



**Toward an integrated process model of consumer
grudgeholding: Does gender make any difference?**

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Abstract

As consumers or customers, when we go into a shop and buy a product or, these days, when we buy something online, we expect not only the product itself to be fit for purpose but we also expect that we, the customers, get good customer service. If we get good or excellent customer service, we leave the shop feeling satisfied and positive in some way. How do shops, online or otherwise, or any other organisations, such as banks, hospitals or universities help to ensure that their employees deliver the appropriate customer service? It is still the main challenge. Thus, there are instances when a customer does not get the service that they deserve, or believe that they deserve. A happy, satisfied customer may perhaps tell others and thus encourage others to buy or go to that particular shop or organisation thus benefiting the business (new customers, who will spend money). However, there is evidence that an angry, upset dissatisfied customer will almost certainly tell five, or perhaps more, people of their bad experience. This is, clearly, bad for the business in question. No wonder, then, that businesses want, and need, to ensure that they have happy, satisfied customers and not dissatisfied or grudgeholders.

Given the importance of customer satisfaction to businesses/organisations, the literature in this area demonstrates that there is still much to further understand about not only customer satisfaction but, importantly, customer dissatisfaction. Dissatisfaction can be short and easily forgotten and it might be argued that this might not negatively affect a business/organisation too much in terms of future business. However, if a customer experiences or believes that they have suffered a great deal of negative emotions such as anger, fear, disappointment, betrayal and/or disgust, as well as perhaps telling many people, potential future customers about their bad experience they may well, also, take more direct action in the form of either making a formal complaint to the business/organisation, or perhaps retaliating in some way either immediately or at the nearest opportunity. Such a customer may hold a grudge against the business/organisation which is not only bad for the customer for their mental health (holding a grudge is negative) but is also bad for the business/organisation, too.

Unfortunately, despite vital advances in dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour research, the psychological cognitive-emotive process underlying consumers' coping behaviour have been neglected in the literature, as major work on this issue did not take into account the different negative emotions responsible for grudge and their impact on the grudgeholding coping responses. Dealing with those customers who are more than dissatisfied is time consuming for a business/organisation. Time is money. It is therefore

important that, if businesses/organisations are to better understand their customers' feeling and thinking to be able to predict their behaviours in order to make them happy returners instead of angry revengers. Therefore, it is essential to understand the experiences of grudgeholding customers through a process model and to look closely at issues related to grudgeholding, including the wide range of retaliatory behaviours. These might well vary according to factors such as the cost of the product (dissatisfaction might be greater for a goods or service costing a lot of money compared to something costing very little) but it may also vary according to individual characteristics of the customers themselves. Gender also plays its part, perhaps, that is, men and women may possibly think, feel and behave differently when it comes to holding grudge or retaliating as always controversial disputes exist in terms of gender differences. For example, females complain and spread the word more aligning with their communal stereotypical nature, and males like bargains and shop to win according to their agentic stereotypical nature.

There is a need to further explore the consumer grudgeholding behaviour and why emotion is an important factor when talking about grudgeholding, the behaviours undertaken by those who hold a grudge and the impact of grudges on businesses/organisations if businesses/organisations are to better deal with their customers. Therefore, a cognitive-emotive process model is developed based mainly on cognitive appraisal theory to better understand consumers grudgeholding through deeper insight on their cognitions and emotions. The model is designed due to the lack of attention to the role of emotion in the dissatisfying marketplace experience. The model presents cognitive appraisal as the key element in the evaluation of grudgeholding consumer stress and aggression. Stressful appraisal outcomes are posited to elicit emotive reactions that, in combination with cognitive appraisal, impact the type of coping strategy used by the grudgeholder. Two coping strategies (problem focused and emotion focused) are recognized and discussed. Key propositions are presented to answer some questions about consumer grudgeholding behaviours such as (causes of grudge, product or service involved, the cost, the emotions generated, the coping behaviours like complaining and word-of-mouth, the corrective actions, the current emotions, the purchase intentions and future behaviours).

To achieve the aims of this study, the research described in this thesis adopts the positivist research, quantitative research approach. According to the exploratory nature of this research, self-administered questionnaires are used for data generation. Closed and open-ended questions (specifically propping questions) were both used in the research as a way of motivating the respondent's memory to retrieve a previous experience and recall actions and behaviours. Using both closed and open-ended questions provides the research with

expected and unexpected answers. The research used non-probability sampling; namely, convenience sampling consisted of 786 responses to undergraduates and postgraduates British students whose age groups range from 18 to 39. The survey data were subsequently edited, coded and entered in SPSS 20 for analysis.

The ultimate contribution of this study stems from explaining the consumer grudgeholding phenomenon by designing a cognitive-emotive process model that takes the role of consumer's emotion into account. The findings revealed that emotion made a critical difference, especially anger. Gender gap was relatively small between the young British males and females. Angry females shared their negative experiences with others more than angry males. Besides, females shop to love and males shop to win.

Declaration

I declare that this research is developed by me for the purpose of the PhD program in Brunel University and has not been submitted for any other degree or qualification to any other academic organization.

Boushra Ghanam

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Chapter 1 : Context and Purpose of the Study

1.1 Introduction

This opening chapter introduces the research background and overall research problem of this study. In providing a context for understanding the study topic, the focus of this research is (1) to provide an integrative view of consumer grudgeholding by developing a process model of consumer grudgeholding based mainly on cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), (2) to present research propositions to test the relationship hypothesized within the framework, (3) to provide illustrative support for theory-based propositions, (4) studying gender differences between female and male consumers when holding grudge against a company/organization that offended them and finally, (5) providing some understandings for practical managers on how to deter consumer grudgeholding, retain old customers, and attract new ones.

This chapter is organized as follows: Section 1.1 describes the research background. Section 1.2 identifies the research problem, aims and objectives. In section 1.3, the significance of the research is discussed. Finally in section 1.4, organization of the thesis to address the research development.

1.2 Research Background

Prior research highlighted different aspects of consumer satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and complaining behaviour. For examples, exit, voice, complaining word-of-mouth, Loyalty, retaliation, are addressed widely in the Marketing literature (Hirschman, 1970, 1974; Day, 1984; Hunt and Hunt, 1988, 1990; Singh, 1990; Huefner and Hunt, 2000, Blodgett and Granbois, 1992; Lee and Feick, 2001, Grégoire et al., 2009, 2010; Kim and Chen, 2010; Oliver, 2010, Ferguson and Johnston 2011, Ro; 2014, Kaur and Sharma, 2015). Consumer grudgeholding has received little attention in the marketing and consumer behaviour setting (Hunt et al., 1988; Aron, 2001, Aron et al., 2007, 2008; Bunker and Ball, 2008). Furthermore, most conceptual and empirical work studying consumer response to dissatisfying experiences dismissed the role of consumer's emotion (Bagozzi et al., 2002; Zourrig et al., 2009). Some studies addressed satisfaction/dissatisfaction as emotion itself triggered through the disconfirmation process (Day, 1984). Consumers are emotional, too

(Bagozzi et al.,1999). Emotion is an essential ingredient to almost all decisions (Murray, 2013). Therefore, the research aims to build the gap of consumer emotion by integrating emotion into consumer grudgeholding behaviour. showing that consumers' emotions differ according to different types of cognitive appraisal and play a crucial role in identifying the grudgeholders' coping responses.

In 1990, Hunt and Hunt reintroduced Twedt's concept of consumer grudge-holding suggesting the topic to be grudgeholding as one word. Hunt and Huefner (1992) collected their data by gathering some of customers' stories to see the existence of a problem, avoidance, how the complaints differ according to different brands and shops and the customers' behaviour related so they asked the respondents to write the story of their avoidance with the name of the brand, product or shop that cause their bad experience. After their study, Aron (2001) developed a conceptual model of consumer grudgeholding and studied the differences between youngers and elders in the context of consumer grudgeholding (Aron et al., 2007). Otto et al (2004) continued in the same subject using the same procedures and instrument.

Therefore, the research is intended to take the study of consumer grudgeholding introduced by Twedt, developed by Hunt (for example, Hunt et al, 1988, Hunt and hunt, 1990) and Aron extended model (2001) to add the cognitive-emotive dimension to the subject based on emotion and appraisal studies.

1.3 Research Problems, Aims and Objectives

The primary aim of the study is to develop a cognitive-emotive process model of consumer grudgeholding integrating several streams of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour research with theory of cognitive appraisal as its main foundation. It combines the confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm, Hirschman's theory of exit, voice, and loyalty (1970), Hunt et al (1988), Aron model of grudgeholding (2001) and cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1966, 1991; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). These varied strands of research indeed complement each other and provide a strong process model representing the consumer grudgeholding behaviour process to guide future research. To date, however, no one has entirely combined these strands of research into one model that explains and predicts consumer grudgeholding as one process of cognition, emotion and coping response. Integrating emotion in the model is a contribution to knowledge of supporting the idea that consumer behaviour is a psychological and social process.

Yet, consumer grudgeholding research is still in need to a psychoanalytical study with respect to the emotional factor as parallel as to the cognition factor, which can be studied building on the appraisal theories (for example, Lazarus, 1991). Building on the idea that culture influences our thinking feeling and behaviour as human first and as customers next (for examples, Kawanishi,1995; Cross, 1995; Takaku et al., 2001; Chun et al., 2006; Hardie et al., 2006; Zourrig et al., 2009), there is a remaining gap that needs to be addressed, since there is no theoretical similar study to the suggested model and it will be tested empirically in a new cultural context, United kingdom as a more likely idiocentrics country than allocentrics. Therefore, the research is meant to address the consumer grudgeholding experience from its beginning when grudge is initiated and developed into a long lasting feeling of hatred adhered with (anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal, etcetera) which may persist or go. Besides, the research will answer some questions about gender differences in the context of grudgeholding experience.

“The objective of academic research, whether conducted by sociologists, political scientists, or anthropologists, is to try to find answers to theoretical questions within their respective fields. In contrast, the objective of applied social research is to use data so that decisions can be made” (Rubin, 1983, p.6-7).Hence, the research goals were articulated from the conceptualisation and hypotheses development presented in Table (3.2).

Therefore, the objectives of the research are summarized as the following:

- The first objective is to revisit the current knowledge on consumer grudgeholding against business. This research tries not just to understand the intended future behaviour of the grudgeholders, but also seeks an explanation to their cognitive-emotive behaviour.
- The second objective is to develop a process model of consumer grudgeholding integrating several streams of models and theories from marketing and psychology. It merges equity theory (Adams, 1969), theory of exit, voice and loyalty (Hirschman, 1970), disconfirmation of expectation (Oliver, 1977), attribution theory (Weiner, 1985), appraisal theories specifically model of stress and coping (Lazarus,1991), Aron’s model of grudgeholding (2001).
- The third objective is to test the proposed model empirically to show the process of consumer grudgeholding initiation and developing, the cognitive-emotive crucial part, the variety of responses enacted by grudgeholders explained and based mostly on the psychological ideology described mainly by Lazarus (1966-1991): Appraisal→ emotional response→ coping.

- The fourth objective is to determine whether differences between males and females exist regarding holding a grudge against business.
- The final objective is to offer companies and organizations some ideas on how they can lessen the negative impact of consumer grudgeholding and direction for future research. In acknowledging each of these empirical research objectives, theoretical and empirical data were collected for an analytical purpose. The methodological approach for the study will be analysed below.

1.4 Significance of the Research

Grudgeholding is an important subject that needs lots of exploring. It is important because it creates reciprocal bad relationship (perpetrator vs victim). Holding grudge has substantial and continuing negative affect for the person who pertain the victim role (for example, perpetuate suffering, distress, weakness, anxiety, depression and enduring the unpleasant and unhealthy effects of being angry), (Baumeister et al.,1998; Enright, 2001). Holding grudge may have costs beyond the emotional distress itself especially when it reduces chances of success and happiness apart from the transgression.

Grudgeholding conveys serious effects to the offending marketers because it destroys their past, current and potential relationships (Aron, 2001). Baumeister et al (1998) suggested that holding grudge can probably lead to the termination of the relationship with effects on both sides. Besides, there is a significant association between committing violent crimes and holding grudge (Stone, 2007). Consumer grudgeholding is not a simple dissatisfaction, it is the whole process of interaction between cognitions and emotions to identify the type of coping strategies used by the wronged consumer.

Besides, understanding the mechanisms by which the wronged customers cope with the stressful encounters is a major challenge for business and researchers. The main problem is when describing consumers as either satisfied or dissatisfied rather than pointing out to the specific positive emotions experienced (happy, excited, joyful, amazed, thrilled, astonished, empathetic, hopeful, optimistic, loving, sentimental, romantic, passionate, etcetera) and the negative emotions experienced (irritated, angry, raged, frustrated, worried, nervous, depressed, sad, afraid, scared, ashamed, embarrassed, humiliated, guilty, regret, etcetera), (see Richins, 1997). According to Godwin and colleagues (1999, p.146), “ consumers are people first and consumers second”, it is more important for products and service providers to have a comprehensive psychological understanding of the consumption behaviour to be able to solve or avoid any consumer-business conflict.

Therefore, the lack of addressing the role of emotion in consumer response and nonresponse in most of the conceptual and empirical work related to consumer behaviour research, gives a big advantage to this study. Each emotion (for example, anger, disgust, fear, indifference, disappointment, empathy, etcetera) is triggered by an evaluation of the event or set of events which caused the stressful disequilibrium that urges the need to restore the normal balance. The disequilibrium appraisal outcomes are suggested to provoke emotive responses that, in combination with cognitive appraisal, influence the type of coping response used by the consumer. Yet, the research is considerably important for both academics and practitioners since it provides a profound insights on the psychological mechanism of consumer grudgeholding with a detailed theoretical and empirical study of gender differences.

The research presents an updated model of consumer grudgeholding behaviour process based mainly on Aron's model (2001) and appraisal theory mainly theory of stress and coping (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), which introduced into the consumer behaviour literature by Godwin et al (1995-1999) adding several contributions to knowledge. First, the model is different than Aron's model by including cognition-emotion as main part in the grudgeholding process. Second, the model is unique by integrating several streams of customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour research and psychology. It merges the confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm, attribution theory, equity theory, Hirschman's theory of exit, voice, and loyalty (1970), and Lazarus's theory of appraisal (1950-2002). These various streams of research actually complement each other and provide a strong theoretical framework to guide future research. To date, however, it is the only model that contributed to knowledge by integrating appraisal theories of emotion into modelling the process of grudgeholding. Third, the model is treating consumer grudgeholding behaviour as dynamic process by recognizing that most grudgeholders' behaviours (for example, complaining, negative word-of-mouth, exit) are largely dependent on the outcome of the marketer response "redress seeking" or "perceived justice" as recommended by Blodgett and Granbois (1992, p.93). By including the marketer response or "perceived justice" as recommended by Blodgett and Granbois (1992) or technically the appraised outcome of the aggrieved voice into the consumer grudgeholding model, it creates much greater insight into why consumers engage in different types of coping responses and sometimes several phases of cognitive-emotive appraisal and re-appraisal which end by any of the consequences (long lasting grudge, indifference, or forgiveness). Finally, the research is contributed to knowledge by studying whether males and females are different in terms of holding grudge against business.

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

This study is organised in seven chapters, in addition to the references and appendices. This first chapter discusses the research context, and gives an overview about consumer grudgeholding in theory and practise. Then it illuminates the research problem, aim and objectives necessary to clarify consumer grudgeholding questions. Then, the theoretical and empirical importance of studying consumer grudgeholding for individuals and business. Chapter two addresses the theoretical basis of the research by revising the existing literature of consumer behaviour (grudgeholding) in marketing and psychology in order to build the model. Chapter three concentrates on building the consumer grudgeholding model, reviewing some gender literature and setting the propositions of the research. Chapter four addresses the research methodology. Results and findings are detailed in Chapter five and discussed in Chapter six that ends with the contributions of knowledge, implications, limitations and indication to future research.

Chapter 2 : Literature Review and Contributing Theories

2.1 Introduction

Individuals judge their outcomes in life as happy or not, and consumers judge their experience in shopping as satisfactory or not. Companies and organizations have never stopped trying to best deliver satisfactory outcomes to their consumers and clients. They know how satisfaction encourages repeat purchasing and positive word-of-mouth which in turn secures continued stream of profitability. They might get the idea of the beneficial role of satisfaction in their business, but they are still struggling with dissatisfaction and its destructive effects on the current and future returns. Defective products, slow and poor services, cheating and betrayal, insulting and disrespecting, unfair relationship and many other problems can easily cause dissatisfaction or even more than that, that is, grudgeholding. Perceiving personal injustice by a consumer ignites a resentment case which soon evolve to grudge. Grudgeholding is extremely dangerous because of the intense negative emotions which push the grudgeholders for revenge in different means. Grudgeholding may lead to revenge, retaliation, hostility, and vengeance. The possibility of inflicting harm in return for perceived threat or insult or as simply getting back at the source of offence, can have many irrational and destructive consequences for the person seeking vengeance as well as for the target. It is an important subject for both academics and practitioners. Marketers should be experienced enough to handle any conflict of which consumers feel severely wronged and any retribution against the offending company/organization is justified to deter their negative emotions (for example, anger, betrayal, disappointment, disgust, etcetera)

The research described in this dissertation is concerned with consumer grudgeholding. This chapter first critically discusses consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction before exploring what triggers these emotional responses. Consumer satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction is part of consumer behaviour. As consumers, as human beings, our behaviours are explained by the theories of human behaviour, and this is looked at next in this chapter, that is, what is said to explain our behaviours. Third, the research shows how grudgeholding is discussed in literature and identifies the gaps of the research (that is, emotion and gender roles). Finally, there is the designing of the cognitive-emotive process model of consumer grudgeholding.

2.2 Consumer Grudgeholding

The origin of this study goes back to the Hirschman little idea about 'exit', 'voice' and 'loyalty' via introducing them as some crucial responses to any dissatisfying experience. Hence, the research described in this dissertation identified voice (complaining and negative word-of-mouth) as problem focused coping and exit as emotion focused coping response Hunt et al. (1988) extended his study, suggested a need for clarifying the terms exit and voice, and tried to differentiate between his definitions of loyalty from the meaning of most readers. They also added some terms regarding consumers' responses to dissatisfaction like avoidance, retaliation, and grudgeholding. Grudgeholding as a concept was first introduced by Twedit then it had been developed into conceptual framework and an exploratory study by Hunt, et al. (1988), Hunt and Hunt (1990), Huefner and Hunt (1992,1994), Hunt (1993), Aron (2001) and Aron et al. (2006, 2007, 2008). Aron's study of consumer grudgeholding had a model which incorporated the notion of the 'flashpoint', and he ended by saying: At what point does the accumulation of dissatisfying events surpass some threshold and result in the flashpoint and grudgeholding behaviour? The research described in this dissertation looks at this issue.

Research to date, however has focused mainly on either satisfaction or dissatisfaction without paying attention to the psychological part of the consumer-business relation specifically when consumers are not just dissatisfied but grudge holders. Following the work of Bagozzi and colleagues (2002) and Oliver (2010) in his profound research of consumer behaviour, the research described in this dissertation builds on the work of Aron's (2001) consumer grudgeholding but takes it further by incorporating the mechanism of drawing upon basic research in psychology (for example, Oatley and Johnson-Liard, 1987; Smith and Lazarus, 1990; Lazarus, 1991; Scherer et al., 2001; Verduyn et al., 2011) and adapt the theories to the study of consumer grudgeholding.

From a psychological perspective, this research consider grudge as potentially chronic problem of heavy negative emotion that is taking long time to heal making the key difference between dissatisfaction and grudgeholding. The research demonstrates the grudgeholding phenomenon through the interplays of three components namely, cognitive appraisal (primary and secondary), emotions and coping behaviour building on the appraisal theories. The next section gives a broader vision of the grudgeholding phenomenon

2.2.1 Dissatisfaction versus Grudgeholding

Researching about consumer grudgeholding requires thorough research in consumer dissatisfaction as well. The research shows that there is an extreme case of dissatisfaction which begins after the “flashpoint” (Aron, 2001). It is what is called “consumer grudgeholding initiation”. The difference is due to the intensely negative emotion loaded that make it harder and longer to get rid and restore the normal situation. Yet, the research will distinguish the grudge from dissatisfaction by the persisting negative emotions evoked.

The topic of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (see appendix H for more knowledge) grew quickly in response to the consumer raised issues after 1970. Several conferences were held (for example, Day 1977, Hunt, 1977) and researchers began conducting studies in the marketing literature. Some were interested in measuring satisfaction levels (Andreasen, 1977). Others searched for the causes and sources of dissatisfaction (Day and Landon, 1976). Some discussed the theoretical sides of satisfaction (Oliver, 1980), and others concentrated on consumer’ reactions to dissatisfaction such as switching brands and avoid the offending store, complain to the seller or to a third party, and telling others about the unsatisfactory product (Richins, 1983). Others like Smith et al. (1999) designed a model that provides a framework for considering how service failure context (type and magnitude) and service recovery attributes (compensation, response speed, apology, initiation) influence customer evaluations through disconfirmation and perceived justice, thereby influencing satisfaction with the service failure/recovery encounter.

Day and Landon (1977) distinguished the behavioural responses from the non-behavioural ones in terms of dissatisfied consumer behaviours, and described responses as either public or private. Singh (1988) talked about three categories according to the same subject, which are voice, third party, and private actions. First of those groups, voice which is directed to internal parties (for example, retailer, manufacturer), the second is private actions which include negative word-of-mouth and exit behaviour, then the last one, third party that includes actions directed toward external agencies and legal authorities. Singh also distinguished between activists who are more likely to take actions and seek redress comparing to passives. Some dissatisfied customers will complain, and others will not. Customers may complain to internal groups such as employees or to external groups like consumer agencies.

Hirschman (1970) classified dissatisfaction responses into three groups exit, voice, and loyalty. Loyalty in Hirschman’s model refers to the consumers who are dissatisfied with company/organization, but because of their loyalty they stay silently. Hirschman model of

exit and voice (1970) was the cornerstone which has guided to much more work in the customer behaviour field. Hirschman discussed the customers' reactions to the firms and other organizations' failing showing two ways of dissatisfaction responses: One, exit, which means the termination of relationship such as leaving the organization or/and stop buying its products. Two, complaining, that is voice, which is explained by expressing the customers' dissatisfaction through complaining to the management, or to other parties such as any authority or anyone who cares to listen. Yet, Hirschman summarized the causes of exit and voice by performance and quality decline. "The deterioration in performance is reflected most typically and generally, that is, for both firms and other organization, in an absolute or comparative deterioration of the quality of the product or service provided" (Hirschman, 1970, p.4).

Hirschman's model was expanded by Hunt and Huefner to include the term retaliation. Huefner and Hunt (1994) added "Customer vigilantes" to Hirschman model to refer to consumers who act with revenge. They also criticized Hirschman's model by including loyalty in that meaning of staying silently does not tell always of loyalty. Furthermore, dissatisfied customers who face an offending experience leave without coming back, and they might go to the competitor with their family and friends (Salgaonkar and Mekoth, 2004). According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010), a satisfied customer tells three people about a good product experience, while a dissatisfied customer gripes to eleven people on average. The consequences of bad relationships between firms and customers may range from mild to very strong (for example, complaining to the seller or directly to the manufacturer or even to a special agency, avoiding repurchasing the same product, spreading word-of-mouth, warning friends, initiating legal issues, or theft, vandalism, anti-brand websites, and in some cases physical abuse of service personnel), (for example, Day and Landon, 1977; Day, 1980; Bearden and Teel, 1983; Singh and Rogers, 1988; Ross and Williams, 1992, Andreassen and Streukens, 2013; Lee et al., 2013; Berger, 2014). Thus, what distinguish dissatisfaction from grudgeholding is the duration of the negative emotion.

Emotion is comprised as a part of satisfaction and dissatisfaction constructs by Woodruff and colleagues (Woodruff et al., 1983; Woodruff, 1993; Woodruff and Flint, 2006). The emotional response expressed in feelings, and is conceptually distinct from cognitive response can be satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Day, 1983). It is an emotional state resulting from a process of joining cognitive evaluations (Sirgy, 1984). Emotion literature conceptualizes dissatisfaction as a "distress" emotion (Ortony et al. 1988), that happens when an incident is appraised negatively or disruptive to objectives or needs (Scherer

1984). Consumer dissatisfaction is an emotional response to some form of negative cognitive thinking following a purchase (Boote, 1998). Others describe dissatisfaction as “a negative term, related to anger, hatred, and disgust” (Storm and Storm, 1987, p.811); the resemblance of anger and dissatisfaction is also apparent from the literature, which reports significant correlations between anger and dissatisfaction (Folkes et al., 1987).

Consumer dissatisfaction that turns to grudgeholding is extremely dangerous, because it charges customer's behaviour and future attitude in a negative, emotional way toward brands, products, and companies (Huefner and Hunt, 1994; Hunt and Hunt, 1990; Thota and Wright, 2006). A customer who is highly dissatisfied with a product will hold a grudge against that product trying to even avoiding it in the future with a strong emotionally charged attitudes (Aron, 2001). Grudgeholding is distinguished from dissatisfaction by the negative heavily loaded emotion that directs toward the source of offence. One problem faces market research is describing all aggrieved customers as dissatisfied while there are mild dissatisfaction that describes a customer who is merely annoyed with the service and strong dissatisfaction that shows the strong feeling of hatred and betrayal (Schneider and Bowen, 1999). When customer dissatisfaction is extreme and enduring, it turns the condition to grudgeholding and avoidance in the future (Thota and Wright, 2006). Thus, consumer grudgeholding is not another word for dissatisfaction. Grudgeholding is simply the emotional and cognitional reactions to the offending experience that may include responses like revenge, avoidance, complaining to the same agent who cause the problem or to an outside agent to rectify the situation, or destroying the offender's reputation through negative word-of-mouth. Building on previous research that consider dissatisfaction as related to behavioural responses (Maute and Forrester, 1993; Richins 1987; Singh, 1988), the study described in this dissertation posits that grudgeholding is more serious than dissatisfaction that occurs in any context (for example, when purchasing/patronizing specific products, services and/or brands). It is the long-term cognitive-emotive process resulting from the dysfunctional relationship that leads offended/wronged customers to grudgeholding behaviours. In essence, this research is trying to answer the question why it is consumer grudgeholding but not consumer dissatisfaction!

