of its elements. However, there is no current research that looks into the relationship between disgust, perceived vigilance, service failures and CCB responses within a restaurant context. This area is noteworthy for future research.

CCB responses

In this study, no dissatisfied consumer reported taking third party action following a service failure. Some earlier literature has also suggested that this type of response is not relevant to a restaurant context. However, the absence of this response raises some questions that future research could answer. Is this finding related to peculiarities related to the Lebanese context and Lebanese consumers, such as trust in the public and judicial authorities? Are the types of service failures reported in this study not elevated to the level of driving the consumer to engage in third party action that usually requires more effort, time and cost than the other responses, and thus more severe failures yield third party actions? In which service industries consumers do choose third party actions and how do they compare to restaurants?

With the advancement of the internet and the popularity of social networking sites and micro blogs, it is assumed that dissatisfied consumers will resort more to using these online channels to voice their complaints (e-complaints) and/or

engage in NWOM (e-NWOM). From the beginning of this study, the researcher has anticipated that Lebanese consumers would frequently be using Facebook and Twitter in particular to voice their complaints to restaurants and/or share their dissatisfying encounters with others. However, in this study only one participant reported using a social networking site (Facebook) as an online channel to spread NWOM. This again raises questions and opens the door for future research to further investigate this phenomenon and understand its dimensions; why and when do dissatisfied consumers use online channels within restaurant contexts and which channels do they commonly use?

Stimuli

Although this study was conducted in Lebanon, a Middle Eastern country, the cultural factor was not taken into consideration. Culture is acknowledged in the CCB literature to be one of the triggers that moderate the responses. A broad body of literature has addressed this issue, especially comparing between western and eastern cultures in regards to CCB. The decision not to consider culture in this study was made because the aim of the study did not involve any comparison with another nation, nationality or culture. However, a cultural comparison of the findings in the future would be of significance, specifically regarding the social element in CCB. The comparison can be among different Middle Eastern countries as there are a number of cultural differences, for example a comparison between Lebanon and Saudi Arabia, as well as between countries in different regions, such as Lebanon and UK for instance.

Social dimension of CCB

One of the original contributions of this study is identifying a social element of CCB that involves the dynamic interaction between the focal consumer, the service providers and the other customers (entourage and other customers). Research in this area is still limited and future research may look into several aspects of this dimension.

The findings of this study are based on the subjective account of the focal consumer involved in the dissatisfying event. But as explained earlier a dissatisfying event may involve the consumer, service provider and other customers. In order to develop a holistic understanding of the encounter and

consequent emotions and responses, it is of value to have the subjective perspective of all parties involved and their explanation of the sequence of events. Therefore, a future study using the case study approach can investigate an incident holistically by including the consumer, the service provider and other customers.

Furthermore, this study demonstrated some of the ways service providers and other customers can influence the CCB process in a restaurant context. Future research may look into how these findings may apply to other service contexts such as tourism services or hotels. Additionally, it could investigate how they may differ with various factors such as the relationship with the focal consumer, the importance of the occasion or demographics.

Appendices

Appendix A: Qualitative research diary guide



All your stories are
very important
no matter what you did
or didn't do
what you said or didn't
say





1 Tell me what happened

Duration:

1 month starting December 2013

What to record:

Every time you have a dissatisfying or unhappy dining experience; large or small, voice record your story within 24 hours telling me what exactly happened.

How to record your story:

Record using any digital recording device of your choice and convenient to you for example:

Mobile phone

Digital recorder you own

Digital recorder I can provide



Please record ALL incidents which were dissatisfying or unhappy to you even if you didn't take any action like talking to the restaurant staff or say anything



1 Tell me what happened

Example of Incidents:

Examples for incidents that would happen with you at a restaurant and make your dining experience dissatisfying or unhappy and you would like to tell me about

Service related issues:

- The valet parking staff disrespected you
- You had to wait too long to be seated
- You were seated next to the toilets
- You were seated on a different table than the one you reserved
- You waited for a long time before the waiter took the order
- The waiter was rude
- When the food arrived the order was wrong
- The service was too slow





1 Tell me what happened

Food related issues:

- The taste of the food was not as you expected
- The food was under cooked
- The food wasn't fresh enough
- There was something in the food (hair, insect, etc)
- You suffered later from food poisoning
- ...