Many researchers addressed the two major dissatisfaction responses 'exit' and 'voice' in varied aspects (for example, Hirschman, 1970; Gerken, 2013). Few have discussed grudgeholding (Hunt and Hunt, 1990; Aron, 2001). Research to date has focused mainly on either satisfaction or dissatisfaction without paying attention to the psychological part of the consumer-business relation specifically when consumers are not just dissatisfied but

when they turn into grudgeholders, hence the need for the study described in this dissertation.

Therefore, based on the cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1962), a person who experiences inconsistency tries to decrease the dissonance in order to alleviate the psychological distress. Yet, customers are emotional (Bagozzi, 2002). They are not just satisfied or dissatisfied, they are (happy, excited, joyful, etcetera) or they are (angry, sad, disgusted, etcetera). Westbrook (1987) discussed the influence of positive and negative affect on satisfaction, along with expectation and disconfirmation beliefs. Westbrook and Oliver (1991) recognized three emotional responses to satisfaction pleasant surprise, interest, and hostility. Yet, Oliver (1993) extended the determinants of satisfaction to comprise positive affect (interest and joy) and negative affect (anger, disgust, contempt, shame, guilt, fear, sadness), as well as disconfirmation beliefs. Discussing the influence of emotions on post purchase responses added vital development to the marketing. However, conceptualizing satisfaction and dissatisfaction either as a judgment that is the result of positive and negative emotions (Mano and Oliver 1993; Oliver 1996; Westbrook 1987), or as a consumption emotion (Day, 1983; Hunt, 1991; Spreng et al., 1988), is still a conflict.

Some considers satisfaction neither a basic emotion nor a central emotional set in the known theories of emotions (for example, Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Oatley, 1992; Roseman, 1991). Dissatisfaction/satisfaction is identified by the affective response to the perceived "goodness or badness of the purchase" (Boote, 1998, p.142). Affective/emotional state of the dissatisfied consumer is another approach, which has been discussed in the literature (for example, Oliver, 1981 and Yi, 1990). They assert that consumers may feel dissatisfied without knowing the exact reason; yet they suggest that a negative affective response may come before a cognitive evaluation of the purchase (Boote, 1998). Hence, (dis)satisfaction can be cognitive such as bad or good and/or emotional like pleasing, happy or disgusting (Woodruff et al., 1991). Furthermore, Shaver et al. (1987) indicates that some positive emotions as happiness, joy, gladness, elation, delight, and enjoyment, share much mutual variance with satisfaction. Likewise, Nyer (1997b) discovered that measures of joy and satisfaction loaded on one factor and proved that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are emotions.

Some described ways of measuring the satisfaction/dissatisfaction behaviours of customers. Satisfaction has regularly been measured using scales based on emotion words such as happiness, delight, and ecstasy, which are clear in Shaver's emotion prototype under the joy cluster (Shaver et al, 1987). Satisfaction is located right next to content, pleased, happy and glad in the varied circumplex models of emotions (Russell,

1980; Watson and Tellegen, 1985). Expectations, value, and disconfirmation of perceived quality are used as the determinants of satisfaction (Vavara, 1997; Hernandez and Fugate, 2004, Oliver, 2010).

Hunt (1993) suggested the need to consider emotion with cognition in all consumer behaviour research assuring that it is emotion driven more than cognition. Huefner and Hunt (1994) argued when people continue to carry the grudge along time they will show their bad feeling about a bad experience even after long time. The grudgeholder remembers the bad feeling even after twenty-five years of the offending experience again and get upset again (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). Confirmation and disconfirmation become action topics when coupled with emotion (Hunt, 1993). Grudgeholding is usually a composite of voice and exit exacerbated by extreme emotional upset (Otto et al, 2004). The grudgeholders have the intention of exiting and never returning as a result to the severe dissatisfaction (Hunt and Hunt, 1990). The emotional component of consumer grudgeholding makes this research unique in terms of combining marketing (for example, grudgeholding consumers' behaviour and attitude) with psychology (for example, emotion).

Theories and measures of consumer dissatisfaction plus theories and measures of emotions help us to better understand consumer behaviour when it comes to what triggers grudgeholding. Post consumption responses as repurchase intentions, word-of-mouth intentions, and other responses are predicted best by using measures of satisfaction plus measures of other emotions (Nyer,1997). The literature in the following section helps in identifying appropriate theories relevant to the consumer grudgeholding. Specifically, the research examines the appropriateness of appraisal theories in order to develop a process model to understand the determinants and nature of customer grudgeholding.

2.2.2 Grudgeholding background

Grudgeholding in definition is “a strong, continued feeling of hostility or ill will against someone over a real or fancied grievance” (Guralnik, 1980, p.619). It is “a resentment strong enough to justify retaliation” (WordNet, 2005). In Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2003), it is “a strong feeling of anger and dislike for a person who you feel has treated you badly which often lasts for a long time Random House Webster's College dictionary defines grudgeholding: “A feeling of ill will or resentment because of some real or fancied wrong”. Grudge is defined as resentment and angry that is very strong in a way drives to retaliation according to CharmingHealth.Com. People who harbour a grudge may

become revengeful and they may spend all their time thinking of ways to get back. In general, many definitions for grudge agree on its psychological nature of carrying negative feeling toward an aggressor. "Interpersonal transgressions are emotionally laden experiences that often stimulate negative and arousing memories or imagined emotional responses (for example, grudges) (Witvliet, et al., 2001, p.117).

After looking into the Webster's Third New International Dictionary for a definition of grudge by Wixen (1971, p.333-334): "A feeling of deep-seated resentment or ill will..." Wixen differentiated grudge from other states of resentment or ill will by the following features: "There is often a very close relationship between the persons involved either before or after the existence of the grudge (sometimes before and after). (2) The very intense degree of hatred is often felt by the outside observer to be out of proportion to the wrong committed. Furthermore, the grudge holder often feels obliged to defend, publicize, and often elaborate the misdeed. (3) There is usually a distinctly paranoid quality involved in the thought content. (4) There is often a phobic avoidance of any contact with the object of the grudge. Less often, the relative stability involved in "nursing a grudge" is broken by an act of vengeance. (5) The grudge holder has difficulty maintaining his self-esteem. He tends to have a very rigid ego ideal which he strives to live up to and a strong need for external narcissistic supplies. The grudge is found to be a special case of reaction pattern to objects, which frustrates these needs. (6) A large number of grudges have their onset in adolescence, though the origins are found in the earliest conflicts of the oral period. It is important to maintain self-esteem when dealing with grudgeholding people.

Transgression involves an offender and a victim (Baumeister, et al., 1998). The choice of the victim is either to reject the victim role turning back to normality and forgive instead, or to hold a grudge against the perpetrator altering the relationship and being the victim. Grudgeholding is defined as an extreme exit (Hunt et al., 1988; Hunt and Hunt, 1990), it carries a heavy emotional loading, and it persists over long periods of time (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). Grudgeholding is a mixture of exit, voice and utter upset (Huefner and Hunt, 1992; Otto, et al., 2004). The difference between avoidance and grudgeholding is that avoidance is mild and not extreme; when avoidance comes with very bad feeling about a shop or brands it turns to be grudgeholding (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). Grudgeholding is much more extreme and can last years or even decades (Boote, 1998). When a promise is broken, it is a sign to suspension of a marketing relationship defining as consumer grudgeholding (Aron, 2001). The visual image of a customer holding a grudge against an offender is an utterly emotional driven attitude accompanied with grievance against the cause of the offending (Aron, 2001).

Twedt (1979) introduced the term 'consumer grudge-holding' to the marketing theme (Hunt, et al., 1988). Hunt presented grudge-holding as one word means extreme exit (Hunt, et al., 1988; Hunt, and Hunt, 1990) persisting over a long period of time (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). Aron (2001, 2006) distinguished grudgeholding from dissatisfaction by describing it as an attitude full of strong and negative emotional reaction experience that provokes customer's avoidance behaviour against the marketer. Aron continued about the grudgeholder's attitude that may last for years or for moments when the grudgeholder realizes that the avoidance is useless, maybe impossible or impractical.

Grudgeholding has an intensely negative emotion resulting from dissatisfaction and expressed in different ways of behaviours. Grudgeholding is one of the possible emotional and attitudinal consequences of dissatisfaction that may include responses such as internal or external complaining, avoidance behaviour, negative word-of-mouth (Aron, 2001). Andreassen (2001) addressed varied reactions to the violations such as long-term grudgeholding, theft, vandalism, negative word-of-mouth, anti-brand websites, and in some case physical abuse of service personnel. Huefner and hunt (1992) studied brand and store avoidance as a behavioural expression of dissatisfaction stating that regular avoidance differs from the extreme of grudgeholding because it does not carry the heavy emotional content of the last one. The link between grudgeholding, avoidance and word-of-mouth is clear in most of the consumer grudgeholding research as in the dissatisfaction literature. Hunt and Hunt (1990) discussed the case when the buys from one competitor not because of strong preference for the competitor but as a means of avoiding another company because of a consumer grudge based on previous experience or word-of-mouth. However, it is not always the case because exit or avoidance may occur without the strong negative attitude of grudgeholding; it can be for different reasons, such as variety seeking, discounts and offers following, or unviability of a product like the case of out of stock or a long wait for service (Aron, 2001).

Triggers behind consumer grudgeholding are as various and similar to the triggers of consumer dissatisfaction. The deterioration in performance of firms and other organizations, or the relative deterioration of the quality of the product or service provided might push customers to voice their concerns or exiting (Hirschman, 1970; Wright and Larsen, 1997). Wright and Larsen (1997) said that grudgeholding is sometimes a response to failed complaints about services or products. Otto et al. (2004) argued how purchase cost, financial hurt, and whose faults predict the degree to which consumers were emotionally upset. All of the three factors have positive effects on the consumer's emotional distress. They talked about how the emotional upset as a result urges the

customers to do something to restore the situation like complaining to the store or spreading negative word-of-mouth. Gregoire et al. (2009) explored the effects of time and relationship strength on the evolution of customer revenge and avoidance in online public complaining contexts and found that revenge decreases over time and avoidance increases over time showing that best customers have the longest hostile reactions.

Literature on grudgeholding integrates with literature on revenge and forgiveness. Some research has found that holding a grudge throws forgiveness away (Witvliet et al., 2001, 2002; Wallace et al., 2008). There are many reasons for harbouring a grudge (Baumeister et al., 1998). One might be seeking benefits from the aggressor. Others believe that forgiveness may increase the probability that something will happen again, yet sustaining a grudge is to force the perpetrator not to repeat the transgression. In addition, a victim might not forgive but instead keep on harbouring grudge due to the continuous suffering of the aggressing consequences. Many transgressions affect the victim's self-esteem or pride so forgiving is not possible for some victims. Lastly, holding grudge and not forgiving is adherence to rules of justice. Aron (2001) found that most customers desire from their grudgeholding a fair and equitable response to their grievance (for example, apology, refund, replace, repair, etcetera.). Others find pleasure and power from suffering of others, "feel as guilty as possible" Wright and Larsen, 1997, p.178), or simply, fair avoidance for a desire of protection from a bad relationship with a marketer. Yet, the immediate response to betrayal often is adversative to forgiveness; nevertheless, choosing to forgive or take revenge varies according to several factors: the relations, the severity of the hurt, the importance of the domain in which betrayal occurs, and the specific emotions and cognitions that accompany a given act (Finkel et al., 2002).

Indeed many used both concepts revenge and vengeance interchangeably (see, Bechwati and Morrin, 2003; Stuckless and Goranson, 1992). Cota-McKinley et al. (2001) defined vengeance as "the infliction of harm in return for perceived injury or insult" (p.343). Aquino et al. (2006) defined revenge in a workplace context as "an effort undertaken by the victim of harm to inflict damage, injury, discomfort or punishment on the party judged responsible for causing the harm" Bechwati and Morrin (2003) introduced the concept of desire for consumer vengeance 'getting even' in response to perceived wrongdoing. Revenge is "an intense emotional state requiring relief, based on the perception and motivation that one has been wronged, rather than on rational thought, undifferentiated anger, or retributive justice" (Ysseldyk, 2005, p.12). Grudgeholding might be after a longitudinal love that urges the analogy of 'fight-flight' including desires to revenge and/or avoid the offending company/organization (Gregoire et al.,2009). First, the desire of revenge indicates to most

retaliatory behaviours and based on fight, such as private complaining, negative word-of-mouth and public complaining. Second, the desire for avoidance motivates the flight factor that reduces customers' patronage. See Table (2.1) for the definitions.

Table 2.1: Grudgeholding definitions

Consumer Grudgeholding definitions
The extended long -term avoidance is called grudgeholding. It is extreme exit, or the tendency to leave a customer relationship and never return Hunt et al.(1980,1988); Hunt and Hunt (1990); Huefner and Hunt (1992)
Grudgeholding is an extreme case of dissatisfaction as concluded by Francis and Davis (1990, p.115).
Grudgeholding is usually a composite of voice and exit exacerbated by extreme emotional upset, or it is extreme exit loaded of heavy emotion and persists over long period of time (Huefner and Hunt, 1992, p.228)
“Consumer grudgeholding is a negative attitude toward a marketer, distinguished by the persisting and purposive avoidance of the marketer (For example, vender or group of venders, brand, product class, or organization) and possible other actions against the marketer as a means of coping with a real or perceived grievance attributed to the marketer” (Aron, 2001, p.109).
Grudgeholding is extreme exit, it carries a heavy emotional loading, and it persists over long periods of time. Or, it is usually a composite of voice and exit exacerbated by extreme emotional upset (Otto et al., 2004, p.43)
Grudgeholding is defined psychologically as showing the victim role and continuing negative emotions associated with reviewing some hurtful offence (Bunker, 2008)
Grudge is described as a “complex symptom involving an effort to maintain self-esteem and ward off depression” (Wixen, 1971, p.343).
“Negative repercussions and customer’s ill-will “(Bendapundi and Berry,1997, p. 33)

Yet, the literature has not reached a one and aggregable definition of grudgeholding in general and consumer grudgeholding in specific. There is a general consensus that grudgeholding is an emotional response to a conflict (victim and aggressor) that may lead the victim to various revengeful behaviours (Baumeister et al., 1990; Hunt and Hunt, 1990; Huefner and Hunt, 1992; Aron, 2001; Otto et al., 2004). However, little is known about the characteristic dimensions of the emotional aspect (the valence, the experience and the expression of each type of grudge's emotions) and how emotion plays the mediating role in the grudgeholding process between appraisal and coping. This research intends to contribute to the knowledge by developing a coherent definition of consumer grudgeholding deriving from a process model, which is based mainly on the appraisal theory (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Next, the research addresses some social and psychological theories related to the topic of consumer behaviour (grudgeholding in specific), which help in building the process model of . The theories describe human behaviour in general and are widely used in marketing (for example, , equity theory, disconfirmation and attribution, attribution theory, theory of self-regulation, theory of cognitive dissonance, and finally Aron's (2001) model of consumer grudgeholding, and appraisal theories)

2.3 Theories in the Context of Human Behaviour Derived from Psychology and Marketing

This research covers theories which explain and predict consumer behaviour when facing a negative experience in a market-consumer relationship (for example, disconfirmation theory, equity theory, attribution theory, theory of self-regulation, theory of cognitive dissonance, and cognitive appraisal theory). It is a mix of theories when talking about customer satisfaction, dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour (Hunt, 1993). Many theories studied attitude to predict consumer behaviour (functional theory of attitudes, the ABC model of attitudes, Self-perception theory, Social Judgment theory, Balance theory, the Fishbein model, the theory of Reasoned Action, and theory of Planned Behaviour).

Attitude is based on the idea of evaluation of people (including oneself), objects, advertisements, or issues along a dimension of positive and negative attributes (petty et al., 1997; Solomon, 2013, p.273). Although attitude theories (for example, theory of reasoned action, theory of planned behaviour, theory of trying) are recognized of covering

a wider streams of social behaviour and a tribute to its power and versatility, they are criticized for not providing a necessary and sufficient reasons for the formation of intention and action in response (Bagozzi, 1992). One of the fundamental norms about the link between attitudes and behaviour is that of consistency (McLeod,2014). This means that we often or usually expect the behaviour of a person to be consistent with the attitudes that they hold. Yet, it is not the reality. McLeod (2014) discussed the principle of consistency as it reflects the idea that people are rational and attempt to behave rationally at all times and that a person's behaviour should be consistent with their attitude(s). Whilst this principle may be a sound one, it is clear that people do not always follow it, sometimes behaving in seemingly quite illogical ways; for example, smoking cigarettes and knowing that smoking causes lung cancer and heart disease. Therefore, it is a challenge to predict people behaviours based on their attitudes since that the cognitive and affective components of behaviour do not always match with behaviour (McLeod, 2009). Besides unlike appraisal theories (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Smith and Lazarus, 1990; Lazarus, 1991), attitude theories have mixed cognitive processes with emotional content making it hard to differentiate the various types of emotional experiences (Bagozzi, 1992). (for more knowledge about attitude theories see appendix I)

Therefore, some theories are recognized in studying and explaining post purchase satisfaction or dissatisfaction like expectation disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1977) which seeks to explain post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction as a function of expectations, perceived performance, and disconfirmation of beliefs. In addition, equity theory (Adams, 1965) which suggests that the inputs and outcomes have fundamental equity interpretations that directly translates into satisfaction judgement (Oliver, 2010). Attribution theory which is the process by which individuals interpret the causes of behavior and events of themselves and others (Weiner, 1985; Moskowitz, 2005), is integral in forming the subsequent emotions and coping responses based on internal or external attributions.

The coming discussion of this research presents theories which contribute in explaining and predicting consumer grudgeholding behaviours and recognize various strategies of appraisals and identify the most prominent experienced emotions.

2.3.1 Theory of cognitive dissonance

Cognitive dissonance refers to a situation involving conflicting attitudes, beliefs or behaviours (McLeod, 2014). This theory focuses on how humans struggle for internal stability and consistency between their expectation and reality so it is the mental stress or unpleasantness experienced by people when their beliefs, ideas, or values contradict each

other at the same time, their actions are incompatible with one or more beliefs, ideas, or values, or when new information encounters with existing beliefs, ideas, or values (Festinger, 1962). Hence, an individual who experiences inconsistency inclines to suffer from psychological discomfort and is driven to try to decrease this unpleasant dissonance by coordinating cognitions and actions and/or try to avoid situation and information that increases dissonance. Hence, according to Festinger, dissonance reduction can be achieved in four ways:

1. Change behaviour or cognition
2. Justify behaviour or cognition by changing the conflicting cognition
3. Justify behaviour or cognition by adding new cognitions
4. Ignore or deny any information that conflicts with existing beliefs

According to cognitive dissonance theory, there is a propensity for individuals to seek consistency among their cognitions (that is, beliefs, ideas and values). Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory suggests that we have an inner drive to hold all our attitudes and beliefs in harmony and avoid disharmony (or dissonance). When there is an inconsistency between attitudes or behaviours (dissonance), something must change to restore the harmony and balance. Yet, the strength of the dissonance is influenced by the number and the importance of dissonant beliefs.

Choosing between two contradicting beliefs or actions creates dissonance, that is the greatest dissonance when the two alternatives are equally interesting. As regards, dissonance theory is opposing to most behavioural theories which would predict greater attitude change with increased incentive (that is, reinforcement).

Dissonance theory applies to all states involving attitude formation and change. It is particularly appropriate to decision-making and problem-solving. Cognitive dissonance is also useful to explain and manage post-purchase concerns. A consumer who feels an alternate purchase would have been better, will likely not buy the product again. Consumers who face a bad experience are inclined to be in a dissonance condition that triggers the need to restore the normal comfort of consistency through change one or more of the attitudes, behaviour, beliefs, acquire new information, reduce the importance of the cognitions, beliefs, and attitudes.

This theory is a prominent milestone in the social psychology. It is the broad framework for many theories (for example, self-affirmation theory, self-completion theory, self-regulation,

and self-discrepancy theory) which combine emotion/motivation with cognition and concern with how people cope with threats to the self-concept.

2.3.2 Theory of self-regulation

A neglected area of consumer behaviour “the pursuit of goals” had encouraged Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990) to modify Fishbein’s (1967) model. Bagozzi (1992) argues that attitudes and subjective norms are not sufficient determinants of intentions and those intentions are not sufficient stimulus for action, as maintained by leading theories of attitude. To deepen attitude theory, they added the role of cognitive and emotional self-regulatory mechanisms. The theory of self-regulation suggests that distinctive volitional responses bring about coping for each particular emotion or class of emotions. Furthermore, the degree of self-efficacy in performing coping responses can identify the enacted intention. The purpose of the modified theory of planned behaviour is to explain better the self-regulation concentrating more on goal-striving (Taylor et al., 2001, p. 471). Bagozzi (1992) expanded the idea of trying to include a set of psychological and physical processes intervening between intentions and goal pursuing. Thus, self-regulation theory is a system of conscious personal management that involves the process of guiding one's own thoughts, behaviours, and feelings to reach goals

The modifications of the Fishbein model are summarized by Bagozzi and Warshaw to “include (1) specification of three dimensions of attitude-toward success, failure, and the process of trying, (2) the incorporation of self-efficacy judgments as expectations of success and failure, and (3) refinement in the specificity of referents and their correspondence to reflect trying as the focal explanatory concept” (1990, p.127)

However, self-regulation refers to the self-capacity to adjust its behaviours (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007). These behaviours are changed in accordance to some standards, ideals or goals either stemming from internal or societal expectations (Baumeister and Vohs, 2007). The presence and quality of these actions depend on one’s beliefs and motives (Zimmerman, 2000). Shah and Kruglanski (2000) suggest that everyday self-regulation involves the pursuit of many different goals, standards, and ideals. In addition, the specific intention enacted depends on one’s ability in executing the coping responses. Somewhat analogous (appraisal →emotional reactions →coping) responses occur for outcome-identity conflicts, fulfilments, avoidances, and pursuit in social situations related to normative expectations (Bagozzi, 1992, p.191-194).

The subjective norm-intention relationship is hypothesized to be governed by certain cognitive activities inherent in perspective taking and by positive and negative emotional reactions associated with appraisals of the deviation and conformance of both the self and others to expectations concerning the shared social meaning of a focal act" (Bagozzi, 2002, p.178).

By understanding that the consumers with grudge are decision makers, they realize that any action to be taken regarding their trying to restore the situation will be problematic in their minds according to the impediments of personal weaknesses and situational conditions which might thwart their actions (Taylor et al, 2001). One challenge of self-regulation is that researchers often struggle with the conceptualization and operationalization of self-regulation (Carver and Scheier, 1990). The system of self-regulation comprises a complex set of functions, including research cognition, problem solving, decision making, and meta cognition. However, the theory of self-regulation is good when we have individuals who are keen to achieve self-control. The problems that most obviously relate to self-control failure are those of impulse control (Baumeister and Vohs, 2003), and it is not the true story about grudgeholders. Not all grudgeholders are keen to adjust their behaviour and control the self. Many think they are right and they are doing the right things as a response to the incurred offence. The question is: Are they looking for self-regulation in terms of adjusting their behaviours especially in the first round. The answer is probably not, but they might look for regulating their emotions. Yet, It is a reliable concept that has the ability to improve emotional well-being, achievement, initiative, and optimism (for examples, Johnson, 1999; Zimmerman and Schunk, 2001; Blair and Diamond, 2008). It can help in different stages of grudgeholding which have the four components: standards of desirable behaviour, motivation to meet standards, monitoring of situations and thoughts that precede breaking said standards, and lastly, willpower (Vohs and Baumeister, 2011).

2.3.3 Attribution theory

Attribution theory argues that people search for causes of events. Attribution refers to the perception or inference of cause (Kelley and Michela, 1980). People determine their reactions to the behaviour after they perceive the causes of the behaviour (Kelley and

Michela, 1980). Perceived causes of events influence behaviour. Attribution theory focuses not on 'true' reasons but on perceived reasons. Heider the "father of attribution theory" (Sanderson, 2010) found that people have different kinds of explanations for the events of human behaviours. It is very useful to group explanation into two categories; Internal (personal like ability, personality, mood, efforts, attitudes) and external (situational like the task, other people, or luck) attributions (Oliver, 2010).

The attribution theory is explained clearly by Weiner (1985, p.548): The perceived causes of success and failure share three common properties: locus of control (the location of the cause), stability (whether the problem is temporary or permanent), and controllability (whether the problem is volitional or non-volitional); and all three dimensions of causality affect a variety of common emotional experiences, including anger, gratitude, guilt, hopelessness, pity, pride, and shame. The probability of success changes in response to the perceived stability of causes. Expectancy and affect, in turn, guide motivated behaviour. Yet, the structure of thinking to the dynamics of feeling and action are related according to the theory.

Some studied attributions of blame as a determinant to dissatisfaction rather than direct determinant of complaining behaviour (Richins 1985, 1987; Blodgett and Granbois, 1992). When the consumer experience negative disconfirmation, they will try to determine the reason for that. Whether it is perceived to be the consumers' fault, they will not be dissatisfied and hence should have little or no motivation to seek redress. However, in the case of external attribution, consumers will be dissatisfied and ready for seeking justice from the source of the discrepancy. Perceiving stability and controllability identifies whether the consumer will exit and engage in negative word-of-mouth or not.

Therefore, these reasons of dissatisfaction attribution (for example, locus of control, stability and controllability) need to be taken into account when looking at what causes their grudge. The attribution theory is dynamic according to culture. Research shows that culture, either individualist or collectivist, affects how people make attributions. This needs to be taken into account when looking at the behaviour and the effect of culture on their attributions.

However, research into attribution theory has done much to suggest certain bases for responses toward companies and organizations (Ellen et al., 2006; Klein and Dawar, 2004) but does not go far enough to explain the emotive factors needed to actually stimulate negative word-of-mouth or protest behaviours (Grappi et al., 2013). Attribution theory has been criticized as being mechanistic and reductionist for assuming that people are rational,

logical and systematic thinkers. However, it helps in giving some explanation for the grudgeholding behaviours. Thus, the consumer grudgeholding model needs to take the attribution theory into account particularly in the appraisal strategies to help in identifying the stability and construability of the negative event or events.

The research described in this dissertation is underpinned by the argument that this interacts in some way to explain the consumer grudgeholding phenomenon and that attribution theory is an integrated part of the cognitive-emotive process of the grudgeholding (discussed in the appraisal theory), which helps in finding reasons for behaviours in terms of attributional biases (for example, fundamental attribution error, culture bias, actor/observer difference, dispositional attributions, self-serving bias, defensive attribution hypothesis).

2.3.4 Equity, fairness and justice theory

Equity theory emphasizes on balance and perceived fairness of the inputs and outputs ratios between two parties in a certain transaction (Boote, 1998, Adams, 1965). It attempts to explain relational satisfaction in terms of perceptions of fair/unfair distributions of resources within interpersonal relationships. In any transaction, there are three possible outcomes: equity, positive inequity, negative inequity. Equity is the case when inputs and outcomes of either side are perceived to be balanced and equal, while inequity is the case when one side is perceived to take the advantage of the relationship (Boote, 1998). Equity theory suggests that individuals who perceive inequity as either under-rewarded or over-rewarded will experience distress and that this distress leads to efforts to restore equity within the relationship. Equity theory posits that several factors affect each person's assessment and perception of their relationship with their relational partners (Guerrero et al., 2005). When a person perceives inequity in its negative meaning it is thought that a sense of negative emotion might occur, such as resentment, anger, or guilt, which motivates individuals to restore equity or balance (Lapidus and Pinkerton, 1995). Inequity is positive when someone is perceived to gain more from transaction, and it is negative when it is perceived that the other has gained more (Boote, 1998). The justice theory recognizes three kinds of justice: distributive, interactional and procedural.

The consumer's desire to retaliate increases by feeling the injustice (Bechwati and Morrin, 2003). Although unfairness judgement is rooted in equity, self-interest can bias the judgement of fairness (Xia, 2015). For example, consumers will perceive a small degree of

unfairness when the inequality is for their advantage (Ordonez et al., 2000; Xia and Monroe, 2010). The awareness of unfairness leads usually to various negative emotions such as disappointment, anger and hostility which lead to harmful behaviours ranging from mild to severe consequences like restoring financial equity, venting the negative emotions, re-building self-concepts and damage the seller (Xia, 2015). Consequently, fairness or equity is an important factor to be considered in the appraisal process of consumers' grudgeholding.

From an equity perspective, consumer dissatisfaction and grudgeholding is the result of negative unfairness, where the consumer perceives to have unequal outcomes from a transaction than the other side. Therefore, consumer responses to defusing perceived inequity might take different forms like (complaints, exit and boycott the seller's products or services, negative word-of-mouth, false loyalty, verbal or physical retaliation). Several methods have been identified to mitigate the perceived inequity into the relationship like do any changes to the inputs of the relationship, changes to the perceived outputs, or leaving the relationship (Walster et al., 1973).

The research described in this dissertation integrates justice theory in terms of its criticism by the simplicity model that does not consider the variety of the demographic and psychological variables, which affect people's perceptions of fairness and interactions with others.

2.3.5 Disconfirmation of expectation theory

Disconfirmation of expectation is the most extensively accepted theory of consumer dissatisfaction. Disconfirmation theory is a cognitive theory which seeks to explain post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction as a function of expectations, perceived performance, and disconfirmation of beliefs (Oliver, 1977, 1980). Negative disconfirmation occurs when perceived quality is below the expectations of the consumer who will suffer of cognitive state of dissatisfaction as a result. Whereas, positive disconfirmation occurs when perceived quality exceed the consumer expectations.

In general, confirmation/disconfirmation is a process whereby consumers compare products' performance to their prior expectations of the product. Confirmation means that the product performs as expected. Several studies have supported the confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm and applied it in the context of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction as follows (Oliver, 1980, 2010; Woodruff, 1983; Day, 1984; Blodgett and Granbois, 1992):

expectation→ disconfirmation→ dissatisfaction→ complaining behaviour

The evaluations or judgments are made in comparison to the person's original expectations (Oliver, 2010). When a product or service outperforms the person's original expectations, the disconfirmation is positive, which is posited to increase post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction. When a product or service artifact underperforms the person's original expectations, the disconfirmation is negative, which is posited to decrease post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction. Negative disconfirmation leads to dissatisfaction (Woodruff et al., 1983; Day, 1984; Blodgett and Granbois, 1992). Negative disconfirmation is described as cognition, while dissatisfaction is the affective response, "negative feeling" "emotion" (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992, p. 94). Westbrook (1987) has also discussed that negative affect is an important factor of dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour.

Whatsoever, this theory was under criticism for varied reasons. One is disconfirmation, may not be enough to cause dissatisfaction (Erevelles and Leavitt, 1992). Also, dissatisfaction is a necessary, but not sufficient condition of complaining behaviour (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992). Another is that dissatisfaction feeling can be moderated by the attribution of product or service failure (Folkes and Kotsos, 1986). Day (1984) explained in a logical way that dissatisfaction is motivational in nature and encourage people to consider complaining, but it does not cause complaining behaviour.

Social exchange theorists distinguished between three dimensions of perceived justice or fairness. Smith and Bolton (2002) discussed equity as one of the cognitive antecedents to customer satisfaction. Distributive justice that includes the perceived outcomes of exchange and resource allocation; procedural justice, that involves the ways of making decisions and resolving conflicts; and interactional justice which involves the means of communicating information. Hence, the theory of disconfirmation and equity (Oliver and Swan, 1989a, 1989b; Swan and Oliver, 1991; Oliver, 1980) which considered the combined effect of disconfirmation and equity is criticised by addressing only one aspect of perceived justice which is the distributive fairness.

Yet, away from the theory contradiction, the confirmation/disconfirmation theory helps in clarification of the difference between consumer grudgeholding and dissatisfaction. Moving from confirmation to the extreme polar opposite of disconfirmation is what so-called "outrage" (Oliver, 2010, p. 109). Opposite to delight which is defined by Oliver (p.109): "a profoundly positive emotional state generally resulting from having one's expectations exceeded to a surprising degree", outrage is the extreme negative emotional state that

trigger and prescribe grudgeholding. However, it inspires the research described in this dissertation for a deep look into the factors that cause consumer grudgeholding.

2.3.6 Appraisal theory

Appraisal process guides the comparison between an actual condition with a desired one causing the presence of emotions. Hence, it is a consensus with confirmation-disconfirmation theory, theory of cognitive dissonance and theory of equity in terms of comparing. Emotions arise in response to (appraisals or estimates) of events that cause specific reactions in different people after comparing an actual state with a desired state (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Emotions arise in response to changes in specific plans or goals-directed events. Appraisal means evaluative judgment, assessment and interpretation. It is therefore the distinctive psychological process made by the person assessing and evaluating the events and the environments which produces the emotions respectively. Different people can have different emotional reactions (or no emotional reactions at all) to the same event due to different appraisals. The central role of appraisals in the formation of emotions has come to define what are called appraisal theories in psychology (see, Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1990; Scherer et al., 2001). The experiential content of emotions has been largely neglected in marketing research. Therefore, according to the significant role of appraisal in forming our emotions and behaviours, there is a need to ensure that any model of consumer grudgeholding takes into account appraisal theories.

Research identifies two kinds of appraisals: primary and secondary appraisal (Lazarus, 1991; Scherer et al., 2001). Primary appraisal, which is concerned about the significance or meaning of the event to the individual, while secondary appraisal is a judgment about what might and can be done (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). In weighing different options to react to a stressful encounter in business sector, a customer searches to understand if the transgression was in the control of the firm (that is, controllability), whether the firm was (or not) accountable for the grievance (that is, accountability) if the transgression has happened before (that is, stability), and assessing possible ways of coping potential besides the probability of success or failure when reacting to an offence (Lazarus, 1991; Shteynberg, 2005). Stephens and Gwinner (1998) called the process of assessing the significance of the dissatisfaction for the consumer's well-being (primary appraisal), and the availability and likely success of various coping options (secondary appraisal).

Scherer et al (2001) explained the primary and the secondary appraisal of Lazarus (1991) as follows: primary appraisal involves the assessment of the motivational relevance and motivational congruence. What is happening to one's goals? And does it help or thwart their achievements. When evaluating motivational relevance, individuals evaluate the situation in terms of its relevance and importance to the self-construals. The intensity of the experienced emotions is highly affected by the motivational relevance aspect of the appraisal of the process so that when an event is highly relevant to one's safety, the situation prompts a more intense emotional response (Smith and Kirby, 2009). The second aspect of an individual's primary appraisal of a situation is the assessment of motivational congruence. Evaluating the motivational congruence of a situation is required to assess if the situation congruent or incongruent (consistent or inconsistent) with goals (Smith and Kirby, 2009). Primary appraisal has usually focused on individual goals' achievement (Zourrig et al., 2009).

Secondary appraisal is focused on the evaluation and assessment of the internal and external ability of the individual to cope with the consequences of the event. However, reappraisal is described as ongoing process of assessment to the motivational relevance and congruence of the events in addition to their potential coping responses. These two types work together as one addresses the significance of the event while the following evaluates the coping strategies which Lazarus divided up into two parts: direct actions and cognitive reappraisal processes.

Cognitive processes produce emotions and these emotions trigger behaviour. "The emotional response is elicited by an evaluative perception in lower animals, and in humans by a complex 'cognitive appraisal of the significance of events for one's well-being" (Lazarus, 1982, p. 1019). Cognitive activity is an essential necessary condition of emotion. Folkman et al (1979) believe that cognition and emotion are usually fused in nature; although they can be dissociated in certain unusual or abnormal states (Lazarus, 1982). For example, attack can occur without anger, and avoidance without fear because the usual link between thought and feeling has been loosened or broken.

Two appraisals are mainly fundamental in the stage of emotion formation: goal relevance and goal congruence (Lazarus, 1991). That is, the person has a personal goal and a need for assessing and appraising the circumstances and events which facilitate or thwart this stake is a basic requirement for an emotional response. One value of appraisals theories is that it is possible to account for most emotions. Rosman (1991) identified many discrete emotions plus circumstances and situations for their occurrence. For example, angry person tends to consider others the source of injury to oneself or to another person viewed

as a victim of injustice, whereas regret and guilt results when a person evaluate the negative outcome as self to be blamed. Therefore, negative emotions of grudgeholding (for example, frustration, anxiety, anger and disgust) may result from problems with ongoing plans and failure to achieve anticipated goals which occurs through the appraisal process (Bagozzi et al., 1999, 2002).

Appraisal theory holds that specific emotions are associated with specific patterns of cognitive appraisals. Cognitive appraisals and emotional experience are related. Specific appraisal outcomes elicit specific emotions with a specific experiential content and specific adaptive behaviour (Arnold 1960; Lazarus 1991; Plutchik 1980; Roseman et al. 1994; Bougie et al., 2003). Appraisal indicates to the process of judging the importance of an event for individual well-being. Therefore, the emotion arises when the person appraises the event as affecting in some way. People may have different emotions for one specific event because they differ in their appraisals (or attributions), but running the same patterns of appraisals normally give rise to the same emotions. For example, anger in response to a service failure evokes when customers assess the situation as unfair, with high service provider control over the service failure, and a stable cause of the service failure (Folkes et al., 1987; Ruth et al., 2002; Taylor 1994). Besides, the appraisals of high goal relevance, goal incongruence, and high coping potential are strongly associated with anger (Nyer, 1997b).

Many appraisals lead the individuals for coping responses. Lazarus (1991) recognises coping responses as important mechanisms in this regard. When individuals experience negative emotions like anger, sadness and fear, they are in disequilibrium and wish to return to their normal state. They normally use one or both of two coping processes: problem-focused coping, where they try to relieve the source of distress, or emotion-focused coping, where they either change the meaning of the source of distress for examples, deny the existence of a threat, distance oneself from the source of distress) or avoid thinking about a problem. Additionally, Lazarus specified two major types of appraisal methods: primary appraisal that is directed to find out the significance or meaning of the event to the individual, and secondary appraisal, which is directed at the evaluation of the ability of the individual to cope with the consequences of the event.

As many have argued (Folkman et al., 1979; Wrubel et al., 1981), humans are meaning-oriented, meaning-creating creatures who relentlessly consider their well-being the priority and evaluate events from the perspective of that then react emotionally to some of these evaluations. Following the emotion research, research in marketing has mainly concentrated on cognitions (or appraisals) associated with dissatisfaction without getting

into the emotion prospect in details. For example, cognitive appraisal of negative disconfirmation, the under-fulfilment of needs, and injustice are related to customer dissatisfaction (Mano and Oliver 1993; Oliver 1996, 2000). Such cognitions, associated with the unexpected, negative outcome of an event, produce tendencies to look for a source or cause of the negative event (Weiner 1986). Yet, in general consumer behaviour researches concentrate on attitude-behaviour rather than on emotion-behaviour criterion (Ajzen, 1980; Verbeke and Viaene, 1999; Manaktola and Jauhari, 2007; Hall et al., 2016).

Pre and post consumption behavioural responses are identified by emotional experience (Bougie et al., 2003). Yet, Same like consumer dissatisfaction lacks the focus on emotions, consumer grudgeholding research does. Emotion is more intense in the sense of strength of felt subjective experience, in addition to the level of physiological response and extent of bodily expression (Bagozzi et al., 1999). For instance, motivational goals associated with anger and dissatisfaction may help to give an explanation to the impact of these emotions on complaint behaviour, negative word-of-mouth, and switching (Bougie et al., 2003). Emotions directly simulate violations and initiate action, but attitudes may require an additional motivation drive, such as desire (Bagozzi, 1992). Therefore building on the idea that consumers are emotional, , the research described in this dissertation discusses the process of consumer grudgeholding underlining three components cognition, emotion and coping responses. Thus, in coming to any model of consumer grudgeholding, this will need to take into account the integrating cognitive appraisal theory in building grudgeholding model.

2.4 Emotion

Emotions and appraisals are crucial aspects to understand human behaviours. Emotion results from an evaluative perception of a relationship (actual, imagined, or anticipated) between a person (or animal) and the environment (Lazarus, 1982, p.1023). Furthermore, in any society, people differ in their beliefs and commitment strands. Therefore, whatever their origins, there are both common and distinct agendas that shape appraisals of the significance of a particular transaction with the environment for the well-being of any given

individual (Scherer and Ekman, 2014, p.255). Izard (2013) explained that emotions affect people in many different ways; the same emotion has different effects in different people, even different effects on the same person in different situations. Emotions tend to affect the whole individual's aspects (for example, body, perception, cognition, action, personality development, etcetera.) "It is important to stress that, although categories of events or physical circumstances are frequently associated with particular emotional responses, it is not the specific events or physical circumstances that produce the emotions but rather the unique psychological appraisal made by the person assessing and interpreting the events and circumstances" (Bagozzi et al., 2002, p.39).

Emotion is defined as cognition dependent which contains lots of cognition kinds such as appraisal, desire, and intention (Izard, 1992). Emotions are explained by Oliver (2010), as a result to an event interpretation through what is called, appraisal; thereby intensifying or retreating them according to the resulting feelings which may affect positively or negatively. Hence, adaptation to these events is possible way via elimination or habituation. The cognitive approach assumes that it is not the events that determine which emotion will be felt, but it is the interpretations of events (Roseman, 1984). Furthermore, emotions evoked as a result to the (conscious or unconscious) evaluation of the likely success of a plan changes (Oatley and Johnson-Laird, 1987).

Therefore, emotion is defined as "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 (for example, 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" (Bagozzi et al., 1999, p. 184). Roseman and colleagues (1994) proposed that there are five experiential categories (feelings, thoughts, action tendencies, actions, and motivational goals) which differentiate emotions.

Specific emotions are believed to arise in response to appraisals of different categories of relationships (Lazarus, 1994; Ortony et al., 1988; Roseman, 1984). Izard has derived the approach to emotion from the evolutionary and biological arguments for basic emotions. Izard (2013) proposed ten basic emotions which are suggested as unipolar subsets as a reflection to a unique pattern of subjective experience, physiological response, and expressive behaviour to differentiate the positive from the negative effects. They are pairs of words presented from low to high for showing the intensity as follows: (1) interest-excitement, (2) joy-elation, (3) surprise-astonishment, (4) sadness-grief, (5) anger-rage, (6)

disgust-revulsion, (7) fear-terror, (8) contempt-scorn, (9) shame-shyness, and (10) guilt-remorse.

In the graphical portrayal model of emotion designed by Oliver (2010) , emotion involves evoking stimuli (events); internal reactions; observable manifestations, including motivation states and emotion related behaviour; and consequences that have adaptation (e.g., coping) or disruption. The internal reactions include core concepts central to emotional response, such as neural and physiological arousal; affective states, including excitement and pleasure or displeasure; and the cognitive process of appraisal and labelling. Substituting habituation and innovation for adaptation and disruption moves the model one step closer to satisfaction response.

Many emotions are explained and characterized as positive or negative in the literature such as anger, regret, pride, ashamed, sadness, happiness, etcetera.). Bagozzi et al. (1999) stated that failing or achieving one's goal plays an important role in identifying the kind of their feeling in terms of being positive or negative. Positive emotions (for example, happiness, pride, love, pride) are related with the achieving of goal or sub goal and then continuing the plan, while, negative emotions (for example, anger, frustration, betrayed, disappointed) result from the failure of achieving one's desired goals according to problem with ongoing plans. Anger, sadness, and fear are all emotions provoked by circumstances or others (Laros and Steenkamp, 2005). Achieving one's personal goals motivate experiencing and expressing joy and pride, while anger is the right emotion in the case of failing to achieve goals and when rights are threatened (Niedenthal et al., 2006). It is what Bagozzi called the "goal directed emotions".

"People interpret cognitive, feeling, and physical aspects of their experienced emotions, as well as the conditions under which their felt emotions arose and the aversive or desirable consequences they might produce, before, or along with, enacting a coping response". (Bagozzi, 2006, p.454).

Oliver (2010) summarised the laws of emotions by Frijda (1988): Emotions arise when an event either real or imagined is interpreted and appraised. The emotions intensify or diminish in accordance with the resulting feelings and implications. Adaptation to these events can be achieved by interpretation via extinction or habituation. "The onset or implications of the events provide motivation for controllable impulses before or after event manifestation via approach (event seeking), avoidance, or various self-strategies (e.g., coping)" (p.315). However, disagreement exists in literature regarding emotions in terms of "pure" or be integrated within, cognitive appraisal (Oliver, 2010). Emotion is discussed as

totally cognitive and as neural or physiologically based in addition to emotions of pure affect without the necessity of appraisal (Buck, 1999; Izard, 1993; Phillips et al., 2003; Schore, 1994; Barrett et al., 2007)

Coping responses are recognized as important mechanisms in this regard (Lazarus, 1991). When individuals experience negative emotions like anger, sadness and fear, they are in disequilibrium and wish to return to their normal state. Either one or both of two coping process are typically used: problem-focused coping, where they try to ease the source of distress, or emotion-focused coping, where they either change the meaning of the source of distress (for examples, deny that a threat exists, distance oneself from the source of distress) or avoid thinking about a problem like in the case of flight. Frijda (1988) explained thoroughly emotions and its involvement with action readiness and action tendency. For example, anger is a displeasure feeling which urge to do some of the things that remove or harm its agent. Shame is also a sense of displeasure that needs the compelling desire to disappear from view. Fear is displayed in mixtures of avoidant, self-protective, and attentive facial patterns. Frijda (1988, p., 351) summarized the action readiness as follows: (a) in readiness to go at it or away from it or to shift attention; (b) in sheer excitement, which can be understood as being ready for action but not knowing what action; or (c) in being stopped in one's tracks or in loss of interest.

However, the research described in this dissertation covers emotions of consumer grudgeholding which is triggered from a bad experience or numerous experiences. The research integrates the notion of the appraisal theory, that our appraisal of a situation causes an emotional, or affective, response that is going to be based on that appraisal. Appraisal theory can help in explaining the grudgeholding consumer's emotions and reactions. It gives an illustration to why people react to things differently. As in general, people react in slightly different ways based on their perception of the situation even when they expose to the same experience. The important aspect of applying the appraisal theory in consumers' studies is that it accounts for their variances of emotional reactions to the same event. An understanding of appraisals is important, since it may help marketers to understand why specific emotions arise. Emotions are central to the actions of consumers and marketers alike. As a result, there is a growing number of conceptual and empirical studies of appraisals in marketing (e.g., Bagozzi et al., 1999; Nyer 1997b; Ruth et al. 2002; Nguyen and Kennedy, 2003). The next section describes what is argued to be the key model in this field, that is, that of Aron (2001) of consumer grudgeholding before moving to the integrated process model of the research.

Chapter 3 : Consumer Grudgeholding Process Model and Gender Impact

3.1 Introduction

The research presents an updated model of consumer grudgeholding behaviour process based mainly on Aron's model (2001) and appraisal theory. In order to do so, however, this study integrates the previous customer grudge and revenge literature (Table 3.1) into an extant model that is based on cognitive–emotive actions sequence and an appraisal theory approach, which are the dominant views in the literature on product/service failure-recovery (for example, Zourrig et al., 2009). The presented model of this study posits that the various phases of primary and secondary appraisals lead directly or indirectly through a single discrete emotion or mix of emotions to one or two routes of coping responses, which may terminate, extend or neutralize the grudge emotions. Therefore, a brief review to Aron's model (2001) is discussed in the beginning before moving to the updated model of the research— A cognitive-emotive process model of consumer grudgeholding.

Table 3.1: Consumer grudgeholding literature

Authors	Article's type	Definition of grudge or revenge	operationalization	Process suggested
Huefner and Hunt (2000)	Survey-based	Customer retaliation: "an aggressive behaviour done with the intention of getting even"	Exploratory scales suggesting five behaviours: vandalism, trashing, stealing, negative WOM, and verbal attack	Inequity → dissatisfaction → retaliatory behaviours
Aron (2001)	conceptual	Consumer grudgeholding is a negative attitude toward a marketer, distinguished by the persisting and purposive avoidance of the marketer (e.g., vendor or group of vendors, brand, product class, or organization) and possible other actions against the marketer as a means of coping with a real or perceived grievance attributed to the marketer (p.109).	The grudgeholding responses have been grouped into three categories: Avoidance, complaining and retaliation	Dissatisfaction → Attitude formation → Appraisal → Manifestation → Perpetuation (revise, retain or relinquish)
Bechwati and Morrin (2003)	Experiment-based	Desire for vengeance: "the retaliatory feelings that consumers feel toward a firm, such as the desire to exert some harm on the firm" (p. 441).	A new five-item scale that "was modelled after the Stucless and Goranson (1992) scale ... designed to measure an individual eagerness to avenge" (p. 444).	Interactional fairness → desire for vengeance → suboptimal choice
Grégoire and Fisher (2006)	Survey-based	Desire for retaliation: "a customer's felt need to punish and make the firm pay for the damages it has caused" (p. 33).	Adaptation of a six-item revenge scale used by Aquino et al. (2001).	Controllability + unfairness → desire for retaliation → complaining behaviours
Bechwati and Morrin (2007)	Experiment-based	Desire for vengeance (see Bechwati and Morrin 2003) applied to a political context	Same as Bechwati and Morrin (2003).	Salience affiliation + blame → damages to self-identity → desire for vengeance → voting for a less qualified candidate
Wetzer et al. (2007)	A survey, and an experiment	Revenge goal is associated with "aggressive goal", and a "desire to hurt"	A newly developed three-item scale.	Anger → revenge goal → negative WOM
Bonifield and Cole (2007)	An experiment and a content analysis	"Retaliatory behaviours occur when consumers try to hurt the firm" (p. 88)	A newly developed five item scale reflected in negative WOM, aggressive complaining, and receiving a cash discount.	Firm's blame + firm's recovery → anger → retaliatory behaviours

Grégoire and Fisher (2008)	Survey-based	Customer retaliation “represents the efforts made by customers to punish and cause inconvenience to a firm for the damages it caused them” (p. 249).	The “retaliatory behaviours” concept is a second-order construct composed of negative WOM (3 items), third-party complaining (4 items), and vindictive complaining (3 items).	Fairness judgments + relationship quality → betrayal → retaliatory behaviours
Zourrig et al. (2009)	Conceptual	Revenge: “the infliction of punishment or injury in return for perceived wrong” (p.6).	Not measured.	Harm appraisal → blame + future expectancy → anger → coping behaviours revenge
Grégoire et al. (2010)	Two field studies (survey-based)	The model described how the desire for revenge increases the likelihood of “tangible” revenge behaviours (p.741).	Direct revenge behaviours (marketplace aggression and vindictive complaining) and indirect revenge behaviours (negative WOM and online complaining)	Established cognitions → perceived firm’s greed → anger → desire for revenge → perceived customer power → direct and indirect revenge behaviours

3.2 Consumer Grudgeholding Model of Aron (2001)

The grudgeholding response is a sequence of several elements with changeable time from minimal to maximal between the steps (Aron, 2001). The explanation of Aron's analysis of the consumer grudgeholding response can be summarized as the following. Customer dissatisfaction comes as a result to a bad experience which in turn generates customer grudgeholding. Emotional reaction creates a case of grievance toward the cause. The coping reactions of the bad feeling that is ignited by what so-called flashpoint might be a direct complaint to the one in charge or an urgent exit. Yet, the developing of the situation can be affected by different factors: (personal or situational as described by Day, 1984) such as the consumer, marketer or/ and the environment. Thus, the negative attitude might be mitigated or even prevented according to the affective factors. Next comes the time for assessment by the offended customer to hold or sustain a grudge.