1 Tell me what happened

Environment related issues:

- The music was too loud
- The lighting was too dim
- It was too cold and the temperature wasn't adjusted
- There were people smoking inside
- The toilets were not clean
- The table was not stable
- There was a very loud group at the restaurant
- ...



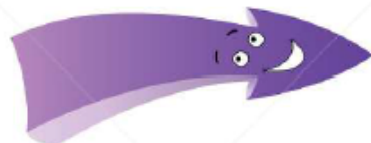


1 Tell me what happened

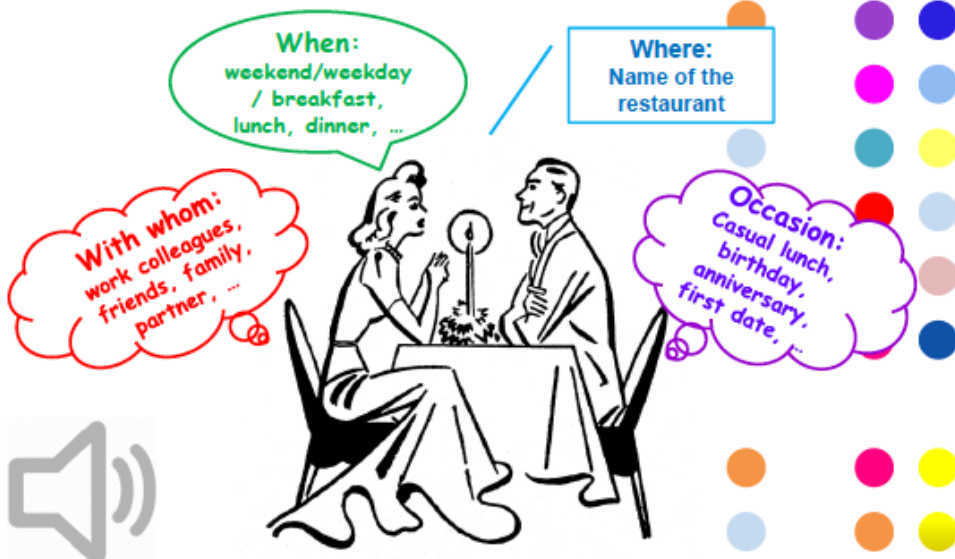
What to include in your story:

The story you will be recording will be as if you were telling a friend about what happened with you at the restaurant.

So include details such as:



1 Tell me what happened





1 Tell me what happened



1 Tell me what happened

How to record your story:

In order to tell me what happened with you, I would like you, please, to voice record your story using any digital recording device of your choice and convenient to you.

You can use for example either:

- **Your mobile phone**; either the voice recorder on the phone or any voice recording app
- or
- **A digital recorder** you own
- or
- I can also provide you with a voice digital recorder





1 Tell me what happened

When to record your story:

It is not necessary that you record your story on the spot when the incident happens with you but please record it **within maximum 24 hours**.



2 Send it over ...

Once you record your story please inform me and then send it to me

either:

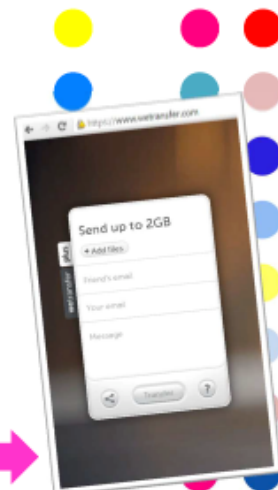
Email it to me at
hibakphd@gmail.com

or

Upload it to: www.wetransfer.com

or

I can pick up the file from you



I know that the size of the file will be relatively big so please don't feel obliged to send it via the internet. I can pick it up 😊



3 Tell me more ...

Once I receive your recorded story of the incident, together we will set a date to meet and further discuss in details what happened during this dissatisfactory dining experience.