Yet, building on theoretical research such as attribution, coping, voice and exit, perceived justice, loyalty and complaining, Aron (2001) introduced his model to describe grudgeholding process with considering grudgeholding as one of many possible responses to consumer dissatisfaction. Aron suggested that negative emotions should be strong and deep enough to reach consumer's flashpoint, igniting negative attitude, then grudgeholding may follow. Aron did not identify the negative emotions in charge of grudgeholding behaviour clearly. Hence, this creates the urge to fill the emotion gap left by Aron's model. The elements of the grudgeholding responses are summarized in Aron's model (2001, p.112) illustrated as an expanded framework in Figure 3.1:

1. Flashpoint and Attitude formation
2. Assessment and appraisal
3. Manifestation
4. Perpetuation

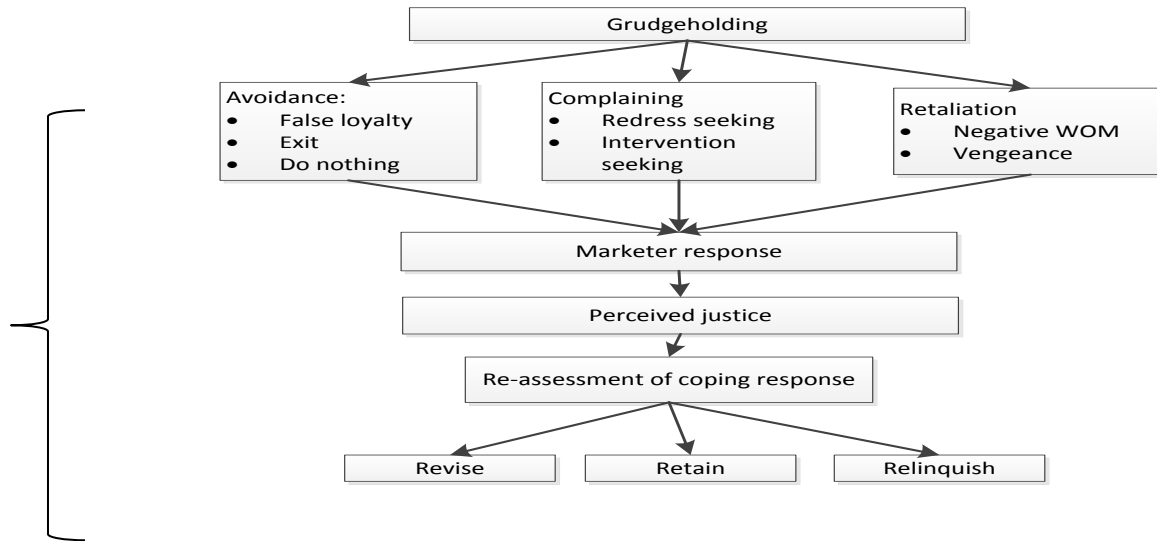
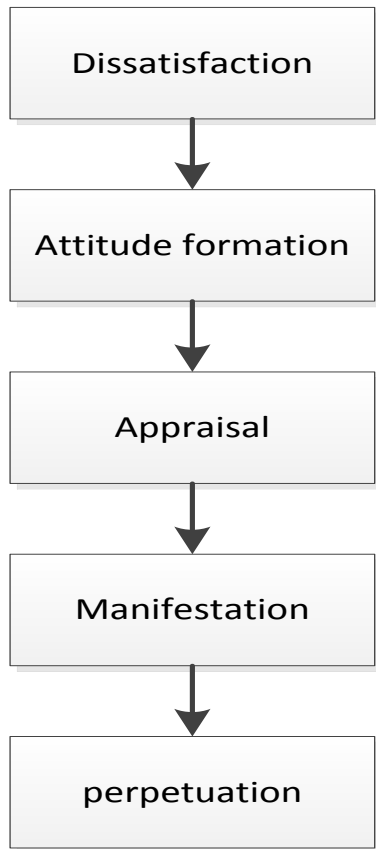


Figure 3.3.1: Expanded framework of grudgeholding process (Aron, 2001)

Aron in his model introduced the term “flashpoint” to be used in the customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction literature, as it has been used in the natural science, he added that flashpoint can be adapted in the context of consumer psychology to refer to the point when consumer feels that they need to take an action especially when their grievance has become worthless and a need of responding is required. Aron stated that one single event can ignite the customer flashpoint, or sometimes the accumulation of events to the degree of no more.

Thus, consumer grudgeholding starts with emotional “flashpoint” (Aron, 2001). There are some circumstances and intense negative emotions which motivate the customer negative attitude toward the offending party. Analysis of the literature makes it clear that there is still more that we need to do to better understand the nature of the intense negative emotion as it should be in the consumer grudgeholding research, and it is the milestone that distinguishes dissatisfaction from grudgeholding. It needs collaboration between psychology and consumer behaviour studies in order to filling the gap that has been left by Aron and reported in his future research. First, there is a need to find out what causes so-called “flashpoint”, investigating about emotion in grudgeholding by using appraisal theory of Lazarus (1970, 1991), going through grudgeholders’ responses and how the marketers’ responses affect consumers’ attitude (their future intentions in specific), and whether gender bias exists. This calls for a new model for consumer grudgeholding.

3.3 A Cognitive-Emotive Process Model of Consumer Grudgeholding

In the last two decades, marketing scholars have started to study emotions evoked by marketing stimuli, products and brands (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Many studies involving consumer emotions have focused on consumers’ emotional responses to advertising mostly (for example, Olney et al., 1991; Derbaix, 1995), and the mediating role of emotions on the satisfaction of consumers (for example, Liljander and Strandvik, 1997; Phillips and Baumgartner, 2002) and on the dissatisfaction responses (Day, 1984; Otto et al., 2004). Some studies of consumer affect have focused on consumers’ responses to advertising and others concentrated on emotions that result from consumption per se (Richins, 1997). Emotions have been shown to play an important role in other contexts, such as complaining (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998), service failures (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 1999) and product attitudes (Dube et al., 2003). Westbrook (1987) discussed that negative affect is an important determinant of dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour.

Studying the affective processes in consumer behaviour is an important subject (Richins, 1997). When philosophers deal with human behaviour, they distinguish between two aspects cognition, on the one hand, and feelings or emotions, on the other hand. It has been argued that the consumer behaviour follow a logical flow model starts when the consumer's inputs like products and information are processed by a response system (cognitive-affect behaviour), that creates the outputs which, need to be appraised to get the learning feedback (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Yet, the current research considered the key role of cognition and emotion in building consumer grudgeholding model.

Therefore, the study of emotions in marketing has borrowed theories from psychology (for example, Westbrook, 1987; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991; Oliver, 1992, 1993, 1994, 2010; Holbrook and Westwood, 1989; Mano and Oliver, 1993) and developed accounts of emotions in marketing (see Edell and Burke, 1987; Aaker, et al., 1988; Batra and Holbrook, 1990; Richins, 1997; Stephens and Gwinner, 1998; Zourrig et al., 2009). All of these studies agreed on the importance role of emotions in the domain of consumer behaviour. Studying the role of consumer emotions in service recovery is crucial particularly as service failures and some attempts at recovery may result in very strong negative emotions. Researchers inspected specific negative emotions generated by products (Laros and Steenkamp, 2005; Nyer, 1997), services (Bougie et al., 2003; Soscia, 2007; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004), and purchase-related situations (Dahl et al., 2001; Yi and Baumgartner, 2004). Anger is a particularly common emotion in such circumstances (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998; Nguyen and Kennedy, 2003) that requires a great attention when it comes to consumer grudgeholding emotions.

Emotion study is now crucial to understand any consumption experience (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Aaker, et al., 1988; Oliver, 2010). Emotions can be causes, effects, mediators, and moderators in marketing behaviour (Bagozzi et al, 1999). Hunt (1993) emphasized on the importance of emotion in the studies of consumer behaviour and discussed that how consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour are emotion driven, not cognition driven. Expected emotion can be an effective input to the purchasing decision, and it can also be the output of post decision response (Darke et al., 2006; Wood and Bettman, 2007). Some considered emotions as antecedents of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Oliver, 1989; Westbrook, 1987). Others stated that some emotions coexist with consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Day (1984) presented a conceptualization model stressing the emotional nature of dissatisfaction and the importance of situational and personal factors in the post-

dissatisfaction decision. Evaluating any purchase decision success and the subsequent positive or negative emotions depend on an experiential view (for example, the fun that a consumer derives from a product, the enjoyment that it offers and the resulting feeling of pleasure that it evokes (Klinger, 1971, Dubé and Menon, 2000)). Shortly, emotion generally centres most of our behaviours. In terms of consumer grudgeholding, the process one goes through in order to exert revenge against the offender is a means of cumulative stress reaction that needs to be diffused (Zourrig et al., 2009). On the contrary, a process one goes through in order to forgive an offender is a means of decreasing the stress reaction (Worthington and Scherer, 2004).

Consumers' satisfaction/dissatisfaction or grudgeholding responses are identified by many internal or external factors which work individually or jointly. Raajpoot et al. (2008) examined the impact of store atmosphere on retail store patronage and designed a model, which discusses some controllable elements of the atmosphere (employee behaviours, design elements, product mix, customer compatibility, and accessibility). These elements are expected to create an emotional response to the environment and to influence the overall evaluation of the shopping mall, both directly and indirectly through this emotional response. Baker et al. (2002) demonstrated that positive store employee behaviours positively affect the interpersonal service quality perceptions that affect value and store patronage decisions. Satisfaction is driven more by "technical quality" (the quality of the work performed) than by "functional quality" (how the service work was delivered); however, once satisfaction is achieved, loyalty is driven more by functional than by technical quality (Mittal and Lassar, 1998).

Thus, the coming research is about to detail the consumer grudgeholding process based on Aron's (2001) model and appraisal theory (transactional model of stress and coping, Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). A consumer faces one bad experience (for example, product failure, bad service, personnel offence, cheating, etcetera.) or a number of repeated negative experiences. Something so-named "flashpoint" (Aron, 2001) will ignite their negative emotion through a primary appraisal. The offended consumer soon will suffer from intensifying negative emotions that originate "disequilibrium" (Bagozzi, 1999) which creates the need to return to the normal situation. To take an action or not will depend on so many factors (for example, situational or personal). The coping responses are the strategies available for consumers as human beings to follow so-called secondary appraisal such as problem-focused or emotion-focused (Lazarus, 1991) or as Aron (2001) explained (for example, seeking for redress, exit, negative word-of-mouth, retaliation, false loyalty). Second appraisal or re-appraisal will follow to assess if taking specific action or

not will achieve the grieved consumer “perceived justice” and restore the balance again or will create secondary grudgeholding that extend and enlarge the first one and prolong it, or even will induce empathy and forgiveness. Hence, emotion regulation might comfort the angry consumer and tell if grudgeholding will persist or substitute by forgiveness emotions such as empathy and sympathy or just setting the neutral indifference condition. .

The cognitive-emotive process model of consumer grudgeholding components are:

- Flashpoint and grudgeholding initiation
- Appraisal and assessment (primary and secondary appraisal)
- Disequilibrium
- Emotional response
- Manifestation (grudgeholding coping responses)
- Re-appraisal of the grievance outcome

Most of the existing models have ignored the emotional component. Therefore, the research proposes a process model of consumer grudgeholding combining marketing and psychology by considering confirmation-disconfirmation, attribution theory, equity theory, Hirschman’s theory of exit, voice, and loyalty (1970), and cognitive appraisal theories. The study develop a cognitive-emotive- coping model that depicts how customer hold a grudge from the threshold of flashpoint through appraisal process, the most prominent emotions of the grudgeholders to the expected coping responses which aims to retrieve the equilibrium and psychological comfort. Furthermore, this model investigates the influence of gender along the process.

Appraisal theory, specifically the coping model of Lazarus (1991) is well suited to study the underlining psychological mechanisms of consumer grudgeholding behaviours for at least two main reasons: First, the proposed model captures cognitive, emotional and coping responses. Second, the model emphasizes a situation where harm was experienced with such severe unfairness that consumers are left to cope with an intense negative emotion such as anger, betrayal, disgust, and disappointment. Consumer grudgeholding is a process of cognition-emotion-coping response. This conceptual process is dynamic because most grudgeholders’ behaviours (for examples, complaining, negative word-of-mouth, exit) are largely dependent on the perceived outcome of the marketer response after redress seeking. (see Figure 3.2).

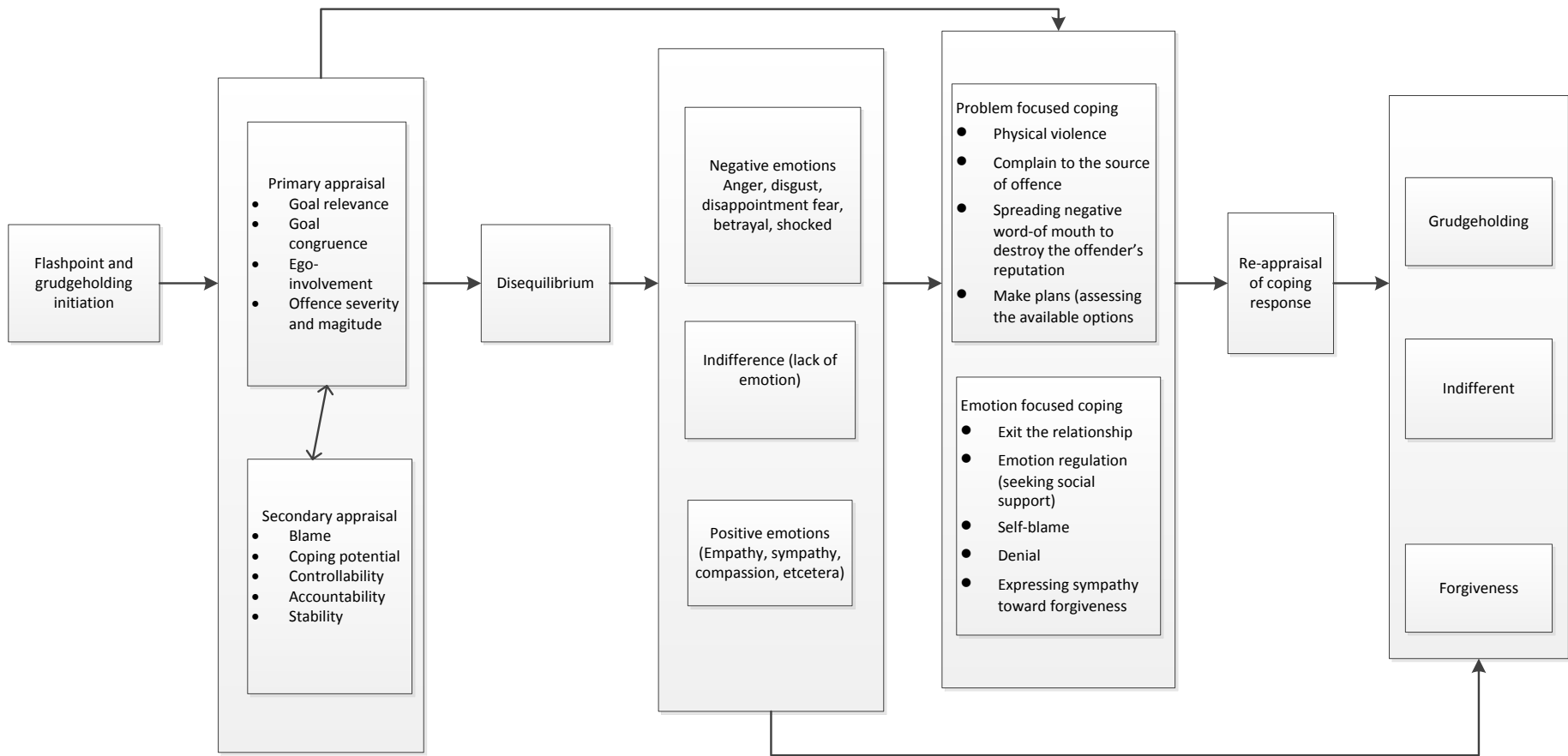


Figure 3.3.2: A cognitive-emotive process model of consumer grudgeholding

3.3.1 Flashpoint and grudgeholding initiation

Consumers are emotional too. They experience and express positive and negative emotions. The problem is when they experience and display the negative emotions. One of the most damaging emotions is what arises from grudgeholding. Grudge is a form of resentment strong enough to justify revenge. People who hold grudge may spend lots of focusing on how to get back and diffuse the negative emotions accompanied. This can be dangerous for a possibility of injuries. It is not just the disconfirmation of expectations per se; it is the negative emotion comes after appraising and evaluating the whole situation. Emotions arise as a result to thwarting specific plans or goal-relevant events (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Emotion as a primary motivator of human behaviour (Zajonc, 1982) can interact and affect the psychological process like drive, motivation, and cognition (Izard, 1977). The negative emotion can be extremely intense and live with the memory for a long time especially if it is triggered by some kind of personal offence (Schimmel, 1979). The severe negative emotion can go easily to the cognitions and perceptions of the person who has been offended making it difficult to forget or forgive (Otto et al., 2004). It is more serious especially for customers who have close relationships (Grégoire et al., 2009); they are more likely to feel disappointed, cheated and angry so they maintain their desire for revenge over a longer period, and their desire for avoidance grows more quickly over time.

There has also been an interest in specifying emotions. Following a service or product failure, customers experience negative emotions such as anger, disgust, shame and guilt that trigger revenge (Folkes, 1984; Harris and Reynolds, 2003; Xia et al., 2004; Zourrig, 2010) and avoidance as well (Dubé and Menon, 2000), and rarely positive emotions such as empathy that stimulate forgiveness (Chung and Beverland, 2006). Consumer behaviour scholars have built much of their work related to consumption-related emotions on the Consumption Emotions Set (CES) introduced by Richins (1997). Within the latter stream of research, some researchers use an inclusive set of specific emotions (Richins, 1997; Ruth et al., 2002). Others concentrate on one or a number of specific emotions, such as surprise (for example, Derbaix and Vanhamme, 2003), anger (Bougie et al., 2003; Taylor, 1994), regret (for example, Inman and Zeelenberg, 2002; Tsiros and Mittal, 2000), sympathy and empathy (Edson et al., 2003), and embarrassment (Verbeke and Bagozzi, 2003). Blame attribution identifies the nature of the emotion, for example, perceiving others as being responsible for the wrongdoing usually trigger anger, disgust, or contempt emotions, whereas blaming oneself prompts emotions of shame, regret and guilt (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998)

Emotional flashpoint caused by bad experience leads the way into forming negative behaviour (Aron, 2001). It might be one failure which levels the negative emotions up, or it might be two and more accompanied with unsatisfactory responses to the raised concerns. Customers can tolerate one failure with unsatisfactory recovery, but they likely will not tolerate two (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002) especially in a widely competitive market . Three elements are behind the negative attitude causing grudgeholding as stated by Aron “affect, behaviour, and cognition”. The cognition element in a grudgeholding process can lead to an immediate response or a postponed one after the flashpoint happens (Aron, 2001). Building on cognitive antecedents of falling into grudge such as performance, disconfirmation and injustice, consumer’s grudge is initiated.

Grudge results from a highly negative experience or several experiences, or generated based on negative word-of-mouth through little conversation with somebody who had already developed grudge making (what so-named secondary grudgeholding), (Hunt and Hunt, 1990). The main concern in this research is the grudge that is generated from bad experience with a company or an organization. Grudge happens when a consumer becomes emotionally upset due to a product or service failure. The goal relevant , the incongruent of the event , and the ego-involvement are all related positively with the failure and customer’s anger (Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2002). The likelihood that “thwarting”, unexpected barrier to goal accomplishment will give rise to an aggressive reaction to the degree of negative effect (Berkowitz, 1989).

Transgressions and how it appraised building on preceding experiences and relationships address the severity of the damage to relationships with sincere brands (Aaker et al., 2004), and set alarm to the extent of tolerance. It might show no signs of recovery despite subsequent reimbursement attempts. Customers hold grudge when they perceive the quality of the relationship as deteriorating; they feel angry, disappointed, cheated and betrayed. Their tolerance decreases to the extent of reaching the flashpoint of experiencing and expressing their grudge.

Grudgeholding, the same as dissatisfaction is a cognitive and emotional response that needs to be studied thoroughly. The grudgeholding research is meant to cover the basic and negative emotions (for example, anger, fear, disgust, and shame/humiliation). It has been added other negative emotions like disappointment which originates from disconfirmed expectations (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 1999). Basic emotions are innate and universal, and they can provide more information about the feelings of the consumer over and above positive and negative affect (Laros and Steenkamp, 2005). Some of the basic emotions, that we experience in the daily life as human beings, are collected and

described as basic emotions in Tunner and Ortony work (1990), for example, anger, anxiety, desire, love, fear, hope, sadness, shame, disgust, surprise.

Based on Izard's differential emotions theory which recognizes ten distinct emotions, Westbrook (1983) developed a shortened version of the differential emotions scale (DES) and applied it in the context of owner satisfaction with cars. The results indicated that, "four dimensions describing the type of emotions typically experienced were discovered, reflecting anger/sadness, enjoyment/interest, surprise, and self-blame/anxiety" (p.7). Hence, emotions like anger, sadness and shame are considered as significant predictors of consumer dissatisfaction (Nyer, 1997). Both consumers and researchers recognized the affective side of satisfaction response and its intensity, that ranges from strong to weak, as described by Giese and Cote (2000) (like love, excited, thrilled, very satisfied, surprised, relieved, frustrated, indifferent, cheated, angry, etcetera.). The determinants of satisfaction expanded by Oliver to include positive affect (interest and joy) and negative affect (anger, disgust, contempt, shame, guilt, fear, sadness) in addition to disconfirmation beliefs (Oliver, 1993; Bagozzi et al., 2002). Some negative and positive emotions like (frustration, anger, disappointment, disgust, guilt, shame, anxiety, joy happiness, hope excitement and pleasure) are among many others, consumers might experience (Bagozzi et al., 2002). It is not clear that the un-forgiveness is anger based rather than fear based, but clinically it is proved that anger is the primary emotion associated with un-forgiveness.

Cognition and emotion define individuals' behaviours. Increasingly, the literature recognizes that emotion, not just cognition, influences judgment, decision making and even post-purchase behaviours (Lerner and Keltner, 2000; Bonifield and Cole, 2007). Berkowitz (1990) proposed a cognitive model to account for the effects of negative affect on the development of angry feelings and the display of emotional aggression. The central idea of his model is that anger and aggression are precedent by a negative affect, which can be influenced by cognition as well. He added that subsequent thought involving attributions, appraisals, and schematic conceptions can then intensify, suppress, enrich, or differentiate the initial reactions (P.494). Smith and Bolton (2002) studied the role of customer's emotion in the context of service failure and recovery encounter and found that customers' satisfaction will be influenced by their emotional responses to service failures and that they might have different responses to various types of recoveries such as apology and compensation contingent with their emotional state.

Different emotions have different behavioural responses, for example according to Laros and Steenkamp (2005), a failure in a product or service creates feeling of anger or sadness, but it might create various responses. Both angry and sad people feel that

something wrong is occurred, but the difference is while sad person becomes inactive and withdrawn, the angry person might fight against the cause of the anger (Shaver et al., 1987). Frustration as being an aversive element can generate aggressive feelings (Berkowitz, 1989). Also, unexpected failure to a goal fulfilling can form aggression easier than in the case of the expected failure (Berkowitz, 1989). The common view in marketing is that specific emotions like anger, sadness, and regret contribute to customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Mano and Oliver 1993; Oliver 2000). Bougie et al (2003) study indicates that angry customers were dissatisfied, but that dissatisfied customers were not necessarily angry.

Anger is one of those emotions that trigger some actions as revenge. It is defined by Schimmel (1979, p.322): Anger is a passion aroused in a person when he suffers a slight or an injury or perceives himself to have suffered one, and which directs his actions toward punishment of the real or perceived offender"- "Letting off steam". The concepts of injuries might be events or actions even though there is no malicious harm which however can be subjected to the person's appraisal according to Schimmel. Anger is a strong, uncomfortable, emotional response to a real or perceived provocation (Videbeck, 2013). Schimmel (1979, P.326) cited from Aristotle discussed three points when he talked about anger according to The disposition of mind which makes men angry (for example, perceived insult); the persons with whom men are usually angry (for example, those from whom they think they have a right to expect to be well treated, but were not); and the occasions which give rise to anger (for example, unanticipated insult; states of physical frustration, fatigue, or illness).

However based on all the discussion above, it is hypothesized that:

H1a: The "flashpoint" of the grudge develops into a combination of intense negative emotions (for example, anger, disgust, shame, surprised).

H1b: The "flashpoint" of the grudge is the consequence of appraising the event rather than the event itself.

3.3.2 Appraisal and assessment (primary and secondary appraisal)

Emotions are associated with specific appraisals (see Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984; Scherer, 1999; Smith and Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner et al., 1982; Lerner and Keltner, 2001). These appraisals reflect the core meaning of the event that elicits each emotion (Lazarus,

1991). Emotions are created by the distinctive psychological appraisal made by the person evaluating and interpreting the events and circumstances rather than the specific events and situations (Bagozzi, 1999). Moreover, emotions arise in response to appraisals one makes for something of relevance to one's goals and well-being. By appraisal, Bagozzi (1999) means an evaluative judgment and interpretation therefor. By something of relevance, Bagozzi refers to any incident that happens to oneself like in the case of an unplanned event, receiving or failing to receive an intended and expected outcome to a particular activity, or any change in an object, person, or assumption that has personal meaning. In marketing, after a service or product failure, consumers make appraisals or assessments about the circumstances of this failure. This cognitive process, in turn, affect how a consumer responds emotionally and behaviourally (Bonifield and Cole, 2007). Hence, individuals decide on whether an event is stressful enough to elicit the coping responses required or not. Therefore, some consumers assess the environmental encounter as harmful and related to their well-being, stressful enough to ignite the flashpoint of grudgeholding (Folkman et al., 1986), while others appraise the event or events positively that may create the emotions of sympathy, empathy and forgiveness (Zourrig et al., 2009).