The meeting or interview should not last more than 45 minutes and I will ask you questions based on what you recorded.

The interview will be scheduled hopefully **within 4 weeks** from the date of the incident and will be recorded and transcribed, .



General Notes

All records will be kept anonymous. Your name as well as the names of other participants will be omitted when transcribing the interviews. Also all names of organisations and people you might mention during the interview will be treated the same and thus omitted in the transcripts.

All responses will be kept confidential. To insure confidentiality, special measures will be made in terms of storing data securely on computer and ensuring hard copies of transcripts and field notes are stored in a locked cupboard.





General Notes

I will follow up with you regularly to make sure that you are not facing any problems and that everything is going well.

Please remember that you are free to withdraw at any time with no prejudice what so ever.

For any question or enquiry you can contact me anytime at:

hibakphd@gmail.com

or

03 468022



Appendix B: Example of an interview guide

Julz Story 1 - Friday 3 - 1- 2014

- 1 We wanted to go to a restaurant that
- 2 serves sushi because my friend and I were
- 3 craving for sushi but also that serves other
- 4 things for the other friends who don't like
- 5 sushi. We were told of Public in Antelias
- 6 that it also serves the cuisine of Yabani. So
- 7 we went there. First of all there was only
- 8 one waitress. We felt sorry for her she cant
- 9 serve all tables and the light in the
- 10 restaurant was too dim and the table we
- 11 were seated at was not clean. They asked
- 12 us to wait at another table to clean our
- 13 table. All the chairs were shaking and the
- 14 table as well. We sat at the 2nd table to wait
- 15 then they arranged our table and asked us
- 16 to move. The main meal came before the
- 17 appetizer. And the sauce was still sealed. It
- 18 is good but it wasn't easy to open it. We
- 19 had to remove the lid, remove the plastic
- 20 seal and put the lid back. We asked for two
- 21 beers. My friend asked for beer the first
- 22 time he got with the beer crackers and
- 23 carrots. He asked for another beer but this
- 24 time he didn't get the crackers and carrots.
- 25 When we ordered beer again it was ok, we

Interviewer notes:

- felt me more about the occasion and the friends - special.
- what can you tell more about the attitude of waitress
- did you say something about this how did it make you
- how did you feel about this
- here you are talking about the 2nd table and not your table right?
- how did this make you feel - did you do anything
- what were you feeling at this stage
- did you ask for the crackers and carrots?
- how did this make you feel.

1

26 got the crackers and carrots. The manager
27 was on his mobile all the time. It is
28 annoying, not nice at all no one says a
29 proper goodbye and there was delay in
30 serving the drinks and the water and we
31 felt that the place was very much over
32 priced. We paid 110,000 for 3 persons and
33 we didn't even feel full

why ~~was~~ did this annoy you

why
what annoyed you most,
the service, food.

① - in all these incidents ~~you didn't~~ I see you
didn't complain to the ~~waitress~~ waitress or
manager, can you tell me more why.

② what did you do or say after you left.

③ was it the first time you go to this place

④ ~~at~~ how would you have preferred they acted.

Appendix C: Revised template

1. Incident Context (CO)

1.1. Type of occasion

- 1.1.1. *Breakfast*
- 1.1.2. *Lunch*
- 1.1.3. *Dinner*
- 1.1.4. *Coffee/tea break*
- 1.1.5. *Snack/quick bite*
- 1.1.6. *Afternoon coffee*

1.2. Day of the week

- 1.2.1. *Weekend*
- 1.2.2. *Weekday*

1.3. Companion

- 1.3.1. *Work colleagues*
- 1.3.2. *Friends*
- 1.3.3. *Partner/spouse*
- 1.3.4. *Family*

1.4. Restaurant occupancy

- 1.4.1. *Half full*
- 1.4.2. *Empty*
- 1.4.3. *Full*

1.5. Purpose of the meal

- 1.5.1. *Casual gathering*
 - 1.5.1.1. *Friends gathering*
 - 1.5.1.2. *Family gathering*
 - 1.5.1.3. *Chilling after work with friends*
 - 1.5.1.4. *Having food/fulfilling hunger*
- 1.5.2. *Celebrations*
 - 1.5.2.1. *Birthday party*
 - 1.5.2.2. *Farewell party*
 - 1.5.2.3. *Company social event*
- 1.5.3. *Work related*
 - 1.5.3.1. *Business meeting*
 - 1.5.3.2. *Professional networking*
- 1.5.4. *Romantic date*

2. Type of service failure (SF)

2.1. Process

- 2.1.1. *Slow service*
- 2.1.2. *Unavailable service*
- 2.1.3. *Unorganised service*
- 2.1.4. *Understaffed/not enough waiters*
- 2.1.5. *Seating problems*
- 2.1.6. *Lost order/wrong order*
- 2.1.7. *Run out of items listed on the menu*
- 2.1.8. *Run out of key ingredients*
- 2.1.9. *Over priced*
- 2.1.10. *Wrong bill*
- 2.1.11. *Under performance in service in comparison with previous times*

2.2. Product

- 2.2.1. *Spoiled food*
- 2.2.2. *Foreign objects in food*
- 2.2.3. *Small portions*
- 2.2.4. *Cold food*
- 2.2.5. *Bad smell*
- 2.2.6. *Bad taste*
- 2.2.7. *Poor presentation*
- 2.2.8. *Food not cooked as ordered*
- 2.2.9. *Limited variety*
- 2.2.10. *Food is not fresh*
- 2.2.11. *Food is not cooked properly*

2.3. People

- 2.3.1. *Rude behaviour*
- 2.3.2. *Poor attitude*
- 2.3.3. *Unprofessional behaviour*
- 2.3.4. *Aloof (insensitive, inattentive)*
- 2.3.5. *Disrespectful*
- 2.3.6. *Unorganised*
- 2.3.7. *Inefficient*

2.4. Physical evidence

- 2.4.1. *Broken furniture*
- 2.4.2. *Dim lighting*
- 2.4.3. *Noisy*
- 2.4.4. *Cleanliness*
- 2.4.5. *Cold*
- 2.4.6. *Customers smoking in a closed area*

3. Negative emotions emerged based on causal agency (EM)

3.1. Other-attributed

- 3.1.1. *Staff related*
 - 3.1.1.1. *Irritated*
 - 3.1.1.2. *Angry*
 - 3.1.1.3. *Fed up*
 - 3.1.1.4. *Sympathetic*
 - 3.1.1.5. *Disappointed*
 - 3.1.1.6. *Disgusted*
 - 3.1.1.7. *Discontented*
 - 3.1.1.8. *Deceived*
 - 3.1.1.9. *Sadness*
 - 3.1.1.10. *Sarcastic*
- 3.1.2. *Other customers related*
 - 3.1.2.1. *Irritated*

3.2. Situational-attributed

- 3.2.1. *Product related*
 - 3.2.1.1. *Disgusted*
 - 3.2.1.2. *Nervous*
 - 3.2.1.3. *Lost appetite*
 - 3.2.1.4. *Nauseous*
 - 3.2.1.5. *Irritated*

3.2.2. *Environment related*

- 3.2.2.1. *Sadness*
- 3.2.2.2. *Frustrated*
- 3.2.2.3. *Lost appetite*
- 3.2.2.4. *Angry*
- 3.2.2.5. *Fed up*
- 3.2.2.6. *Restlessness*
- 3.2.2.7. *Irritated*
- 3.2.2.8. *Discontented*
- 3.2.2.9. *Disgusted*
- 3.2.2.10. *Disappointed*

3.3. *Self-attributed*

- 3.3.1. *Guilty*
- 3.3.2. *Regret*
- 3.3.3. *Irritated*
- 3.3.4. *Embarrassed*
- 3.3.5. *Worried*