Making purchasing decisions according to "information processing model" requires the consumer to be logical thinker (Bettman, 1979). The influential theory of emotions (Schachter and Singer, 1962) discussed that emotion is fundamentally a mixture between bodily arousal and a cognitive label one provides to diagnose his or her felt arousal. Therefore, the cognition determines whether the state of physiological arousal will be labelled as "anger," "joy," "fear," or whatever.

In a conflict of customer-marketing relationship, the appraisal process goes through the primary-secondary appraisal and re-appraisal. First, the offended customer think of the wrongdoing and assesses the severity, magnitude and the frequency of the aggression trying to reframe the offensive experience in either a positive or a negative way (Zourrig et al., 2009), based on its related to their goals' attainment (so-called primary appraisal). Customers evaluate and assess the alternatives of solving the problem in terms of restoring the equilibrium and the emotional balance. Moreover, secondary appraisal involves people's assessment of the accountability and controllability of the situation (for example, whose fault it is? Who is to blame?). Individuals usually give credit for an advantageous event and give blame for a harmful event (Lazarus, 1991). Additionally, an individual might also see the incident as a chance. However, the way in which people view

who or what should be held responsible leads and guides their efforts to cope with the emotions they experience.

Achieving one's goals or not, is the main issue when we talk about emotions and actions. Oatley and Johnson-Laird (1987) suggested that in their communicative theory of emotions, events are interpreted to associate a person's aim. Emotions occur to harmonize the cognitive system so to manage responses to events. Each goal and plan has a monitoring techniques that evaluates events relevant to it. When a considerable change in possibility occurs of achieving an important goal or sub goal, the monitoring techniques transmit to the whole cognitive system a signal that can activate the readiness to respond to this change. Humans experience these signals and the conditions of readiness they induce as emotions (Oatley, 1992, p.50). Hence, these emotions define the individual's response. For example, Bonifield and Cole (2007) found that two negatively valenced emotions (anger and regret) mediate the effects of consumers' appraisals about service failure on post-purchase behaviours. They found that anger plays a powerful role in explaining retaliatory behaviours.

This perspective reflects an individualistic value orientation where people are more common to place greater priority on achieving their own goals over that of the group (Strelan and Covic, 2006). However, despite the fact that saving money and time are the most common customers' goals in marketing field (Xia et al., 2004), people may assess differently harmful events. Some customers appraise the situation in a positive way which does not lead them to grudge harbouring but instead to empathy, sympathy and forgiveness. For instance, they may assess the transgressing incident as not enough severe to ignite the flashpoint of their negative emotions, its occurrence is infrequent and does not make a big deal to justify their negative reaction in accordance, and/or the service provider has attempt to recover the wrongdoing (Zourrig et al., 2009). However, the research is concerned about the other type of appraisal that lead to severe, intense and long lasting feeling of hostile grievance (grudgeholding) which is enough to trigger harming revenge to both the aggressor and the victim. Hence, it is a significant challenge for a betrayed customer with worries and rumination about the experienced offense (Maltby et al., 2007).

Hence, emotion triggers a set of responses (physiology, behaviour, experience, and communication) that allow individuals to tackle their problems (Frijda, 1986; Oatley and Johnson-Laird, 1996, Lerner and Keltner, 2000). For example, severe perceptions of unfairness typically come with heat and passion, anger and outrage, and they insistently press for action or redress (Xia et al., 2004). Emotions not only can be studied as a

response towards specific situations or appraisals, but that emotions can also have impact on appraisals and judgments (Gutierrez and Giner-Sorolla, 2007). While the general emotional state of the customers which is either positive, neutral or negative affects their evaluations of service failures and recovery encounters, their evaluations can vary due to the intensity of their discrete emotions such as anger and disappointment. Emotions provoke changes in cognition, physiology, and responses to the event that evoked the emotion (Lerner and Keltner, 2001). Negative emotions (For example, anger, sadness, fear) put individuals in disequilibrium situation that encourages them to return to the normal state (Bagozzie et al., 1999). Such negative emotions like anger and hostility are important antecedents to aggressive behaviour (Anderson and Bushman, 2002; Archer, 2004; Berkowitz, 1990; Norlander and Eckhardt, 2005; Rubio et al., 2016).

Another aspect of secondary appraisal is a person's coping potential (which is defined in psychology as realistic and flexible thoughts and acts that solve problems and reduce stress). Coping potential is either using problem-focused coping or emotion-focused coping strategies to handle an emotional experience (Smith and Kirby, 2009). Basically, it is a matter of fight or flight. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) distinguished between two forms of coping behaviours: (1) problem-focused coping that is directed at managing or alleviating the source of distress or altering the situation causing the grief to resolve the problem or at least to reduce its impact (for example, solving the problem, reducing its impact); and (2) emotion-focused coping that is directed at regulating emotional response to the problem to reducing displayed negative emotions such as anger, frustration and irritation or changing the meaning of the source of distress (for example, deny that a threat exists, distance oneself from the source of distress and displaying positive emotions such as empathy and forgiveness) or avoid thinking about a problem (Bagozzie et al., 1999; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Additionally, problem-focused coping includes motivational and cognitive appraisal strategies that are directed inwards to the self (for example, aspiration, reducing ego involvement, finding new channels of gratification and learning new skills). Problem-focused coping refers to one's ability to take action and to change a situation to make it more congruent with one's goals (Smith and Kirby, 2009). On the other hand, emotion-focused coping refers to one's ability to handle or adjust to the situation of inconsistency with one's objectives (Smith and Kirby, 2009), trying to look at the bright side of things, sympathy and understanding the others, forgetting and avoiding the whole thing Lazarus and Folkman (1984). Moreover, the emotions people experience are influenced by how they perceive their ability to perform each of coping strategies. Yet, the appraisal includes

modification of emotions once provoked. It consists of trials to modify experiential, physiological, and expressive contents through suppression of emotional expression, suppression of emotional thoughts and social sharing of emotion (Gross, 1998, 2002).

Bagozzi et al. (2002) stated four types of coping responses two of them can fit in the research, outcome-desire conflicts and outcome-desire avoidance. They give this research a broad vision of the various coping responses the grudgeholders can follow. In the case of outcome-desire conflicts when one fails to attain a goal or when one experiences an unpleasant event, outcome-desire conflicts occur. One or more emotional reactions (for example, anger, shame, sadness, disgust) can be the result of such appraisal, outcome-desire conflicts. These emotions change in response to the cause of the goal failure or the unpleasant event (which might be self, other person or unspecified cause). Hence, several coping responses to these emotions, in consequence, are available for the person to go back to the normal state (for example, the intention to remove harm, seeking help or support, reduce outcome, re-assess goal, or intensify effort, if appropriate, depending on the particular emotion involved (Bagozzi et al., 2002). On the other hand, emotions like worry, anxiety and distress are triggered accordance to the anticipation of unpleasant outcomes or goals in what (so-called outcome-desire avoidance). The coping response(s) to these emotions represent by either intention to avoid undesirable outcomes or reinterpret the problem. These two kinds of coping responses: Outcome-desire conflicts and outcome-desire avoidance are compatible with Lazarus (1991) explanation of the appraisal: problem-focused and emotion-focused.

However the other two strategies are helpful in the case of somebody is lucky enough that everything is going as required, or in the case of somebody has lots of hope and patience. Therefore, outcome-desire fulfilments take place when one achieves a goal, experiences a pleasant event or avoids an unpleasant event. One or more emotional reactions occur (for example, joy, pleasure, pride, relief, caring, love). The coping response(s) to these emotions include an intention to maintain, increase, share or enjoy the outcome (Bagozzi et al, 2002, p. 43).

The same process of appraisal (primary, secondary and emotional or problem focused coping responses) occurs in the context of customer-business industry. The betrayed customer appraises and assesses the offense severity and the amount of damage caused to his/her well-being and seeks out who is to blame for the wrongdoing (Zourrig et al., 2015). Higher responsibility attributions escalate consumers' anger and tendency to boycott (Hartmann and Moeller, 2014). The customer who appraises the wrongdoing event as other-oriented may suffer negative emotions such as anger which urges him/her to

either exert retaliation or seek avoidance. Hence, individuals harbour a grudge when they appraise the situation as others' faults rather than the self. Besides, the causal attributions such as, locus of causality, controllability, and stability explain the cause of a negative outcome in a trusting relationship and tell when trustworthiness is in need of repair (Tomlinson and Mayer, 2009). Appraising a negative event as within one's control, the resulting emotion is likely to be anger. Whereas, sadness and fear are the resulting emotions when an event is appraised to be beyond one's control (Robichaud et al., 2003).

Hence, the cognitive dissonance, confirmation/disconfirmation, justice and fairness and causal attributions guide the whole cognitive-emotive process of grudgeholding. Whereas, the customer who recognizes in part his responsibility for the wrongdoing, he/she blames himself/herself and may experience negative emotions such as regret and shame that lead to avoidance for instance (Zourrig et al., 2009a). On the other hand, if a customer reframes the offense as a challenge, self-blamed, he/she replaces negative emotions with positive ones (for instance, sympathy) against the wrongdoer, which will result in forgiveness (Worthington and Wade, 1999; McCullough, 2001; Zourrig et al., 2009b). However, some customers tend not to forgive till they get the appropriate response and the satisfactorily recovery so they replace their negative emotions with positive. Such change of emotional state is likely to motivate the offended customer to forgive the wrongdoing. This forgiveness is related with positive emotions such as empathy, compassion, sympathy (Wade and Worthington, 2005; Berry et al., 2005). Strelan and Covic (2006) advocate that forgiveness may be viewed as emotion-focused coping as well as problem focused coping.

Negative emotions are likely to influence a variety of assessment and judgements in highly differentiated ways (Lerner and Keltner, 2000). For example, some customers may respond to their experienced emotions by displaying them, so they express outwardly their emotions and engage in problem solving strategy by seeking confrontation and revenge. Whereas others may be unable to express the appropriate emotions due to different reasons (for examples, that the adversarial part has more power and because he is fearful of retaliation), so instead they try to adjust their perception of the situation by regulating their emotional responses to the problem and try to escape from the situation by avoidance (Zourrig et al., 2009).

Furthermore, literature discussed the cognitive appraisal of the offended customers after an external cause ignites anger through two stages (Nguyen and Kennedy, 2003). First, they argued that offended customers mentally assess unfairness based on three determinants namely: goal relevance (whether contradict with well-being and personal stake or not), goal incongruence (achieving their wants and desires or not) and ego involvement (if it touches one's self esteem and moral values or not). Second, they suggested some strategies to diffuse customer anger using causal attribution theory and communication techniques based on what should be done by the service provider rather than what customers can do to alleviate their anger : (a) listening; (b) engaging in blame displacement; and (c) providing an apology to the customer. Future expectancy is another kind of secondary appraisal (Lazarus, 1991). Future expectancy refers to one's expectations of favorable or unfavorable change in the motivational congruence of a situation for some reason (Lazarus, 1991). Therefore, one's future expectancy influences the emotions elicited during a situation as well as the coping strategies used.

Coping potential is important in the appraisal process. Literature in psychology addressed various types of coping. Grudgeholding consumers evaluate the likely success and the best coping strategies to retrieve their equilibrium. Skinner and colleagues (2003) designed twelve categories of coping strategies based on level of distress and target of coping: Problem solving (planning, strategizing, instrumental action), support seeking (contact seeking, comfort seeking, spiritual support, and instrumental aid), isolation (avoidance, social withdrawal and concealment), accommodation (distraction, minimization, acceptance, cognitive restructuring), negotiation (bargaining, persuasion, priority setting), submission (rumination, rigid preservation, intrusive thoughts), opposition (other blame, aggression, projection), delegation (complaining, whining, self-pity, maladaptive help-seeking), self-reliance (emotion regulation, behaviour regulation, emotion expression, emotional approach), escape (cognitive avoidance, behavioural avoidance, denial, wishful thinking), helplessness (confusion, cognitive interference, cognitive exhaustion), information seeking (reading, observation, asking others). People control and regulate their emotion in the daily life. There are many reasons to do so. They may do so to avoid unpleasant and painful feeling, for personal reasons, "self-protection motives" (for example, trying not to think about something caused bad feeling "emotional thought suppression or inhibition", or they think that the emotions have an impact on others and there is need for regulation, "pro-social motives" (Niedenthal et al., 2006). However, suppression might not eliminate the experience of negative emotions but can reduce the experience of positive emotions (Niedenthal et al., 2006). On the other hand, talking about

one's feeling to others or the so-called "social sharing of emotions" may have an impact on emotions (p. 164).

Enhancement or inhibition strategies were explained in the context of the regulation of emotional experience (Niedenthal et al., 2006). Some people regulate their emotional experience by "rumination" through concentrating on them especially the negative thoughts and feelings and then reducing their unpleasant impact. However, others found that rumination thoughts about anger, guilt and anxiety have similar consequences of producing longer lasting and more intense emotions (Gross, 1999). Rumination about the transgression is negatively associated with forgiveness, which increases negative emotion such as revenge or avoidance for the transgressors (McCullough et al., 2007). Rumination is defined socially and psychologically as "engaging in a passive focus on one's symptoms of distress and on the possible causes and consequences of these symptoms" (Nolen-Hoeksema and Jackson, 2001, p. 37). Ruminating about the causes of one's depressive symptoms is associated with negative affect and long lasting depressed mood (Mor and Winquist, 2002). Rumination increases anger while distraction decreases it or has no effect on anger (Rusting and Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998), and rumination in comparison to distraction increases rather than decreases anger and aggression (Bushman, 2002). Furthermore, rumination is an important factor in the phenomenon of triggered displaced aggression as it relates to perceived negative events (Miller et al., 2003).

The offended consumer formed a negative emotion and attitude toward a company or an organization (that is, the object of grudgeholding) after his/her flashpoint has been ignited (Aron, 2001). The cognition efforts involved in assessing grudgeholding' responses are functions of several factors. The attribution of blame for the situation justifies the complaining response (for example, Folkes, 1984; Blodgett and Granbois, 1992), and the outcome desired by the offended consumer. Aron (2001) discussed that just as complaining is goal directed, the grudgeholding process is meant to achieve an end. Consumers differ in their desired outcomes of complaining whether to get a refund, an apology, incurring the marketer some punishment, or protecting oneself from other problems in future. Besides, the appraisal involved assessing the perceived costs of their response to the offence like the cost of exiting the relationship and forming new one, and the cost of raising their complaints. Cognitive appraisal ensures for the victimized consumer that the outcomes should outweigh the costs. The results of the assessment at the end should have high possibility of success (see also, Hunt et al, 1988; Hunt and Hunt, 1990; Hunt, 1991; Huefner and Hunt, 1992; Francis, and Davis, 1990; Baumeister et al., 1998). Other disappointed or unexpected outcomes for a service recovery failure may

prolong the existing grudge or create another one which goes through cognitive-emotive-coping again.

Yet building on the literature of the appraisal theories, the research suggests that:

H2a: Grudgeholding is the consequence of the negative appraisal of others fault.

H2b: Grudgeholding goes through several stages of appraisal.

3.3.3 Emotional response

Emotions help as the stimulus to action and function as motivations to act. They arise as in response to the appraised harm of human freedom or self-esteem and disregard for communal values are deeply aggressive to one's moral beliefs. In view of that, felt moral emotions induce the person experiencing them that one has reasons to act against the offending party so as to punish or stop them from harming other people or the community like voicing the negative word and protesting directly as main effects (Grappi et al., 2013). There are several cognitive appraisal dimensions which differentiate emotional experience like, pleasantness, anticipated effort, certainty, responsibility, control, and situational control, certainty, (Lazarus, 1991a; Smith and Ellsworth, 1985). For example, certainty, control, and responsibility are the central dimensions which distinguish anger from other negative emotions. Different emotions are associated with different behaviours. For example, angry approach-related desire to harm one's offender is associated with a revengeful stance, whereas an avoidant stance is associated with a fearful desire to maintain a safe distance from the transgressor (McCullough et al., 1998, 1997). Such coping responses are manifest in felt action tendencies in response to the experience of the emotions and reflect urges "to move against" an offending party (Frijda et al., 1989).

Anger arises from appraisals of other blameworthy and responsibility for negative events, individual control, and a sense of certainty about what happened (Lerner and Keltner, 2000; Watson and Spence, 2007). Contempt, anger, and disgust (so-called the hostility triad) spring from common origins and occur as a consequence of similar appraisals made by people in response to ethical and social harm violation of normative or moral standards and disapproval of others (Grappi et al., 2013; Izard, 2013, 1977). It has been discussed that the agent's controllability, intention and the severity of harm increase the degree of anger (Weber, 2004). The following focuses on anger as a prominent emotion in grudgeholding.

Anger and disgust

Anger is one of the most powerful emotions according to its profound impact on social relations in addition to effects on the person experiencing this emotion (Lazarus, 1991). Anger is a strong feeling of displeasure or hostility that is aroused from perceived other-responsibility, and laden by a desire to attack the source of anger (Bonifield and Cole, 2007). Anger is a negative emotion that varies in intensity from slight irritation or moderate annoyance to rage or fury (Rubio et al., 2016). Personal anger is defined in literature as a reaction related to a negative event that can be attributed to an external party, while the person has the resources to confront the event (Lazarus, 1991; Ortony et al., 1988; Roseman et al., 1996; Weiner, 2013). Anger is described as a feeling or a class of expressive-motor or physiological reactions or as a set of behaviours or a combination of all of these things (Berkowitz, 1990).

People get angry when they face unpleasant events which are attributed to someone's intentional and controllable misdeed (Weiner, 2013). Anger arises from appraisals of other responsibility of negative events (Lerner and Keltner, 2000). Angry person perceive events caused by humans as more likely and other people as more responsible (Keltner et al., 1993). Though, appraisal and attribution theorists have emphasized that anger is mainly determined by aggressive interpretations (Lazarus, 1991; Smith and Kirby, 2004). Anger occurs when the negative occurrences are viewed as threats to their well-being (Lazarus et al., 1970). However, a customer may be angry for many different reasons (Nguyen and Kennedy, 2003). Customers may experience both anger and dissatisfaction in response to many product and service failures such as long waiting, dealing with unresponsive or ill-mannered, or unsatisfactory product repairing. Berkowitz (1990) indicates that anger can arise even when the negative event is not regarded as a personal threat and is not blamed on someone's unjustified action, but was produced by natural forces rather than some human agent. It is more likely for people with depressed mood in itself to produce angry feelings and aggressive inclinations. There is evidence for this contention in the way anger is often blended together with sadness and depression in everyday life (Scherer and Tannenbaum, 1986).

Research has also shown that anger can additionally respond to a larger set of appraisals, elicitors, and conditions, such as goal complications, control and accountability, arrogant entitlement, and unfairness (Kuppens et al., 2003). Anger is recognized by sense of individual control and certainty, while fear is recognized by a situational control and

uncertainty (Lerner and Keltner, 2001). Kuppens et al. (2003) found that none of the single appraisals studied were necessary or sufficient to elicit anger, suggesting that the elicitors of anger are complex and possibly dependent on the situation or individual. Certain kinds of appraisal or attributional beliefs can strengthen or weaken the anger experience (Berkowitz, 1990). Bonifield and Cole (2007) discuss that there are several dimensions can distinguish anger from other negative emotions: certainty, control, and attribution that relates to the appraisal theme of responsibility. For example, anger occurs when individuals appraise the negative events as others' responsibility. In contrast to anger, regret arises when people perceive themselves as responsible for the negative experience. Hence, anger and aggression rise up in response to many different kinds of aversive events like frustrations, negative appraisals, and unpleasant environmental conditions.

Anger provokes confrontation (that is, the coping response route). Physical and verbal aggression is certainly the major construct of the behavioural component of anger (Gambetti and Giusberti, 2016; Rubio et al., 2016). Negative affect tends to trigger ideas, memories, and expressive-motor reactions associated with anger, aggression and hostile behaviour (Berkowitz, 1990). So compared to less angry people, angry consumers are more likely to engage in retaliatory behaviours and less likely to engage in conciliatory negotiations with this blameworthy other (Bonifield and Cole, 2007). Negative emotions such as anger are found to be the key catalyst of revenge behaviour (Zourrig et al., 2009). Anger caused by a transgression may activate memories of previous transgressions and thus provoke physiological readiness for fight-or-flight responding to the transgression (Miller et al., 2003; McCullough et al., 2007). Angry customers are motivated to say something nasty and to complain, getting back at the service provider and hurting business, in addition to spreading negative word-of-mouth, taking legal action, and switching responses (Bougie et al., 2003).

Dissatisfaction was proved to be a significant predictor of switching, negative WOM, and complaint behaviour, but where we controlled for anger, dissatisfaction was no longer a significant predictor of complaint behaviour and negative WOM (Bougie et al., 2003). Besides, anger mediates the relationship between service encounter dissatisfaction and customers' responses to service failure complaint behaviour and negative WOM, and a partial mediator for switching. Dissatisfaction would be the result of the customer's focus on the negative event, whereas anger would result from a focus on both the negative event and the blameworthiness of the service provider's actions. A crucial aspect distinguishing anger from other negative emotions is the element of blame or the belief that we have been wronged unjustifiably (Lazarus, 1991).

Bougie et al. (2003) found that angry customers don't come back, but they get back. They studied the anger's feelings, thinking, actions, and action tendencies. People associate anger with feelings "as if they would explode" and "of being overwhelmed by their emotions." Typical thoughts associated with anger are "thinking of violence towards others" and "thinking of how unfair something is." Anger is associated with action tendencies such as "feel like behaving aggressively" and "letting go." Actions that are characteristic for anger are "saying something nasty" and "complaining." Finally, typical motivational goals are "wanting to hurt someone" and "wanting to get back at someone." (p. 379).

Anger and disgust are moderate to high correlated (Gutierrez and Giner-Sorolla, 2007). Although these relationships can be theoretically predicted, the inclusion of measures of action tendencies further clarified the distinctions between anger and disgust in conditions wherein these emotions were highly correlated; for example, the tendency to attack and punishment is for anger, and avoidance is for disgust (Gutierrez and Giner-Sorolla, 2007). Shteynberg (2005) found that anger triggers retaliation of people in general (that is, individuals with interdependent self-construal as well as those with independent construal of self). This led the research to denote and hypothesize :

H3a: grudgeholders experience various negative emotions(anger, disgust, betrayal, disappointed, etcetera) because they appraise the negative events differently.

H3b: Anger is the most prominent emotion of grudgeholders which trigger their confronting response.

3.3.4 Manifestation (grudgeholding coping responses)

The idea that emotions influence human thoughts, judgments, and decisions is recognizable in literature and the daily life. For example, a person angered in the morning by a failure in a driving tests, may find subsequent experiences to be more irritating according to the effects of the first one like the restaurant service is slow and bad or an old friend is boring and annoying. Retaliation, avoidance, grudgeholding, false or real loyalty, and negative or positive word-of-mouth, complaining or commitment are all emotion-driven behavioural responses to consumer bad experiences (Hunt, 1993; Aron, 2001; Otto et al, 2004; Watson and Spence, 2007; Schoefer and Diamantopoulos, 2008).

Wronged customers are likely to react aggressively to betrayals by damaging firm belongings, insulting and physically attacking personnel (Harris and Reynolds 2003; Funches et al., 2008). Sometimes consumers try to hurt the firm in any way like destroying its fame through attacking, negative word-of-mouth or complaining illegitimately, and sometimes they prefer to be peacemakers spreading positive word-of-mouth, intending to return to a service provider, and feeling sympathy for the service provider. Some recognized two strategies of responses, confrontational and non-confrontational to an offence. The differences in emotional experiences, expressing and which way of responses to choose are cultural related identified by individualism v. collectivism (Hui and Au, 2001; Matsumoto and Kupperbusch, 2001; Mattila and Patterson, 2004), so they suggested that: allocentrics are more likely to cope with non-confrontational responses whereas idiocentrics are inclined to adopt direct confrontation responses. Therefore, there are a range of confronting and retaliatory behaviours as follows: consumption prevention, voice, exit and boycotting (Funches et al., 2008). Bonifield and Cole (2007) distinguished retaliatory and conciliatory behaviours. Zourrig et al., 2009 uncover how customer's cognitive–emotive process leads them to pursue either confrontational/fight tactics (revenge) or non-confrontational/flight (avoidance). Day and Landon (1977) discussed that dissatisfied consumers will either “take public or private action” or take no action. For examples, redress seeking directly, legal action, and complaining to public or private agencies are described as public actions; while boycotting the seller or the manufacturer and/or warning friends and relatives are described as private actions. However, taking action is more likely especially in the case of grudgeholding. Offended customers tend to react aggressively to betrayals by destroying firm properties, insulting and attacking personnel as they want to hit where it hurts the most (Bechwati and Morrin, 2003).

Research shows the negative emotions such as anger, shame, and outrage, are the major emotions motivates the propensity to take a stand and aggress in many forms like negative word-of-mouth, complaining to the shop or retaliate (Folkes, 1984, Huefner et. al, 2002; Bougie et al., 2003; Otto et al, 2004; Xia et al., 2004). Some customers retaliate to teach the service provider a lesson or to save others from the same bad experience (Funches et al., 2008). People will feel obliged to remain consistent with their avoidance behaviour if they spread the word; whereas, the opposite will happen if they tell and complain to the shop about the negative experience which decreases the length of avoidance in response (Otto et al, 2004). Emotion is an important factor that drive our behaviours and control its enduring.

Therefore, aggressive instigation arising from negative emotion (Berkowitz, 1989), and emotion is defined as motivator of human behaviour (Zajonc, 1982). When the intensely negative emotion go through cognitions and perceptions, it becomes difficult to avoid the provocation to retaliate (Otto et al., 2004). The aggressive feelings which are generated from a consumer-marketer conflict will stay until those emotions recognized and subsequently released like in the case when the consumers seek redress from the store and/or tell others in order to destroy the offender's reputation to take revenge (Aron, 2001; Otto, 2004). Therefore, to comfort themselves psychologically, angry customers often seek the revenge from transgressing firms (Bougie et al., 2003, Xia et al., 2004).

Apart from the nature of the customer-marketer relationship, offence triggers bad feeling which can be expressed immediately at the time of its occurrence or later. People may intensify their upsetting memories and vengeful thoughts through voicing using the language or through other revenging behaviours (Witvliet et.al, 2001). A study conducted by Lindenmeier and colleagues (2012) examined the effects of unethical corporate behaviour on consumer emotions and found that consumer outrage is a compound emotion that comprises affective and cognitive experiences that triggers boycotting. Moreover, relationships sometimes change from love to hate or from loyalty to retaliation. Rowley and Dawes (2000) found that when the loyal customers defect, they are prone to take an attitude and behaviour, not just remain neutral; it might be their experience which makes them more affected than others. Grégoire and Fisher (2007) discussed the case when best customers turn to be worst enemies and found that betrayal is a vital motivational force that leads customers to restore justice by all means possible, including retaliation.

Thus, voice and/or exit or what so-called "articulation and desertion" (Hirschman, 1970, p.31), false loyalty and/or retaliation (Aron, 2001) are different coping responses (that is, manifestation) to the intense negative emotions resulting from offence, betrayal, and/or deteriorating circumstance of the grudgeholding consumers toward the object of grudge. (see Appendix D for other grudgeholding responses), which need to be addressed in the future research.

Avoidance and exit

Consumers defect to a competing company/organization or avoid the product category altogether (Hogan et al, 2003). Exit means that the consumer will stop buying a product or

service again or/and not to buy from a particular retailer or manufacturer again (Boote, 1998). When annoyed customers switch to other retailers, they depend on market to defend their welfare and improve their position giving a chance to the “Invisible Hand” of the market in the recovery of firm declining (Hirschman, 1970). Hence, Hirschman differentiates between two cases of consumer reactions according to the market circumstances. First, there is competition so the consumer escapes from defectiveness to the competitor especially when it is hard to bring more effective pressures upon management toward product improvement. Second, when it is monopoly, the consumer learns to live with the inevitable imperfection.

Some researchers differentiate between exit and avoidance. Avoidance according to Huefner and Hunt (1992) is the “repetitious exit” with cognitive nature more than emotional one, which means to stop buying from a special shop or to stop using a special brand. Avoidance is either an exit behaviour or/and exit and voice together (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). The customer who has a bad experience with a shop or a brand may just exit or may exit and tell the others. Avoidance itself is different than the heavy emotional feeling of upset which lasts for long time in grudgeholding (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). Grudgeholding and avoidance behaviours resist to change over time and grudgeholding differs from avoidance by loading with emotional upset (Thota and Wright, 2006). Thus, exit continues in the future short term, intermediate, or long term. Extended exit is avoidance then extended, long term avoidance is grudgeholding (Hunt et al, 1988; Hunt and Hunt 1990: Huefner and Hunt, 1994). However, the offended consumers may not just avoid one product or service, but all items and services over time or even chain of stores altogether (Otto et al, 2004).

Exit can be the first and quick reaction for many offended customers in their relationships with firms (Aron et al., 2007), especially if the voice is not perceived to be an option, or it is costly to express (Hirschman, 1970). Sometimes avoidance can be a result to the recovery failure. Customers give up hope in finding a resolution and avoid the firm completely; they search for alternative solutions with the competitors (Grégoire et al., 2009). However, there are many reasons which encourage customers to exit such as variety-seeking of products and services, unavailability of a product or service (like stock-outs or a long wait for an appointment), or the purchase itself because of a fake discount or other forms of offensive promotion (like when marketer offend race, religion, or sex (Aron, 2001). Hunt’s and Huefner’s (1992) discussed other reasons of avoidance like product or service quality, the product does not work, contaminated, polluted, or tastes horrible. Avoidance can be for refusal to repair a product or repair but slow or not satisfying. Sometimes the whole

atmosphere does not suit some customers like dirty, dark, or dingy place. Most do not accept rudeness or aggressiveness so personnel issues are important factors. Besides, customers switch due to other reasons like moving home or changes in availability, not to forget switching under recommendations' effect (East et al., 2001), see Appendix C about some reasons of brand/shop avoidance.

Avoidance is one of grudgeholding's coping responses. Regardless of the heavy negative emotion that trigger an action to regulation and alleviation, many factors determine the assessment of exit occurrence such as personality variables and factors mediate the relationship between the customer and the marketer. The attribution of blame, the consideration of the outcomes desired by the grieved customer, and the costs involved in grudgeholding are also determinants of the customer response to grudgeholding. The cost of staying with the offended party or leaving the relationship to the side of another competitor, and the cost of voicing the grievance like the in complaint case, all are factors to be considered in the assessment of which reaction should be taken.

Return or exit is determined by consumer's appraisal of the whole elements of the shopping process. Some factors are critical for customers more than others like the location of a shopping mall or/and the friendly environment. It is intuitive that consumers will prefer to shop at malls that have easy access because this enhances consumers' emotional response and overall evaluation of the mall. Environments that elicit feelings of pleasure are likely to be ones where people want to spend time and money (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982). Furthermore, exit is a way of negative emotion regulation like outcome-desire avoidance. "The mechanism seems to involve the fantasy that by avoiding the sight of the object, one can avoid the connected anxiety producing feelings" (Wixen, 1971, p.338). Some customers choose to escape or avoid to stay away from distress and anger caused by an offending incident (Godwin et. al, 1995).

Therefore, it is suggested that:

H4a: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (such as anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal etcetera) and (grudgeholding lasting)

H4b: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraisal process of the grievance outcome.

Voice (word-of-mouth and complaining)

Voice whether it is written or oral has been defined as the attempt to seek redress from the retailer or manufacturer (Boote, 1998). In an attempt to remedy the dissatisfying experience, consumers spread negative word-of-mouth and/or complain to the retailer, manufacturer or third party (Richins, 1983). When customers voice their concerns only to firms, it is a private complaining, while going beyond firms' borders to alert the public about a service failure episode, it is a public complaining (Grégoire et al., 2009). When firms keep failing to address customers' private complaints and achieve satisfactory recoveries, they encourage them to engage in public complaints (Ward and Ostrom, 2006).

Hirschman (1970, p.30) defined consumer's voice by any attempt to change rather than escape from an unpleasant situations through different ways of voicing like direct request from the management in charge, through a compelling appeal to a higher authority, or through different kinds of actions and protests. Hirschman found it as a political option, enacted when exit is impossible or cost a lot, or when the customer looks forward to maintain a relationship with the marketer. Hence, voicing complains for redress seeking depends on the degree of deterioration and how value it is to complain besides the probability of the complaint successful (Hirschman, 1970). Voice depends on the ability and willingness to complain (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992).

Voice can be positive or negative related to the consumer's intentions. If it is positive, it serves marketing as an alternative to a huge advertising campaign. On the other hand, it can damage and offset millions of monetary units spent on advertising and other kinds of promotion plans, if it is negative. Many consumers believe that the information they get from blogs on internet, word-of-mouth, and other resources like consumer reports are credible. However, Hirschman (1970) found the negative voice good because it alerts firm or organization to its failings, but time to respond should be given to fulfil its benefits. "A delighted customer can become a self-appointed ambassador or mouthpiece of the organization, spreading positive and favourable WOM communication about the product and its stable to friends, relatives, and other membership groups" while positive WOM communication can spread easily in a collectivistic culture, complaining behaviour and negative testimonial can spread equally fast or even faster" (Ndubisi, 2004, p.80) In short, Consumers' reviews are important for saving time and making better purchasing decisions. It has been proved that online consumer reviews plays very crucial role in decreasing or increasing products sales through significantly its impact on their purchase decisions (Dellarocas et al., 2007; Duan and Whinston, 2008). However, voice is important for

consumers who are seeking reviews and opinions, and is beneficial for companies and organizations which seek feedback on their products and services.

Whether word-of-mouth is positive or negative, it has a cause and effect. There are three motives for word-of-mouth as summarised by Kim et al (2011, p. 400): “self-involvement” by making sure of taking the right decision to reduce risk, “product-involvement” to get information about products like if there is any new, “other-involvement” to get approval of others regarding certain products. Hennig-Thurau and Walsh (2003) summarised the need for seeking electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) by saving the time, risk reduction, dissonance reduction, and social acceptance. Berger (2014) argues that word-of-mouth is goal driven and serves five key functions (impression management, emotion regulation, information acquisition, social bonding, and persuasion).

Accordingly, this research categorized the voice of the grudgeholders into two kinds of manifestations: 1- Negative word-of-mouth which is described by passing the dissatisfying experience to others like in the case of complaints about retailer and/or the product to friends and /or relatives. 2- Complaining directed toward the retailer seeking for refund, product repaired, an exchange, or for an apology. Thus, the research will find out how the grudgeholders’ coping responses (that is, the complaints and the N-WOM) alleviate their negative emotions? Did marketers’ responses (that is, apology, refund, replace product, extra care, etcetera.) get them better and achieved perceived justice? Do they still have an intention to re-purchase or re-patronize again with the recalled offending companies/organizations? What about their intention to keep trying for perceived justice? Next section is to detail the two ways of out wording the negative experience that lead to grudgeholding.

Negative word-of-mouth (N-WOM)— Our society becomes more commercial and industrial developed, and lots of new products are introduced into the market with lots of overwhelming information are poured on consumers from commercial channels. Hence, word-of-mouth activity will increase in importance (Farley et al., 1974, Berger, 2014). Word-of-mouth activity is one of the major sources of information used by consumers in the process that leads them either to accept or reject a product. Consumers get information about products and services (that is, positive or negative word-of-mouth) using both personal sources (for example, friends or experts) and non-personal sources (for example, mass or selective media); while they depend for getting information of services on personal sources more (Zeithaml, 1981). Nowadays, word-of-mouth can be reached anywhere, in anytime, and by anyone because of the Internet technology and increasingly widespread access as the same time of “viral marketing” developing (Krishnamurthy, 2001;

Allen, 2001). Consumers can easily and quickly contact with many other consumers through e-mails and access to chat rooms. Sources are available everywhere because of the social media (that is, Facebook, tweeter, Instagram, LinkedIn, WhatsApp, etcetera.). Sometimes you do not need to try the product or service yourself to get the experience either good or bad, but from Hunt and Hunt (1990) perspective, you need to hear and listen to a negative or positive word from friends or family.

Word-of-mouth expresses the informal communication between consumers about the positive or negative characteristics of a business or a product (Westbrook, 1987; Sweeney et al., 2012) helping them in making decisions of patronizing (Lundeen et al., 1995; Zeithaml et al., 1993). Favourable comments exposure helps to accept a new product, while unfavourable comments deter it (Otto, et al., 2004; Halstead, 2002). WOM is defined as “private complaining” which is represented by telling others such as friends and family about a satisfactory or unsatisfactory product experience (Richins, 1983).

Positive word-of-mouth helps to attract new customers and to preserve a positive fame of the company/organization (Kau and Loh, 2006). Negative word-of-mouth means saying negative things, recommending against specific products or services, and discrediting some brands, companies or organizations. The objective of negative word-of-mouth is generally to express dissatisfaction out of anger and/or punish or hurt the offending corporation by saying negative things, recommending against purchasing, and discrediting the company (Grappi et al., 2013). Besides, the cost of revenue lost when consumers tell the seller is less than when they spread negative word-of-mouth everywhere (Otto et al., 2004). The establishment of an anti- brand on the Internet to spread negative word-of-mouth by grudgeholders has extremely bad effects on the profits and reputation of the offending companies (Aron and Muniz, 2002; Elphinstone, 2006). Negative word-of-mouth may damage the reputation of the company/organization concerned completely (Clark et al., 1992; Richins, 1983; Powers and Lyon, 2002). Negative word-of-mouth affects consumer expectations, company's future sales and profits, and brand or company's reputation; it is difficult to control and to measure (Halstead, 2002)

A message may change the consumer's attitude either in a negative or in a positive way depending on the content of the message and its power of convincing, also his or her previous attitude. Factual and objective information coming from credible and expert sources (for example, consumer reports) may influence the receivers in a strong way (Thota and Wright, 2006). Yet, the consumer's self-confidence in judging the product may change accordingly, especially when accumulating additional information which increase the ability of making decisions (Farley et al., 1974). In contrast, if one piece of information

(for example, a favourable product attribute) is challenged by an opposing piece of information (for example, a negative customer review), each piece of information becomes more questionable in terms of its accuracy. One negative information about a brand, company or an organization is enough to form a negative attitude. The consistency of the perceived information (which means all positive or all negative) could increase the certainty with which a consumer holds an overall attitude (Rucker et al., 2013) comparing to the inconsistency (which indicates to a mix of positive and negative information) which affects the certainty of the attitude (see, Smith et al., 2008).

Word-of-mouth has sequential effects on customers and market. Word-of-mouth is an effective marketing tool that considerably influence customers' purchasing behaviour (Kim et al., 2011; Berger, 2014). The dissatisfied customers may tell others about their consumption experience including negative and harmful stories such as the company's services failure and, the friendliness and aggressiveness of the staff (Halstead, 2002). Yet, firm does not lose the defected customers only but their family, friends, others as well (East et al., 2001). Some consumers may have negative reactions to certain brands without having a personal experience with it, but they have contacts with brand users which helped in forming their brand image (Romani et al., 2012). However, negative word-of-mouth has been identified to forming of secondary grudgeholding when somebody generates the grudgeholding emotion based on negative word-of-mouth (Hunt and Hunt, 1990). The extent of word-of-mouth behaviour can be identified by the number of the people who know about other's consumption experience. Studies showed that customers whose complaints are not resolved satisfactorily are able to tell nine or ten others about their experience (Halstead, 2002). Also, others who perceive some justice may tell four or five people about their bad experience (Halstead, 2002).The more the complaints are handled well and satisfactorily, the less the bad effects will be on both customer and marketer.

Satisfaction generates favourable or positive word-of-mouth, while unfavourable or negative word-of-mouth expresses the dissatisfaction case of customers in an empirical study by Halstead (2002). Positive arousal or dissonance identify whether it is positive or negative word-of-mouth (East et al, 2001). A study by Richins (1983) investigated word-of-mouth as a response to dissatisfaction and the effects of some variables on the tendency to engage in word-of-mouth (for example, severity of the dissatisfaction or problems caused by dissatisfaction, attributions of blame, and perceptions of retailer responsiveness to complaints); and it concluded that the more serious the problem of

dissatisfaction that is caused by others, the more likely the consumers will mouth their bad experiences.

A form of social sharing of emotions with others, negative or positive word-of-mouth has been the object of research in social psychology (Rimé, 2009). It involves communication and social influence as well (Grappi et al., 2013). Word-of-mouth is directly driven by positive and negative emotions (Verhagen et al., 2013). Building on the cognitive appraisal theory which is popularized by Lazarus and colleagues (for example Folkman and Moskowitz, 2004; Lazarus, 1966, 1991; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984) to explain coping responses to stressful situations, the research argues that word-of-mouth is one of the potential coping responses (problem-focused) of the cognitive-emotive process of the negative event. Therefore, it is hypothesized:

H5a: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (N-WOM) is positively related to the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (for example, anger, disgust, disappointed, humiliated, surprised, etcetera.)

H5b: Grudgeholders are inclined to tell others about their negative experience.

Complaining— Consumer complaint behaviour is defined as “a set of multiple (behavioural and non-behavioural) responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with a purchase episode” (Singh, 1988, p. 94). Most researches argue that complaining is a response to dissatisfaction (Richins, 1983; Singh, 1988; Huppertz, 2014; Bolkan, 2015). Hirschman (1970) broadly known of establishing the study of consumer complaining behaviour, who suggested three possible responses to a deterioration of the quality in firms, organization and states: exit, voice and loyalty. Complaints are also defined as “expressions of dissatisfaction, whether subjectively experienced or not, for the purpose of venting emotions or achieving intrapsychic goals, interpersonal goals, or both” (Kowalski, 1996, p.179). Jacoby and Jaccard (1981, p.6) defined complaint behaviour as “the 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”.

Complaining is either public or private according to Fox (2008). Public complaining is when the customer complains directly to the organization using several ways such as complaining in person, over the telephone, in writing, or via e-mail, or indirectly through a third party, while the private one includes negative word-of-mouth and/or exit (Fox, 2008).

Firms need to be informed by complainers about the faulty service in order to adjust and amend the problem then retain the customers (Ndubisi and Ling, 2006). Otherwise, complainers might go outside and inform others so the firm will lack the chance to repair the failure and retain the customers or even fail to get new ones (Bearden and Oliver, 1985). Fox (2008) argued that complaining as either value-adding or value-subtracting, it is value adding as long as it helps the company to improve itself in offering good service and retains the reluctant customers who face bad experience, but it is value-subtracting when reduce the customers base.

Several factors explain and predict the complaining behaviour (for example, the perceived importance of the purchase, the predictable benefits from complaining, the person's personality) besides the triggers of the feeling of dissatisfaction (Landon, 1977). Self-threat motivates complaining behaviour outcomes in terms of internal attributions of product failure (Dunn and Dahl, 2012). Complainers may aim to obtain some monetary values, refund, replacement, or they may look for expelling their displeasure (Halstead, 2002). It has been proved that product price and difficulty of repair affect the likelihood of complaining and spreading negative WOM. Richins (1983) found that consumers expect repairing large appliances, while they expect replacement or refunding the price of less expensive items such as clothing or small appliances. Krapfel (1985) stated that consumers will complain to rebuild their self-image, or to exchange the defective product for another one or returning their money. However, other researchers argued that some consumers complain not according to dissatisfaction, but to get desired interpersonal or intrapersonal goals from a retailer or manufacturer (Kowalski, 1996).

Building on Landon's model of complaining behaviour, Day (1984) developed his model based on the idea that the emotional state created by dissatisfaction motivates the consumer to complain but the subsequent decision of whether doing nothing or taking one or more actions like complaining/non-complaining, depends not so much on the intensity of the emotions but on variety of personal and situational factors (for example, significance of the consumption event, consumer's knowledge and experience, difficulty of seeking redress/complaining and chances for successful complaining); which in turn explains why that some complaining behaviours come with "no action" (Singh, 1988), and others prefer to spread the negative word instead. The consumers who are not sure about the effectiveness of making complaints are more likely to tell others about their dissatisfying experience than those expecting remedy; which means more likely to spread negative word-of-mouth (Richins, 1983). Some results show that consumers who complain and engage in word-of-mouth have greater external attributions. The greater the blame for the

dissatisfaction placed on marketing institutions (that is, on others than the self), the greater the effort a consumer is likely to expend in response to the dissatisfaction and the greater the likelihood of complaining (Richins, 1983; Bodey and Grace, 2006). Hence, research recognizes the difference between complainers and non-complainers based on several factors like self-efficacy, Machiavellianism, perceived control, and risk-taking (Bodey and Grace, 2007).

Complaining about a product or a service is a sign to dissatisfaction, attitude toward complaining is a potential construct related to consumer dissatisfaction (Richins and Verhage, 1985). Much of the research considered that consumers do not complain without cause (Day, 1980). Although there are some who studied the motives and forms of illegitimate complaints (Reynolds and Harris, 2005) which is about customers who might not have dissatisfaction, but they complain in order to get some benefits from retailers or manufacturers (Kowalski, 1996). Managers tended to use complaint rates as indicators to low or high dissatisfaction (Richins, 1983). However, dissatisfaction is not often the cause and the sufficient trigger of complaint (Andreasen and Best, 1977). Andreasen (1988) suggested the “personality model” which contends that in addition to feelings of dissatisfaction, individuals are either driven or restrained to complain under the influence of their personality, cost- benefit, learning and restraints. In short, complainers might be satisfied or not, and dissatisfied consumers might complain or not (Halstead, 2002). Those consumers who do not complain state some special reasons such as: they did not think it was worth the time or effort, no one will concern of their problems trying to resolve it, or they have no idea of where to go and what to do (Hernandez and Fugate, 2004).

Demographic variables are also factors which play role in consumer complaining behaviour prediction during service or product failure. Some research found that consumers who complain are younger (Warland et al., 1975; Day and Landons, 1977; Bearden and Mason, 1984), conversely other research found that older consumers are more likely to discuss their concerns with store, company or organization employees, and in addition, they can be expected to tell more people outside of the firm more than younger consumer (Aron, et al., 2007; Fox, 2008). Some research claimed that most complainers are females (Kau et al., 1995; Heung and Lam, 2003). A study by Fox (2008) showed that gender does not have an effect on both public and private complaining behaviour comparing to another study by Hess et al., (2003).

Other determinants are the costs. products' cost is distinguished as being positively related to complaint behaviour. Consumer intention to complain is higher when dissatisfied with an expensive product (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992; Ekinci et al., 2016). Furthermore,

Blodgett and Granbois (1992) conceptualized product importance as a moderator of dissatisfaction to provide together the motivation to complain. Consumers are more likely to seek redress when the product is important enough to spend the time and emotional energy by taking the complaint to the retailer, while they are less likely motivated to ask for a refund or an exchange when dissatisfied with a relatively unimportant product (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992). Since it is not in the range of the study to identify the importance of the products/services according to each customer and how much it is linked to grudge harbouring; the research counts on the self-reports more in detailing the whole process in addition to whether expensive or cheap products/services play an important role in explaining the grudgeholding behaviour or not.

Thus, there are many empirical examples about the triggers of the complaining behaviour in the literature, demographics, personal values, personality factors, attitudes toward complaining, provider responsiveness, the cost of complaints, the price and importance of the good to the consumer, consumer experience, and attribution of blame (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). The research argues that most of them are built upon a cognitive-emotive system. Hence, the research suggested that the voice (complaining) is a coping response of the consumer grudgeholding resulting from the cognitive-emotive process. Building on the cognitive appraisal theory the research argues that complaining behaviour is one of the potential coping responses (problem-focused) of the cognitive-emotive process of the negative event. (see Appendix E for more information about complaints' drivers)

Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H6a: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (complaining) is triggered by the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (for example, anger, disgust, disappointed, humiliated, surprised, etcetera.)

H6b: Grudgeholders are inclined to complain about their negative experience.

3.3.5 Re-appraisal of the grievance outcome

As Fournier said in her writings: “If brand managers are truly serious about gaining ground with consumers in the ongoing battle for market share, it may be time for them to get in touch with consumers’ feeling” (Gifford, 1997). Research found that recovery efforts that reduce anger decrease retaliatory behaviours (Bonifield and Cole, 2007). Yet, changes in emotions lie behind the effects of restoring efforts on post-purchase behaviours. Some customers tend to vent their negative emotions and instead, replace them by positive emotions such as empathy and sympathy toward forgiveness, that fall under the emotion-focused coping behaviour, whereas others plan to tackle their problems and take actions (Strelan and Covic, 2006).

Building on Lazarus et al. (1991, 1984) works in cognitive-emotive process, Zourrig et al. (2009) suggest that customer forgiveness can be one of the coping responses that is more related to solve the conflict problem, with lots of emphasis on neutralizing the negative emotions (for example, anger and frustration) and instead replacing them with positive emotions (for example, empathy and compassion). Chung and Beverland (2005) conceptualized customer forgiveness as a process following a service failure and involving, appraising the offence from different angles like giving-up the blame and fault-finding, and instead letting-go of negative emotions associated with the service failure and a change of becoming less motivated to harm the service provider. Beverland and colleagues (2009) indicates that the decision to perpetuate grudges or forgive service providers following an offense is moderated by consumers’ self- vs. other-orientation, emotional intelligence, and attachment style. Whether forgiveness is considered as a “coping behaviour” (Tsarenko and Gabbott, 2006), or as a “coping strategy” (Bradfield and Aquino, 1999); there is a need for further research into forgiveness as a cognitive, affective, and motivational response to a transgressing event.

Service recovery is the proper tool in the organization/firm to deal with customers complaints to deter their illegal actions. It includes the actions and activities that run by the companies to rectify, amend, or restore the bad experience encountered by the customer (Bell and Zemke, 1987; Gronroos, 1988; Hess et al, 2003). Aron in his research (2001) talked about the marketer’s response showing its effect on customer’s reappraisal and reassessment the negative emotions and actions. He added when the marketer responds to the customer’s grievance either before complaining or after, “the grudgeholder might revise his grudgeholding behaviour toward the marketer, maintain the current behaviour or set of behaviours, or relinquish the grudge” (p.116).

Refunds, price discounts, offering free products or service, and apologies are different ways to achieve recovery (Kelley et al., 1993). Jones and Sasser (1995) got a result that 35% of the defected customers returned as a result to the marketer's good response that contacted them and listened to their complaints. Wirtz and Mattila (2004) studied the effects of three dimensions of fairness and justice (distributive outcomes, procedural and interactional) on consumers' attributional processes, their post-recovery satisfaction and behavioural responses (re-patronage intention and negative word-of-mouth) in a service failure context. They found that recovery outcomes such as compensation, the speed of the recovery procedures, and interactional treatment such as apology have a combined effect on post-recovery satisfaction.

However not often, the marketer response is good and satisfying; it might be negative with ignoring. Hence, grudgeholders re-appraise the response negatively creating prolonged or secondary grudgeholding with severe negative emotions which may require same or different strategies of coping responses or emotion regulations again. When customers perceive the resolution as worthless to alleviate their negative emotions, they may tend to re-appraise or ruminate the whole aggressive incident again and again. Experimental research shows that rumination about negative personal events or one's own affective state extends and exacerbates psychological and interpersonal distress (McCullough et al. 2007). People prolong their depression or anger when they ruminate about their grim symptoms or anger (Mor and Winquist, 2002; Rusting and Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998). Besides, aggression increases more with rumination about the source of offence than distraction themselves (Bushman, 2002). However, McCullough et al. (2003) found that decreasing one's rumination about a wrongdoing was related to trend forgiveness, or linear decreases in avoidance and revenge, over time.