4. **Emotions drivers (ED)**

4.1. *Employee-related*

- 4.1.1. *Staff over performed to resolve the problem*
- 4.1.2. *Staff are not responsible for the failure*
- 4.1.3. *Staff did not resolve the problem appropriately*
- 4.1.4. *Staff are responsible for the failure*
- 4.1.5. *Unprofessional behaviour of the staff*
- 4.1.6. *Staff giving unreasonable excuses*

4.2. *Service failure-related*

- 4.2.1. *Multiple failures occurring during the same meal*
- 4.2.2. *The failure is severe*
- 4.2.3. *Lower food quality than previous time*
- 4.2.4. *Under performance in the service in comparison with previous time*

4.3. *Personal-related*

- 4.3.1. *Personally responsible for the choice*
- 4.3.2. *Restless to finish and leave*

5. **CCB response (RS)**

5.1. *Inside the restaurant*

- 5.1.1. *Complain directly to the waiter*
- 5.1.2. *Fill in a complaint card*
- 5.1.3. *Do nothing*

5.2. *Outside the restaurant*

- 5.2.1. *Warn friends (NWOM)*
- 5.2.2. *Boycott the place*
- 5.2.3. *Badmouth the place (NWOM)*
- 5.2.4. *Do nothing*

6. Response drivers (RD)

6.1. Restaurant related

- 6.1.1. Good reputation of the restaurant*
- 6.1.2. Good reputation in handling complaints*
- 6.1.3. Bad reputation in handling complaints*

6.2. Employee related

- 6.2.1. Employees did not attempt to correct the failure*
- 6.2.2. Employees did not bear responsibility for the failure*
- 6.2.3. Employees did not apologise for the failure*
- 6.2.4. Employees can not correct the failure*
- 6.2.5. Employees are not responsible for the failure*
- 6.2.6. Insufficient number of employees*

6.3. Service failure related

- 6.3.1. Unexpected failure*
- 6.3.2. Restaurant is fully responsible for the failure*
- 6.3.3. Multiple failures in the same meal*
- 6.3.4. Same failure happening regularly*
- 6.3.5. Failure is severe*
- 6.3.6. Failure is not severe*

6.4. Personal related

- 6.4.1. Right to complain*
- 6.4.2. High expectations*
- 6.4.3. Pressure from companions to complain*
- 6.4.4. Fed up with the multiple failures*
- 6.4.5. Sympathise with the employees*
- 6.4.6. Usually do not like to complain*
- 6.4.7. Don't like confrontations*
- 6.4.8. Did not want to ruin the mood*
- 6.4.9. Did not want to make a scene*
- 6.4.10. Do not get easily disgusted*
- 6.4.11. Personally responsible for the choice*

7. Companion contribution (CC)

7.1. Confirm the failure

7.2. Pressure to complain

7.3. Responds to the failure

7.4. Point out the failure

8. Complaint Handling (CH)

8.1. Positive

8.1.1. Procedural

- 8.1.1.1. Investigate the problem*
- 8.1.1.2. Remove the plate/glass*
- 8.1.1.3. Replace the plate/glass*
- 8.1.1.4. Offer to order something else*

8.1.2. Distributive

- 8.1.2.1. Free dessert/coffee*
- 8.1.2.2. Do not include in the bill*
- 8.1.2.3. All meal on the house*

8.1.3. Interactional

- 8.1.3.1. Apology*

8.2. Negative

8.2.1. *Procedural*

8.2.1.1. *Do not offer to order something else*

8.2.1.2. *Do not investigate the problem*

8.2.2. *Distributive*

8.2.3. *Interactional*

8.2.3.1. *No apology*

8.2.3.2. *Rude response*

8.2.3.3. *Do not take responsibility for the problem*

8.2.3.4. *Give unreasonable excuses*

8.2.3.5. *Defensive response*

Appendix D: Final template

1. Incident Context (CO)

1.1. Type of occasion

- 1.1.1. *Lunch*
- 1.1.2. *Dinner*
- 1.1.3. *Afternoon coffee*

1.2. Day of the week

- 1.2.1. *Weekend*
- 1.2.2. *Weekday*

1.3. Companion

- 1.3.1. *Work colleagues*
- 1.3.2. *Friends*
- 1.3.3. *Partner/spouse*
- 1.3.4. *Family*