The service marketing literature acknowledges that there are several ways to get customers better. Several approaches are recognized including compensation, quick response, initiation and apology (Smith and Bolton, 1998, 2002; Smith et al., 1999); concern, voice, neutrality and outcome (Sparks and McColl-Kennedy, 2001); and listening, explanation and apology (Bennett, 1997; Folkes, 1984; Folkes et al., 1987; Menon and Dube, 2000; Swanson and Kelley, 2001). Others like Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy (2002) stated that listening should be the first step because it facilitates explanation and apology to diffuse customer anger advocate the use of listening, explanation and apology. Listening shows concern (Beatty, 1999), and gives customers a chance to voice their concerns.

From a customer's perspective, without listening, a service provider cannot provide a meaningful, convincing explanation, or a genuine apology.

Consumers evaluate the outcomes of their complaints to make sure that they perceived fairness and alleviate their negative emotions. Boote (1998) argued that the examination of perceived justice by dissatisfied consumer can be explained by disconfirmation of expectations. Yet, positive disconfirmation occurs when redress exceeds expectations and the dissatisfied consumer can feel the perceived justice, whereas negative disconfirmation and the following perceived injustice happens as a result of the redress falling below expectations. For many consumers, third party complaining behaviour is activated by emotion triggered by service failure after first-stage complaints go unanswered again (Tronvoll, 2011). If the problem does not get fixed after the consumer has gone to the trouble to complain directly to a seller, inequity increases, and third parties may be brought in (Huppertz, 2014). Online, some insulted consumers release their negative emotion on seller. However, satisfaction of redress means that the consumer perceive justice and no need for making any other actions (for example, third party action, retaliation).

Restoring Justice through an apology, refund, or another faithful reply to the complaint makes the length of avoidance shorter than if there is no complaint to the particular seller by the consumer who has bad experience (Otto et al, 2004). Hence, the positive response to a consumer complaint such as an apology or monetary reimbursement can increase the feeling of being treated fairly and reduce the customer's anger (Goodwin and Ross, 1992; Otto et al, 2004; Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2002) which encourage them to return and do business again with the companies/organizations which satisfactorily resolved their complaints (Rust et al., 1992; Spreng et al., 1995; Fisher et al., 1999). Some customers feel that they deserve an apology to restore the damaged ego-identity or self-esteem that caused by service failure (Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2002). Thus, companies that respond to consumer dissatisfaction and their complaints trying to find satisfying solutions will be able to turn dissatisfied consumers into satisfied ones (Bearden and Oliver, 1985; Page and Halstead, 1992).

Recovery success depends mostly on what customers really want. For relationship-focused customers, "the perceived sincerity of an apology and the admission of wrongdoing" are more important than a "restitution or product replacement" (Ringberg et al., 2007, p. 197). Communal-interested customers' revenge is greatly reduced (over time) by an apology and a simple inexpensive post complaint recovery in spite of their strong feeling of betrayal which makes it hard to decrease their revenge over time (Grégoire et al.,

2009). Contrary to the low relationship-quality customers, who require high level of recovery (such as financial repayments, exchange norms and full compensation) to reduce their desire for revenge over time (Aggarwal 2004; Ringberg et al., 2007)

Brand and store avoidance is a result to a brand and store failure (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). The problem of turning the potential new customers into avoiders is the seller's mistake especially if they estimated consumers' needs wrongly concentrating on how to bring customers to the shops but not on how to solve their problems before becoming avoiders. In return, it will be more difficult or even impossible to restore the situation and widen the niche (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). The damage of turning customers into avoiders is really serious as long as they avoid the brand or store and all communication with it. However, the grudgeholder goes into a cognitive process again to estimate his commercial relationship with the marketer to either maintain his grudgeholding behaviours or quitting them toward re-building relations with the marketer. Whatsoever the marketer responses are, there are some factors can affect the revision's process such as the environment effects.

Based on the equity theory, the consumers not just compare outcomes with inputs to justify their fairness; they also assess procedural fairness (that is, the manner in which the outcomes are delivered), interactional fairness (that is, the manner in which the consumer is treated in terms of respect and dignity), and distributive fairness (that is, when outcomes net of inputs are fairly distributed), (Barrett-Howard, 1986; Goodwin and Ross, 1992; Bies and Moag, 1986; Blodgett et al, 1997, Oliver, 2010). Consumers' re-appraisal of the outcomes of their primary grievance can tell if they achieve perceived justice, equity and fairness; and also it can tell whether this help in regulating their negative emotions positively or the opposite through exacerbating more negative emotions. Hence, grudgeholders revise their behaviours under the influence of many factors. For example, if the business and competitive environment changes, the grudgeholder's behaviour might change. Grudgeholders go through another cognitive-emotive process which predicts their future behaviours and intentions toward the source of aggress. Grudgeholding consumers have the chance to choose between two routes, problem-focused coping or emotion-focused coping again. Therefore, this research suggests the following hypothesis:

H7a: Grudgeholders who perceive the outcome of their coping response (for example, complaining) as useless in venting their negative emotions continue their grudge.

H7b: The continuity of perceived negative emotion triggers the other route of coping (that is, emotion-focused) especially avoidance.

3.4 Conclusion

As discussed earlier, cognition, emotion and coping responses are important when it comes to the research described in this dissertation given their impact on what is currently lacking, that is, an integrating cognitive-emotive theory of grudgeholding. However, another important aspect when it comes to consumer behaviour, including grudgeholding, is the differences, if any, between the behaviours of males and females when it comes to buying behaviours and thus when it comes to grudgeholding as well.

3.5 Gender in the Context of Consumer Grudgeholding

3.5.1 Introduction

Are females or males more vengeful grudgeholders? Who complain more? Are females more inclined to spread the word of mouth more than males? Who are more emotional, males or females? Gender comparisons have had a long and controversial history, in which scholars have long debated gender differences and its origin of whether it is nature or nurture! A review of the literature suggests that vengeance, revenge and forgiveness might vary with gender, age, area of socialization and religious attitudes and education level (Cota-McKinley et al., 2001; Zourrig et al., 2015). According to previous research, males scored higher on general measures of aggression and violence (Baron and Richardson, 1994; Wilson and Daly, 1993,1998; Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974, 1980); and they have more positive attitudes toward vengeance (Stuckless and Goranson,1992; Cota-McKinley, 2001). The stereotyped belief often involves masculine agentic (instrumental) traits and feminine communal (expressive) traits according to both sexual selection theory and social role theory. Women are stereotyped as talkative, whiny, nagging, dependent and emotional, while men are stereotyped as aggressive, arrogant, competitive, independent. However, in a meta-analytic review by Archer (2004), it has been found that direct, especially physical, aggression was more common in males and females at all ages sampled, and it was consistent across cultures. Another study by Zell and colleagues (2015) found that Men and women are not so different after all in consistent with the

gender similarities hypothesis more than the gender differences hypothesis. Yet, grudgeholding males and females may think, feel and behave differently or may not. Therefore, this research will fill the gender gap.

Gender differences in psychology have been studied thoroughly (for example, Niedenthal et al., 2006; Eagly and Wood, 2013). In consumer psychology and marketing, the study of gender differences has been “less programmatic and robust” since gender has been “treated as an interesting moderating variable and a less as a subject of theoretical inquiry” (Meyers-Levy and Loken, 2015, p.130). This research incorporates gender studies from both psychology and marketing to get a broader understanding for the consumers’ emotions and behaviours when they hold a grudge against a specific brand, a company or an organization and whether men and women are different accordingly.

According to the importance of gender differences across disciplines and their implications for companies/organizations, more theoretical and empirical research is needed in consumer psychology. Further, all recent approaches to gender study recognise the role of both “biological (nature) factors (for example, physical differences, evolved traits, hormonal influences) and socio-cultural (nurture) factors (for example, social and cultural role learning, stereotyping, the role of media and marketing messages)” (Levy and Loken, 2015, p. 130). Eagly and Wood emphasized that “nature and nurture work together in producing sex differences and similarities (2013, p.340). This research tries to empirically study how males and females differ in their cognitive processing styles, affective responses, and reactions when they hold grudge against any company or organization. While sex is determined largely by physiology, gender is an ideological and cultural construction. Two terms “sex” versus “gender” has been used in this research interchangeably according to the biological versus social-psychological nature of them following Levy’s and Loken’s and Niedenthal et al recommendations. Besides, they both have been so used in much of the empirical literature. In any literature of gender differences, stereotypical beliefs describe and prescribe females and males gender role. Yet, next section is to look at the gender stereotypes closely.

3.5.2 Stereotypical beliefs about gender

The common stereotype of the differences between boys and girls, men and women in many cultures, Boys like cars and girls like dolls! Blue for boys and pink for girls! Men

should not cry! Women cry more than men! Until the 1960s, men and women characterised as models of stereotypes. Rosener (2009, p.124) summarised some aspects of men and women typical images; females get the nature of being helpful, supportive, gentle, understanding, and willing enough to provide others with the required service from being wives, mothers, teachers and nurses. On the other hand, men have to be competitive, strong, tough, decisive, and in control.

Males and females values stereotypic characteristics were presented to show strong agreement between sexes about differences between men and women, and more frequent high valuation of stereotypically masculine than feminine characteristics in both sexes. Male-valued traits are (for example, aggressive, independent, unemotional or hides emotions, feelings not easily hurt, objective, dominant, active, ambitious, logical, competitive, self-confident, and adventurous). Female-valued traits are (for example, talkative, gentle, tactful, aware of feeling of others, does not use harsh language, quiet, express tender feelings, strong need for security), (Rosenkrantz et al, 1968, Oakley, 2000; Cross and Campbell, 2011). Furthermore, stereotypes continue to exist and change due to cultural influence, social class and education.

Some questionable assumptions represents the negative stereotype image of women as being managers presented in the literature like; women put family demand above work consideration; they take negative feedback personally rather than professionally; they are too emotional and lack aggressiveness which make it hard for them to be top managers (Cebuc and Potecea, 2009). Oakley (2000) categorized the barriers with which women have not risen to the senior management positions into two groups: barriers created by corporate practices and barriers stemmed from the behavioural and cultural causes .

Women are labelled emotional whereas men are labelled rational. Women are believed to express their emotions more easily and intensely without restriction, with an exception for anger which is commonly related to men (Niedenthal et al., 2006). Stereotypes about men and women's emotions describe the general beliefs and prescribe the norms of the appropriate emotional reactions for men and women (Niedenthal et al., 2006). For instance, the expression of anger and aggression by women inclines to be unacceptable as it might harm social relations (Eagly and Steffen, 1986; Niedenthal et al., 2006). Zammuner (2000) found out from inspecting participants' beliefs and appropriate emotional reaction that typical man tends to control his emotions more and to express anger more, while typical woman is perceived to express her emotions more particularly the submissive ones. Many studies have found that stereotypes about gender differences in the

experience and expression of emotions relate to actual gender differences in emotional experience and display (Niedenthal et al., 2006). Nevertheless, stereotypes create expectations about men and women's emotional reactions which may affect one's behaviour (Brody and Hall, 2000).

Sex-role stereotypes may have come from the idea of physiological sex differences involving strength and childbirth (Rosenkrantz, et al., 1968). However, sex differences can be traced back to childhood; if it is not biology the reason behind, then it will be the cultural aspects that emerge very early to form the personality (Oakley, 1972). Social practices designed such kind of difference between males and females. For example, they pushed boys to be self-reliant and being able for male achievement, while girls are pushed to be nurturing, responsible and obedient (Oakley, 1972). Yet, culture adheres the stereotypic characteristics of both males and females. Thus, the stereotypes of both men and women make it hard to eliminate and neglect any gender differences consequently. However, some theorists went beyond stereotypes trying to explore and explain gender differences by different visions (evolutionary theory, social-cultural theory, hormonal and brain processes and selectivity model).

3.5.3 Theories of gender differences

Everybody knows that men and women are different. But some issues are behind this knowledge. What is the extent of the difference? How different are they? What signify males and females behaviour in life? Was it biology or nature behind the gender differences? Sex differences debate makes crucial confusion. Recent research (Wood and Eagly, 2012; Levy and Loken, 2015) explains the origins of gender differences using major theories (for example, social-cultural theory, evolutionary theory, hormonal and brain processes and selectivity hypothesis) considered more complementary than competing. Hence, this research presents brief view of gender theories in order to enhance the findings of gender differences in consumer grudgeholding with some explanations and indications (see Appendix G for more information about gender differences)

However, the research is consistent with the selective hypothesis idea that there is no specific claim about the origins of gender differences building on the recommendations by Meyers-Levy and Loken (2015). The selectivity hypothesis provides a unique perspective of gender differences developed by scholars of consumer research and it makes no

specific claim about the origins of gender differences (Meyers-Levy and Loken, 2015). Yet, the theory's principles are compatible with agentic versus communal sex roles and the socio-cultural perspective of gender differences the hormone exposure and brain operation perspective and to some extent even the evolutionary view concerning how natural selection led to modern humans' faculties, behaviours, and gender differences (Meyers-Levy, 1994; Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1991; Meyers-Levy and Loken, 2015).

It gives an explanation of gender differences in information processing with no hint to the origins of gender differences (Levy and Loken, 2015, p. 131). For example, men are 'selective processors' who often concentrate on highly noticeable and significant cues driven by overall message theme. Whereas, women are 'comprehensive processors' who attempt to integrate all available information in details before judgement (Putrevu, 2001). Besides, females notice and interpret subtle nonverbal cues such as body language and paralanguage more accurately than males (Rosip and Hall, 2004). Based on the "selectivity model", Darley and Smith (1995) found that Males and females use different strategies in processing advertisements. Females are comprehensive information processors who consider both subjective and objective product attributes, and respond to subtle cues. Conversely, males are selective information processors who tend to use heuristics processing and miss subtle cues. Therefore, understanding gender differences requires brief outlines of gender theories (see Appendix F for more details about theories of gender differences).

3.5.4 General gender differences

Companies and organizations supply their products and services differently to males and females. Studying gender differences goes beyond just knowing the differences per se. Researching into gender differences is important for researchers in both psychology and marketing (Meyers-levy and Loken, 2015). For consumer psychologists, it is vital to understand how males and females differ in their "cognitive processing styles, affective responses and reactions to marketing stimuli" (p. 130) for anticipating their behaviour before, within and after consumption process (Martens, 2009).

Gender has been and continues to be one of the most common forms of segmentation used by psychologists and marketers. There are research studies that tend to suggest gender and sex differences in several aspects of different environmental settings such as

financial, healthcare, education, ethics, retirement decision, self-esteem, leadership. Yet, the purpose of this research is to find out how men and women process marketing information, judge products and services, and respond to an offending experience which causes them grudgeholding. Questions like: Do males and females harbour grudge for different reasons? Do males and females feel differently when they hold grudge? Do males and females respond differently when they hold grudge? Whose grudge last more, males or females?

In personality, ethics and morality

Men and women are different according to many of us. Men are stereotyped as aggressive, adventurous, enterprising, outwardly directed disposition, self-assertiveness, while women are labelled as actively sympathetic, inwardly directed disposition, more tearful and easily disgusted than males, making more emotional and less objective judgements (Oakley, 1972, 2000). A study conducted by Feingold (1994) to examine gender differences in personality found that males are more assertive and had slightly higher self-esteem than females. Besides, females were higher than males in extraversion, anxiety, trust, and also, tender-mindedness. Also, women were found to be more generous, more nurturing, and less dominating than men (Rudmin, 1990). Women are more afraid of crime, and are more inclined in prevention efforts than men do (Hurwitz and Smithey, 1998). Most research on risk factors for offending have been based on males because they are more likely to offend than females and male offending is more serious, persistent and violent (Lanctot and LeBlane, 2002). Yet, the stereotypical view about men is that they are strong, tough and aggressive (Oakley, 2000; Cross and Campbell, 2011).

Women and men differ in their moral orientations and precisely concerns related to nurturing (Brunel and Nelson, 2000); “females respond more favourably to the help-others appeal and males to the help-self appeal” (p.16). Besides, there is one meta-analysis found that women tend to forgive more than men (Miller et al., 2008). Weighing costs and gains of lying to self and others are determinants for honesty (Levy and Loken, 2015). Men were found to be more likely than women to lie to gain a financial benefit for the self (Dreber and Johannesson, 2008; Erat and Gneezy, 2012) whereas women were more likely to lie when the lying help others out (Erat and Gneezy, 2012). However, neither research on gender differences could get the conclusion that women are more moral or

ethical than men or the opposite (Jaffee and Hyde, 2000; Walker, 2006; Levy and Loken, 2015).

In aggression

Men engage in impulsive and risky behaviours more frequently than women (Cross et al., 2011). Violence-precipitated visits to hospital accident and emergency services are higher among men (Shepherd, 1990). Men are more physically and verbally aggressive than women across data sources and nations (Archer, 2004, 2009; Bettencourt and Miller, 1996; Eagly and Steffen, 1986; Hyde, 1986; Knight, et al., 1996; Knight, et al., 2002). An evidence by Cross and Campbell (2011) has been studied to show that men and women have different adaptive challenges in direct aggression mediated by greater female fear which lower women's incentives to aggress comparing to men who have lower fear displayed by their greater involvement in risky behaviours. Yet, their beliefs about the consequences of aggression broaden sex differences (see also, Broverman et al., 1972; Buss, 1994; Spence and Hemreich, 2014).

In terms of both kinds of aggression, direct and indirect, it is indicated that individuals with an interdependent self-construal are inclined to draw back from direct aggression toward indirect aggression Cross and Madson (1997), which is the case of women who retreat from acts that cause bodily injury (see Eagly and steffen, 1986; Harris, 1993; Bjorkqvist et al., 1994, 1992; Lagerspetz et al., 1992). Women may use social manipulation strategies like spreading rumours, gossip and excluding others more than men (Bjorkqvist et al., 1992), trying to release their aggressive feeling indirectly with little loses to avoid direct aggression because it endangers their social relationships (Cross and Madson,1997). Women are more likely than men to perceive the consequential harm, guilt and anxiety from committing aggressive behaviours (Eagly and Steffen, 1986). Furthermore, it has been reported that women found aggression a way to express their feeling in the case of losing control, while men's aggression is considered a means to gain control and achieve goals (Cross and Madson, 1997; Campbell et al., 1993, 1997)

Boys' groups are characterized by competitiveness, rough play, and demonstrations of dominance and threats; girls' groups are characterized by intimate friendships, cooperation, and efforts to maintain social relationships (Maccoby, 1990). Furthermore, many concentrated on the physical and harsh nature of the boys. Miller et al (1986) found

that boys were involved in conflict more often than girls. Once within a conflict situation, boys tended to use threat and physical force significantly more often, whereas girls tended to attempt to mitigate the conflict significantly more often, especially when interacting with other girls. Breaking up girls' friendships is normally accompanied by more intense emotional reactions than is the case of boys (Maccoby, 1990).

In cognitive abilities and information processing

Sex hormones can illustrate sex differences in cognitive abilities; which in turn affect activation, inhibition processes and behaviour (Halpern, 2013; Auyeung, 2013; Miller and Halpern, 2014). For example, male and female fetuses differ in testosterone concentrations beginning as early as week 8 of gestation which in turn exerts permanent influences on brain development and behaviour (Hines, 2010). Men and women differ in their perceptions of time (Grewal et al., 2003). Males estimate time more accurately, whereas females underestimate time intervals (Rammsayer and Lustnauer, 1989; Kellaris and Mantel, 1994; Krishnan and Sexena, 1984). These results might be understood through socialization theory, which hypothesizes that men's social and work experiences pushed them to involve in structured scheduling and time pressure, which may socialized them to be more time-conscious than women (Kellaris and Mantel, 1994).

A study by Taylor et al. (2001) revealed significant differences between men and women in their decision making and goal pursuit activities. Females process information in a more comprehensive and interpretive way, relying on a broad variety of information from the outside world trying to find all the similarities and differences in comparison to males who tend not to process all available information but the tangible and objective cues (Mesyers-Levy, 1988). Yet, it explains that males make decisions more quickly than females relying on what information is available (Kim et al., 2007). Women may be more influenced by word-of-mouth than men and especially on the online one (Garbarino and Strahilevitz, 2004)

However, it is not always the reality. Since, there is a dispute in the literature in terms of gender differences in cognitive functions. On the one hand, gender stereotypes hold that men outperform women in mathematics and spatial tests, and that women outperform men on verbal tests. Psychological research from the 1930s through the 1970s indicated that these stereotypes were accurate (Hyde, 2016). For example, women tend to outperform

men in certain verbal abilities, perceptual speed and spatial location memory, whereas men excel at a range of spatial abilities such as mental rotation, spatial perception, and spatial visualization as well as mathematical reasoning (Halpern, 2013; Kimura, 2000).

By time, things changed. A meta-analyses study by Hyde (2016) for gender differences across a wide array of psychological qualities support the gender similarities hypothesis. For example, the gender difference in maths performance may have narrowed from the 1970s to the present. Today, females and males perform equally on mathematics assessments. The gender difference in verbal skills, too, is small and varies depending on the type of verbal skill that is assessed like vocabulary and essay writing. Moreover, a study by Norman (1953) showed that there are significant differences between sexes in verbal and performance IQ. In a contradiction with Norman, a study by Geary et al.(2000) showed that there was no sex difference on the IQ test, but males showed significantly higher mean scores on the arithmetical computations, arithmetical reasoning, and spatial cognition measures (for more gender differences see Appendix G)

3.5.5 Gender differences in consumption behaviours

Many subjects have been studied in relation to consumer behaviour and the effects of gender differences. For instance, sex-typing of products was found to be based upon the consumers' perceptions of masculinity and femininity (Allison et al., 1980). Consumers are more inclined with brands that they identify as being congruent with their gender identity (Neale et al., 2015). Research has found that men and women perceive the shopping and consumption activity in different ways (Otnes and McGrath, 2001), have different attitudes and different decision-making (Alreck and Settle, 2002; Grewal et al., 2003; Teller, Bakewell and Mitchell, 2006; Reutterer, and Schnedlitz, 2008) and carry out the shopping behaviour differently (Sherman et al., 1997; Wood, 1998 Raajpoot et al., 2008).

In shopping behaviour

Men are recognized by three stereotypes of shopping behaviours summarized by Otnes and McGrath (2001, p.116): 1) "Grab and Go;" 2) "Whine and/or Wait"; and 3) "Fear of the Feminine". Both men and women agreed on the belief that men are basically faster in shopping than women since they buy one or two specific items and leave quickly. In addition, this stereotype denotes that males do not make shopping a social and/or recreational experience like females. A second stereotype that pervades perceptions of

male shopping behaviour between both sexes is that if men are forced to accompany women in their shopping trip, they will be bored and uncomfortable. Interestingly, it is concluded that the propensity to whine or wait seems to be connected to age; younger men whine, but older men now wait for their female companions to finish shopping. It is also implied that older men may find shopping to be physically wearing. However, these perceptions may themselves be coloured by cultural assumptions about gender.

The visible nature of shopping and the importance of the social interaction that takes place during shopping suggest that social referents are likely to influence patronage behaviour (Evans et al., 1996). The impact of culture and social nature can be noticed clearly on both men' and women' shopping behaviours. For instance, men does not enjoy shopping, would prefer a better product selection and find it quite boring, whereas women find shopping pleasurable and one of the relaxing activities that allows them to be with friends to the degree of considering shopping as social activity (Alreck and Settle, 2002; Mitchell and Walsh, 2004; Kruger and Byker, 2009). However, the better shopping experience and increased time spent in shopping for women might cause them higher confusion propensity and longer time in making decisions comparing to men whose shopping experience is less (Mitchell and Walsh, 2004).

Men shop to win. Bakewell and Mitchell (2006) found that some new male traits like store-loyalty, low-price seeking, and time spent. Some males tend to reduce the complexity of the shopping task and the time spent doing by using a "simplifying decision-making style". For example, they follow the way of "shopping to win", "pursuing low prices", aiming to "defeat retailers" (p. 1299). Hence, men are achievement oriented in the marketplace, yet they like to get bargains and to be the winners. Men are less inclined to follow and pay for the latest fashion with full price, but instead they go shopping at sale time to reduce their shopping trips which in turn makes their trait of buying less than perfect (Mitchell and Walsh, 2004). Accordingly, men enjoy, and perhaps are even enthusiastic about, bargaining in the marketplace so they get bored, frustrated and irritated when they can't achieve their goals in terms of shopping (Otnes and McGrath, 2001).

Women shop to love. Since women enjoy shopping (Alreck and Settle, 2002), they will be more stimulated by the shopping mall. Women are more likely to buy than men when they visit a shop (Lucas, 1998), this finding would suggest that women enjoy the shopping environment to the degree of integrating between emotional response and overall evaluation and re-patronage decision stronger (Raajpoot, et al., 2008). Conventional wisdom and research both support the belief that women tend to be more social during

their shopping behaviour than men (Otnes and McGrath, 2001). Underhill (1999) found that the social tendency makes women enjoy shopping together and spend almost twice as long in a shop than men shopping with women or other men. Dholakia et al. (1995) found that the more men report being responsible for a particular type of shopping, the more they enjoy the activity. Yet in recent interviews with both men and women, Campbell (1997) found that: 1) women are more positive about shopping than men; 2) many men still view shopping as “effeminate”; and 3) men who shop see themselves as fulfilling an instrumental need, rather than engaging in “shopping for shopping’s sake” (pp. 169–172).