1.4. Restaurant occupancy

- 1.4.1. *Half full*
- 1.4.2. *Empty*

1.5. Purpose of the meal

- 1.5.1. *Casual gathering*
 - 1.5.1.1. *Friends gathering*
 - 1.5.1.2. *Having food/fulfilling hunger*
- 1.5.2. *Celebrations*
 - 1.5.2.1. *Birthday party*
 - 1.5.2.2. *Farewell party*
 - 1.5.2.3. *Company social event*
- 1.5.3. *Work related*
 - 1.5.3.1. *Business meeting*
- 1.5.4. *Romantic date*

1.6. Past experience

- 1.6.1. *First timer*
- 1.6.2. *Returning customer*
- 1.6.3. *Loyal customer*

2. Type of service failure (SF)

2.1. Process

- 2.1.1. *Slow service*
- 2.1.2. *Unavailable service*
- 2.1.3. *Unorganised service*
- 2.1.4. *Under staffed/not enough waiters*
- 2.1.5. *Seating problems*
- 2.1.6. *Lost order*
- 2.1.7. *Wrong order*
- 2.1.8. *Run out of an item listed on the menu*
- 2.1.9. *Run out of key ingredients*
- 2.1.10. *Over priced*
- 2.1.11. *Inaccurate bill*

2.2. Product

- 2.2.1. *Spoiled food*
- 2.2.2. *Foreign objects in food*
- 2.2.3. *Small portions*
- 2.2.4. *Cold food*
- 2.2.5. *Bad smell*
- 2.2.6. *Bad taste*
- 2.2.7. *Poor presentation*
- 2.2.8. *Food not cooked as ordered*
- 2.2.9. *Limited variety*
- 2.2.10. *Food not fresh*
- 2.2.11. *Food not cooked properly*

2.3. People

- 2.3.1. *Rude behaviour*
- 2.3.2. *Poor attitude*
- 2.3.3. *Unprofessional behaviour*
- 2.3.4. *Aloof (insensitive, inattentive)*
- 2.3.5. *Disrespectful*
- 2.3.6. *Unorganised*
- 2.3.7. *Inefficient*

2.4. Physical evidence

- 2.4.1. *Broken furniture*
- 2.4.2. *Dim lighting*
- 2.4.3. *Noisy restaurant*
- 2.4.4. *Unclean*
- 2.4.5. *Cold*
- 2.4.6. *Customers smoking in a closed area*

3. Negative emotions emerged based on causal agency (EM)

3.1. Other-attributed

- 3.1.1. *Irritation*
- 3.1.2. *Anger*
- 3.1.3. *Fed up*
- 3.1.4. *Disappointment*
- 3.1.5. *Disrespect*
- 3.1.6. *Deceit*

3.2. Situational-attributed

- 3.2.1. *Disgust*
- 3.2.2. *Irritation*
- 3.2.3. *Fed up*
- 3.2.4. *Anger*
- 3.2.5. *Disappointment*
- 3.2.6. *Worry*

3.3. Self-attributed

- 3.3.1. *Guilt*
- 3.3.2. *Regret*
- 3.3.3. *Embarrassment*

4. Type of CCB response (RS)

4.1. Primary involved

4.1.1. Primary voice complaint

- 4.1.1.1. Complain directly to the waiter
- 4.1.1.2. Complain directly to the supervisor/manager
- 4.1.1.3. Fill in a feedback card

4.2. Primary uninvolved

4.2.1. Exit

- 4.2.1.1. Never go again
- 4.2.1.2. Never go again for the same branch

4.2.2. Private NWOM

- 4.2.2.1. To advise friends and relatives not to go
- 4.2.2.2. To say negative things about the restaurant to other people
- 4.2.2.3. To share my story with others

4.2.3. No action/do nothing

4.3. Secondary involved

4.3.1. Secondary voice complaint

- 4.3.1.1. Complain directly to the waiter
- 4.3.1.2. Complain directly to the supervisor/manager
- 4.3.1.3. Fill in a feedback card

4.3.2. Retaliation

- 4.3.2.1. Do not leave tips

4.4. Secondary uninvolved

4.4.1. Post redress exit

- 4.4.1.1. Never go again
- 4.4.1.2. Never go again to the same branch
- 4.4.1.3. Never order the same thing again
- 4.4.1.4. Never go again for the same purpose

4.4.2. Post redress private NWOM

- 4.4.2.1. To share my story with others
- 4.4.2.2. To vent anger and frustration
- 4.4.2.3. To say negative things about the restaurant to other people
- 4.4.2.4. To advise friends and relatives not to go

4.4.3. Post redress Public NWOM

- 4.4.3.1. Write about the incident on social media

4.4.4. No further action

5. Stimuli of negative emotions and CCB responses (SER)

5.1. Situation related

5.1.1. Staff behaviour

- 5.1.1.1. Unprofessional behaviour of the staff
- 5.1.1.2. Staff giving unreasonable excuses
- 5.1.1.3. Staff are not well informed

5.1.2. Staff performance when resolving the failure

- 5.1.2.1. Staff did not/will not attempt to resolve the problem
- 5.1.2.2. Staff did not bear responsibility for the failure
- 5.1.2.3. Staff over performed to resolve the problem
- 5.1.2.4. Staff did not resolve the problem appropriately

5.1.3. Failure traits

- 5.1.3.1. Multiple failures occurring during the same meal
- 5.1.3.2. The failure is severe
- 5.1.3.3. The failure is not severe
- 5.1.3.4. Service failure happening again

5.1.4. Self-related

- 5.1.4.1. I did not want to ruin the mood
- 5.1.4.2. I did not want to make a scene
- 5.1.4.3. Time constraint
- 5.1.4.4. I was occupied with other things (partying, taking pictures, chatting, working)
- 5.1.4.5. I sympathise with the employees
- 5.1.4.6. I am responsible for the group
- 5.1.4.7. Getting hungry
- 5.1.4.8. Kids are involved
- 5.1.4.9. Other people on the table involved
- 5.1.4.10. Could not fulfill the purpose of the meal

5.2. Attribution

5.2.1. Responsibility

- 5.2.1.1. Staff are not responsible for the failure
- 5.2.1.2. Restaurant is fully responsible for the failure
- 5.2.1.3. Personally responsible for the choice

5.2.2. Stability

- 5.2.2.1. Same failure happening regularly

5.2.3. Controllability

- 5.2.3.1. Staff can not correct the failure
- 5.2.3.2. Staff can control the cause of the failure

5.3. Psychographics

5.3.1. Positive attitude towards complaining

- 5.3.1.1. It is my right to complain
- 5.3.1.2. I am used to complaining on social media
- 5.3.1.3. I always complain

5.3.2. Negative attitude towards complaining

- 5.3.2.1. Usually I do not like to complain

5.3.3. Personality traits

- 5.3.3.1. I am not a trouble maker
- 5.3.3.2. I do not like confrontations
- 5.3.3.3. I do not get easily disgusted
- 5.3.3.4. I do not like to complain more than once
- 5.3.3.5. I do not tolerate mistakes

5.4. Relationship between consumer and restaurant

- 5.4.1. I had high expectations for the restaurant
- 5.4.2. I am a loyal customer/I like the place

5.5. Social

- 5.5.1. Point out the failure
- 5.5.2. Help confirm the failure
- 5.5.3. Put pressure on consumer to complain
- 5.5.4. Respond to the failure on behalf of the consumer

Appendix E: Individual consent form



Faculty of Business and Law Informed Consent Form for research participants

Title of Study:	A critical incident understanding of how Lebanese consumers respond to service failures in restaurants.
Person(s) conducting the research:	Hiba Koussaifi
Programme of study:	Marketing Travel and Tourism Management
Address of the researcher for correspondence:	Newcastle Business School Northumbria University City Campus East Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 8ST UK
Telephone:	+44 (0) 191 227 4849
E-mail:	hiba.koussaifi@northumbria.ac.uk
Description of the broad nature of the research:	The aim of this research is to understand how Lebanese consumers respond to dissatisfactory incidents they encounter at restaurants.
Description of the involvement expected of participants including the broad nature of questions to be answered or events to be observed or activities to be undertaken, and the expected time commitment:	<p>The expected involvement of the research participants is as follows:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Voice Recorded Diary: for a period of <u>two months</u> every time the participants encounter a dissatisfactory incident at a restaurant they will briefly <u>voice record their story</u> within 24 hours of the incident. The story will include details such as when and where the incident took place, the occasion for eating out, what happened, how the participant felt, how did he /she respond, what was the reaction of the restaurant staff if they were confronted with the problem, etc. Detailed explanation of when and how to record the stories will be shared with the participant prior to commencing data collection. Sharing the recorded file with the researcher: Once the stories are voice recorded the participant will inform the researcher. The files can be emailed to the researcher, sent via applications such as WhatsApp, uploaded on a secure cloud, or physically collected from the participant.

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	<p>3. Interview: (30 to 45 min) once the researcher receives the voice recorded stories or diaries she will set a date for an interview with the participant to further discuss his/her story about the dissatisfactory incident. The interview will be scheduled within four weeks from the date of the incident.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The interviews will be semi-structures and based on the recorded incident. • The questions will be exploratory in nature and focus on the incident and the response of the participant. • The interview will be recorded with a digital voice recorder and transcribed. <p>4. Review Transcript: Approximately 30 minutes</p> <p>5. Any other meetings deemed necessary for the research upon negotiation with the participant.</p>
<p>Description of how the data you provide will be securely stored and/or destroyed upon completion of the project.</p>	<p>Anonymity will be assured by omitting the names of the participants, the organisations and people that they name during the interview in the transcripts.</p> <p>Interview transcripts will be emailed back to participants for reviewing and agreement. Participants are free to make any amendments, deletion, or additions to the transcripts.</p> <p>Confidentiality will be maintained in terms of storing data securely on computer and ensuring hard copies of transcripts and field notes are stored in a locked cupboard.</p> <p>All data will be stored securely either electronically on computer or in hard copy version in a locked cupboard.</p> <p>As part of the data analysis process, hard copies of the anonymised transcripts (raw data) may be given to the doctoral supervision team to review and ensure that the researcher's analysis has resonance. Hard copies will be returned to the researcher and will not remain in the possession of the doctoral supervision team.</p>

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	<p>Data will be used and reproduced as case studies in a variety of research publications.</p> <p>At the end of the project, all records and data collected related to the project will be handled in accordance to the university Research Records Retention Schedule and the appropriate actions will be taken as to either securely destroy them or retain them.</p> <p>This research study has been approved by the Faculty Research Ethics Committee</p>
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Information obtained in this study, including this consent form, will be kept strictly confidential (i.e. will not be passed to others) and anonymous (i.e. individuals and organisations will not be identified *unless this is expressly excluded in the details given above*).

Data obtained through this research may be reproduced and published in a variety of forms and for a variety of audiences related to the broad nature of the research detailed above. It will not be used for purposes other than those outlined above without your permission.

Participation is entirely voluntary and participants may withdraw at any time.

By signing this consent form, you are indicating that you fully understand the above information and agree to participate in this study on the basis of the above information.

Participant's signature:

Date:

Student's signature:

Date:

Please keep one copy of this form for your own records

Appendix F: Peer-reviewed conference papers

Conference	Title of paper	Date	Details
Academy of Marketing	A critical incident understanding of how consumers respond to service failures at restaurants in Lebanon.	July 2014	Paper accepted but I couldn't attend the conference because of the health issues I suffered from in 2014.
Academy of Marketing	"Tell Me What Happened"; Uncovering Live, Real and Rich Complaint Stories	July 2016	Paper presented
Academy of Marketing	Underlining the role of companions in the complaint process in a restaurant context	July 2017	Paper presented

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