Most people consider money as means of respect and power but men are reported to be more independent, confident, competitive, more willing to take risk (Byrnes et al., 1999; Harris et al., 2006) especially with money regardless of their intention of shopping to win. Weber et al. (2002) suggested that gender differences in risk taking are related with differences in the perception of the activities’ benefits and risk, rather than with differences in attitude towards perceived risk. Furthermore, males and females differ in their on-line shopping preferences; males, for example, consider the exact and correct description of products and reasonable pricing are more important than do females who find the return labels more important (Ulbrich et al., 2011). Tifferent and Herstein (2012) proposed that, “Women need the right atmosphere, space, and time to find just the right item” whereas “men want to get the job done” (p.179). Research has consistently shown that unlike men, women have a more positive attitude toward shopping (for example, Klein, 1998; Alreck and Settle, 2002; Grewal et al., 2003). Similarly, some research has found that women are more likely to buy in a shop than are men (Lucas, 1998), and women are more likely to buy gifts than are men (Yin, 2003). They put more time and effort into shopping for Christmas presents than men (Fischer and Arnold, 1990). In general, both male and female customers are attracted by the product offerings in a mall.

Shopping mall environments that provoke feelings of pleasure are likely to be ones where people want to spend time and money (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982; Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). Furthermore, there is significant relationship between employee behaviour and both emotional response and overall evaluation (Raajpoot et al., 2008). Research by Sharma et al. (2012) has studied gender as moderator in the service evaluation process and found that men are more likely to associate their sacrifice in terms of time, money, and effort with their perceived value to a greater extent than women. They are more calculative and value conscious, possibly because of their desire to want to be in control of the shopping situation as suggested by the social role theory. Men seek more assistance from

salespeople (Cleveland et al., 2003), and therefore should be more significantly affected by employee behaviour than women. In addition, research has suggested that men are more negatively affected by waiting time than women (Grewal et al., 2003).

Thus, men and women appraise their shopping experiences differently. Women may be more conscious of the design cues, and the design cues may have a higher impact on their emotional reaction and evaluation of the mall. On the other hand, men prefer to be the winners by getting bargains and low cost products and services. For examples, men consider employee behaviour to be more important in evaluating their experiences, so they are interested in service efficiency and accuracy to a greater extent compared to women (Iacobucci and Ostrom, 1993). Women regard their shopping experience to be more exciting when they perceive better product assortment, and access makes the shopping trip more exciting for (Raajpoot et al., 2008).

Men's and women's shopping behaviours are not as different as the literature would imply, and that men's shopping behaviours does not seem to conform to articulated beliefs about these behaviours (Otnes and McGrath, 2001). Research by Snipes et al (2006) has found that males and females are different in their perception of the service fairness, in which that males incline to rate the fairness of service higher than females. Yet, females and males shopping experiences vary according to their cognitive-emotive appraisal. Hence, grudgeholding experience is explained by how both males and females appraised the event. For example, males appraise the shopping as not interesting and frustrating if they cannot win over the seller or if they wait for long time. On the other hand, females perceive the experience as negative when they cannot enjoy the shopping environment. Again, it is the differences in appraising the whole negative experience that ignites the grudgeholding flashpoint as intolerable and something has to be done in accordance (such as, fairness, blame attribution, controllability, stability, cost, etcetera.). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H8a: Males and females are different in their appraisal considerations of the negative shopping experiences.

H8b: Costs affect males' orientation of holding grudge more than females.

In Voicing

The stereotypical belief is that women talk, complain, and spread both negative and positive word-of-mouth more than men. Women are believed to be passive and gossipy (Zamuner, 1987). Women are believed to talk more, communicate more with friends, to discuss personal experiences and to listen better than men (Broverman et al., 1972; Brannon, 1999; Tannen, 2001). Women are more likely to give and get an advice from friends than men (Garbarino and Strahilevitz, 2004). On contrary, men are believed to be louder but less talkative than women (Briton and Hall, 1995).

For many, gender moderates the relationship between self-presentation and brand-related word-of-mouth. A study found that by Wilson (2004) found that women spread word-of-mouth more than men. On the contrary, another study found that men are more likely than women to post brand-related content and circulate commercial information on Facebook when they actively engage in self-presentation (Choi and Kim, 2014). Whereas no gender biases were reported by Strahel and Day (1985); no statistically significant relationship between gender and various responses to dissatisfaction like in the case of contacting the shop or manufacturer to complain. They also found that women show higher purchase intentions when they read positive reviews and the opposite when they read negative reviews; which means that negative reviews have stronger effects on purchase intentions than the positive reviews.

The stereotypical beliefs come in conjunction with many studies in marketing to ascertain the gossipy and talkative reality of women. Men are less likely than women to complain when dissatisfied with product/service (Solnick and Hemenway, 1992) and less likely to spread negative word-of-mouth (Smith and Martin, 1997). In contrast, women considerably reported more complaints of the healthcare provider's behaviour showing less satisfaction than men (Murad et al., 2009; Pukk et al., 2003; Mitchell and Schlesinger, 2005). Also, it has been reported that women are more likely to complain and less likely to spread positive WOM comparing to men (Rojas, 2013). And sometimes the opposite has been found that females are more likely to offer recommendation than males and more prone to take others' opinions about products when making purchase decisions (Bae and Lee, 2011).

Some relate the gender differences to biological triggers. Talking is crucial for processing information in women's brains because their speech and language spots are located on both sides of the brain comparing to men's brains which do not have these specific skills

(Gorman et al., 1992; Kim et al., 2007). Others argued these differences in terms of talking and complaining emphasizing on “communal” and “agentic” descriptors of women and men respectively (Bakan, 1966). Based on the theory of independent (that is, others are considered separate from the self) versus interdependent (that is, others are considered part of the self), Cross and Madson (1997) assumed women to be an interdependent self-construal and men an independent self-construal. Based on that, they explained many gender differences in terms of cognition, emotion and social behaviour. For example, women think more about others and maintain their relationships more than men. They develop skills and emotions to help them in keeping close relationships with others. Individuals with an interdependent self-construal like women are more likely to experience and share both positive and negative emotions because of their sensitivity to the life events of others. According to their supposition, women are more likely to raise their concerns and complaints and to spread the word to others as long as they rated others as part of the self.

In compatible with the selectivity hypothesis provides a distinctive perspective which makes no specific claim about the origins of gender differences (Meyers-Levy and Loken, 2015). Yet rather, it is compatible with agentic versus communal sex roles and the socio-cultural perspective of gender differences the hormone exposure and brain operation perspective and to some extent even the evolutionary view concerning how natural selection led to modern humans’ faculties, behaviours, and gender differences (Meyers-Levy, 1994; Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1991; Meyers-Levy and Loken, 2015).

Therefore, it is hypothesized in terms of complaining inside or outside the offending company/organization that:

H9a: There are gender differences when complaining to the company/organization about bad experience.

H9b: There are gender differences when telling others about bad experience N-WOM.

In relationships (loyalty, trust and exit)

The stereotypical belief is that women are more trustworthy and loyal than men. Women are more likely to be trusting (Levy and Loken, 2015; Feingold, 1994) and more trustworthy due to the social relations than men (Levy and Loken, 2015; Buchan et al.,

2008). Female loan officers' have better capacity to build trust relationships with borrowers (Beck et al., 2013). Also, female consumers show stronger patronage behaviour and stronger interpersonal and brand connection and commitment (Fournier, 1998; Tifferet and Herstein, 2012). Since women considerably express their emotions, they have greater likelihood of loyalty with their trustworthy banks (Ndubisi, 2006). Women use supermarket loyalty cards more than men (Bellizzi and Bristol, 2004).

On the other hand, men trust more than women because they view their interaction more strategically than women who feel more obligated both to trust and reciprocate (Buchan et al., 2008). Moreover, males are more likely to trust and fulfil their satisfaction through online shopping more than females (Rodgers and Harris, 2003; Slyke et al., 2002). Hence, they are more likely to exit if they are not satisfied because the relationship between satisfaction and repurchase behaviour is stronger for them comparing with women who are more likely to stay loyal regardless of their dissatisfaction (Mittal and Kamakura, 2001; Homburg and Giering, 2001).

Women have greater tendency to trust, to be trustworthy, and to be loyal but in the case of aggressive and offending experience, they are the first who exit. In a study conducted by Lindenmeier et al (2012) to examine the effects of unethical corporate behaviour on consumer emotions, the results indicate that consumer outrage is a major trigger of boycotting behaviour. Also, results indicate that women's consumer outrage is higher than that of men's which consequently increase women intensions for corporation boycotting. In transgression, women react more negatively than men (Levy and Loken, 2015).

Some studies presented the difference between males and females in terms of relationship by using some conceptualization like independent versus interdependent or agentic versus communal and information processing. Rubin (1985) through his study of men's and women's friendship in North America spotted some differences; women tend to form closer and more intimate friendships which are based on sharing feeling and experiences, while men considered even talking about friendship a matter of personal issue and it makes them feel vulnerable. Yet, to concentrate on the importance of social relationships to women, Kendler et al., (2005) in a study of sex differences in the relationship between social support and risk for major depression found that emotionally supportive social relationships are significantly more protective against major depression for women than for men. Women indicated that they would turn to their partner and friends to a greater extent than men would to cope with stressful situations and would seek emotional support to a greater degree than did men (Day and Livingstone, 2003).

Women are more perusable and more conforming than men in group pressure situations that involve surveillance by the influencing agent (Becker, 1986; Eagly and Carli, 1981). Individuals are more easily influenced by others in the case of showing some agreement (Carli, 1989). However, in exploring gender differences in social influence, researchers have often described women as more easily influenced and less influential than men (Eagly, 1987, Eagly and Carli, 1981). Results indicated gender differences are consistent with gender stereotypes. Women showed more agreement and social behaviour in same-sex dyads, whereas pairs of men showed disagreement, dominance and task behaviour. However, gender differences in communal behaviour were opposite to gender stereotypes in interactions with romantic partners; women were less agreeable and more confrontational than men with their romantic partners (Suh et al., 2004). Moreover, in studying close relationships like marriage, Finkel et al (2002) concluded that there are some contradiction in the results of two studies about betrayal in close relationship; in one, women showed somewhat greater forgiveness and greater preferences to react to betrayal with voice; While in the second, controverted results appeared when men exhibited more forgiving feelings, thoughts, and behavioural tendencies than did women. The contrary in the results might be due to the severity of betrayal rather than to the socially desirable responding, the properties of relationships, or the time since betrayal.

Men are described by Bakan (1966) as agentic (that is, self-assertion and a desire for separateness from others), and women are described as communal (that is, relatedness and a desire for union with others). Several studies show that men are more task or goal-directed (agentic) comparing to women who are more relationship oriented (communal), (Babin and Boles, 1998; Hupfer, 2002; Iacobucci and Ostrom, 1993; Meyers-Levy, 1988; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001). Compatible with social role theory (Eagly, 1987) which expects men to be agentic and women to be communal, Cross and Madson (1997) argue the case of gender differences based on the idea of interdependence versus independence. They found that women represent themselves as interdependent who care and maintain their relationships. In contrary to men who view themselves as more independent and more individualistic with secondary concerns for other people. These differences in self-construal explains why men and women are different in socialization and suggests that women are more likely to be loyal than men (Cross and Madson, 1997 Melnyk, 2009). Many studies approved the idea of gender difference in old fashioned socialization that men are agentic and women are communal.

Besides, recent studies found the same regarding the agentic men and the communal woman in terms of socialization via technology. A study by Kimbrough et al., (2013) showed that women, compared to men, are generally more regular mediated communication users of text messaging, social media, and online video calls. The visible nature of shopping and the importance of the social interaction that takes place during shopping suggest that social referents are likely to influence patronage behaviour (Evans et al., 1996). Women are more likely than men to use Internet for communication and maintaining relationships (Brannon, 1999; Tannen, 1990). Compared to men, women prefer and more frequently use text messaging, social media, and online video calls (Kimbrough et al., 2013). Females are active in online discussions more than males (Tsai et al., 2015). The gender differences in Internet activity might be due to the related differences between males and females in processing information. In terms of marketing relationships, females show higher level of perceived risk and privacy concerns of online shopping than males (Miyazaki and Fernandez, 2001; Garbarino and Strahilevitz 2004). Hence, females are more inclined to accept recommendation from friends as it reduces the perceived risk of online shopping (Garbarino and Strahilevitz, 2004; Kempf and Palan, 2006).

The contradiction is clear in terms of identifying who is loyal in the relationships (for example, customer-marketer relationship) more, females or males. For instance, men are more loyal than women in product retail settings (Lin and Keleher, 2007; Lin, 2008). Besides their intentions to re-patronage are more than women's intentions (Rojas, 2013). Women are more loyal than men at greater level of trust in the bank (that is, service sector) (Ndubisi, 2006), but they have higher expectations about service recovery comparing to men (Rojas, 2013). A study by Melnyk (2009) found that female consumers are more likely to be loyal to individuals (such as service providers), whereas male consumers are more likely to be loyal to groups (such as companies). Studies have explored the impact of demographic variables on satisfaction and loyalty. Homburg and Giering (2001) studied gender, age and income as moderators in the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty. Regarding gender, they found that women decide to repurchase from the same dealer relying more on the whole personal interaction process than on product satisfaction comparing to men.

However, consistently with the selectivity hypothesis that gives no hint to the origin of gender differences but rather the information processing strategies used by both males

and females. Therefore, it is hypothesized in terms of exiting or staying in a relationship with the offending company/organization that:

H10a: There are gender differences in terms of maintaining or exiting the relationship when facing bad experience.

In emotions: anxiety, fear, anger and sadness

It is clear that culture plays a key role in shaping both female and male personality, and the evidence is in cross-cultural societies. "Emotions are experienced and expressed in specific social and cultural contexts, which provide norms that prescribe the emotions that are appropriate to a given situation" (Niedenthal et al., 2006, p.273). Zajonc (1980) stated that one might be able to control the expression of emotion but not the experience. The stereotype is that women are more emotional and emotionally expressive than men (Niedenthal et al., 2006). Besides, women are encouraged to be more emotionally expressive especially the powerless emotions than men who are directed to suppress most emotions as a part of their masculine behaviour (Briton and Hall, 1995; Niedenthal et al., 2006; Brody and Hall, 2008). Some negative stereotypes about women has been presented in Cebuc and Potecea study (2009), such as women have greater fear of negative evaluation in social setting; they take negative feedback personally rather than professionally (p.90).

Additionally, in compatible with gender stereotypes some emotions are prescribed as more appropriate for women especially the ones of "social engaging", positive emotions and the powerless emotions (that is, sadness, fear, shame, and guilt) as a result to the traditional norm of nurturing role in women. Alternatively, powerful emotions (that is, anger, contempt, pride) are prescribed as more appropriate for men due to the masculine agentic role (Niedenthal et al., 2006). Hence, the emotional reactions that are appropriate for men and women often called "perspective norms" are forming stereotypes about men and women's emotion besides what people generally think about sex differences (Niedenthal et al., 2006, p. 277). For example, women have been found to face more negative social consequences (for example, relationship and personal cost) for expressions of anger and aggression (Davis et al., 1992). Research shows how women have greater emotional sensitivity and responsiveness (Grossman and Wood, 1993), while men tend to be emotional inexpressive (Archer, 1996). Also, women are believed to be more sensitive to

others, to pay more attention to others' body language which enables them to better decoding others' emotion from nonverbal signals (Briton and Hall, 1995). In the social role theory, it was predicted that women are communal and men are agentic and again this might be according to the inexpressiveness nature of men (Archer, 1996).

Men and women are considered to differ in their emotional display than in their feeling, hence women express their emotions more than men (Fabes and Martin, 1991; Grossman and Wood, 1993; Hohnson and Shulman, 1988). Woman can switch her emotion on while her brain is busy with other functions because her emotion is located in both hemispheres (Kim et al., 2007). Research by Kring et al (1998, 698-699) found that women aren't more emotional than men, they are just more expressive of their emotions. "It is incorrect to make a blanket statement that women are more emotional than men," Kring says. "It is correct to say that women show their emotions more than men." Also, Fabes and Martin (1991) found out that women were assessed as expressing, but not as experiencing emotions more frequently than men and sex differences exist in emotional expression within basic emotions (for example, anger, fear, sadness, surprise). They continued that women were believed to express more sadness, fear and love, while men were believed to express more anger. Women are believed that they express emotions that communicate submissiveness "powerless emotions" such as sadness, fear, worry and shame. Men, on the contrary, are believed to be less emotionally expressive in general, but more expressive of emotions that communicate dominance "powerful emotions" such as anger, disgust and pride (Brody and Hall, 1993, 2000; Fischer, 1993b; Grossman and Wood, 1993; Hess, et al., 2000 Fischer, et al., 2004).

Literature in psychology shows many studies of gender difference in terms of emotions' experience and expression. Women report greater fear and are more likely to develop anxiety disorders than men (McLean and Anderson, 2009; Robichaud et al, 2003; Zlomke and Hahn, 2010). Women also reported greater confidence in expressing fear and sadness but not anger since sharing one's feelings especially the negative emotions plays an effective role in maintaining warmth in relationships except for anger which can destroy relationships (Cross and Madson, 1997). Women avoid situations where their negative emotions might be displayed and harm their relationships as they are reported to be more sensitive and empathetic toward relationship partners (Cron et al., 2009). Females show higher scores on empathetic concern and on relational emotion and motivation than males (Hall et al., 2000). Generally, in negative emotion-stimulating events, women are expected to be more likely to react with sadness, cry and to withdraw comparing to men who are

expected to react with more happiness as well as to laugh, smile and relax in negative situations. Furthermore, women report more sadness when describing personal events, while men tend to report more happiness when describing negative personal events (Hess et al., 2000).

However, gender differences in emotionality can be explained by several perspectives such as, the perspective gender stereotypes, which identifies whether it is acceptable or not to express some kind of emotions. Hence, women have greater emotional intensity than men according to the gender role theory. This conclusion is attributed to the men's and women's social roles that form the normative expectations for sex differences. A study by Grossman and Wood (1993) has confirmed that sex differences in emotional intensity derive from sex-differentiated normative pressures that identify that women are more emotionally responsive than men. Similarly, other findings confirmed the perspective of gender-role (Eagly, 2013; Eagly and Wood, 1991), they emphasized that sex differences in social behaviour stem from normative beliefs about what is appropriate for both sexes besides the skills and attitudes resultant from their prior roles.

Also, the self-structure perspective, "independent vs interdependent" which states that men are independent self-construal and women are interdependent self-construal takes part in explaining gender differences according to (Cross and Madson, 1997). Males are more self-oriented, while females are more other-oriented (Levy and Loken, 2015). Furthermore, Individuals with an interdependent self-construal, who consider the others as part of the self, are more likely to express their emotions than individuals with an independent self-construal, who consider themselves separated from others. Yet, this is not the case with anger expressions which might harm the intimacy of the relationships. "Multiple social influences promote independent ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving for men and relational ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving for women" (p.7). For example, men may hesitate to express some emotions, not because cultural stereotypes, but mainly because sharing their feelings may threaten their independent self-construal.

Research has also focused on how people control their emotions; "emotion regulation strategies" and gender differences respectively. Research by Zlomke and Hahn (2010) has shown support for the effect of the cognitive emotion regulation strategies in the developing, exacerbating and/or maintaining worry and anxiety for both men and women. Males and females significantly differed in the endorsement of use of rumination, putting problems into perspective and blaming others as cognitive emotion regulation strategies (Zlomke and Hahn, 2010, p.408). In the stressful situations, Zlomke and Hahn found that

women are less likely to blame others than men but more likely to engage in rumination with more focusing on the emotional aspects of stressful experience and to discuss them with others. “The greater tendency of women to suppress their thoughts may be similar to the elevated report of rumination among depressed women”, which in turn might be the reason for the women’ high ability to worry (Robichaud et al, 2003, p.511).

Women are more likely to suffer from anxiety than men (Feingold, 1994) and depression (Wade et al., 2002). Men were found to be more assertive and less anxious than women (Feingold, 1994; Eagly and Steffen, 1986). Women tend to experience both positive and negative affect more intensely. In contradiction with Zlomke and Hahn (2010), women blame a company more than men for a harm product problem which might be due to their perception of events as more stressful than men (Laufer and Gillespie, 2004; Day and Livingstone, 2003). Hence, they may use impulse and hedonic buying as a way of getting rid of negative emotions (For example, anxiety, depression) and stabilize their mental condition (Tifferet and Herstein, 2012)

Hence, it is proposed that gender does have an impact on the grudgeholders’ emotions the current and the future:

H11a: There are gender differences in terms of their current grudgeholding emotions.

H11b: There are gender differences in terms of holding on to grudge.

In summary, this chapter is to address updating Aron’s (2001) model of consumer grudgeholding based on the cognitive appraisal theory. Gender is studied to detail any differences between males and females consumers in terms of holding grudge against any company or organization. The research propositions are discussed in the light of the model’s components. See Table 3.1 for a summary of the hypotheses.

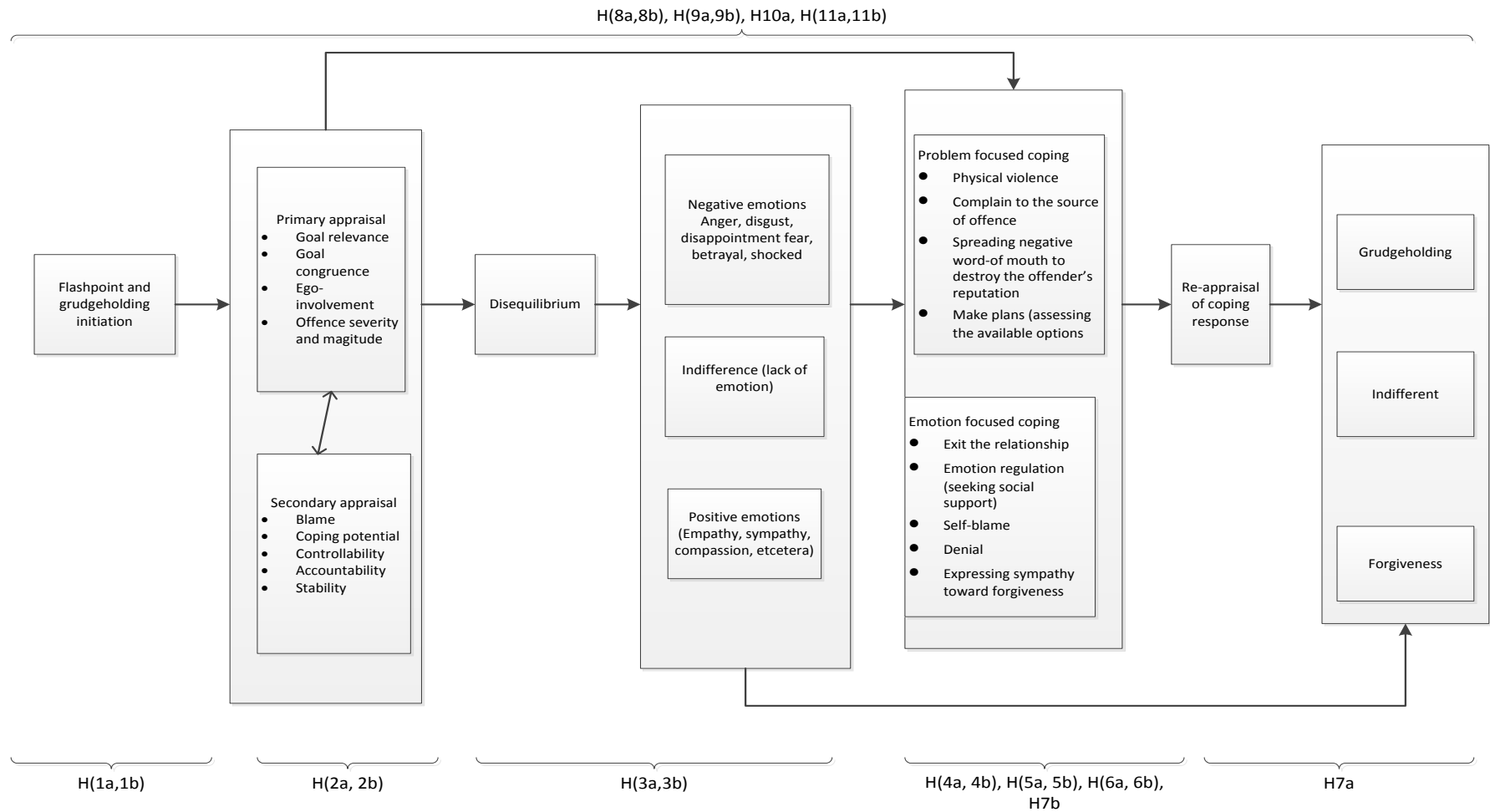


Figure 3.3: A cognitive-emotive process model of consumer grudgeholding

Table 3.2: Consumer grudgeholding hypotheses

Count	Hypotheses
H1a	The “flashpoint” of the grudge develops into a combination of intense negative emotions (for example, anger, disgust, shame, surprised).
H1b	The “flashpoint” of the grudge is the consequence of appraising the event rather than the event itself.
H2a	Grudgeholding is the consequence of the negative appraisal of others fault.
H2b	Grudgeholding goes through several stages of appraisal.
H3a	grudgeholders experience various negative emotions (anger, disgust, betrayal, disappointed, etcetera) because they appraise the negative events differently.
H3b	Anger is the most prominent emotion of grudgeholders, which trigger their confronting response.
H4a	<i>H4a: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (such as anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal etcetera) and (grudgeholding lasting)</i>
H4b	Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraisal process of the grievance outcome.
H5a	Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (N-WOM) is positively related to the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (for example, anger, disgust, disappointed, humiliated, surprised, etcetera.)
H5b	Grudgeholders are inclined to tell others about their negative experience.
H6a	Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (complaining) is triggered by the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (for example, anger, disgust, disappointed, humiliated, surprised, etcetera.)
H6b	Grudgeholders are inclined to complain about their negative experience.
H7a	Grudgeholders who perceive the outcome of their coping response (for example, complaining) as useless in venting their negative emotions continue their grudge.
H7b	The continuity of perceived negative emotion triggers the other route of coping (that is, emotion-focused) especially avoidance.
H8a	Males and females are different in their appraisal considerations of the negative shopping experiences.
H8b	Costs affect males’ orientation of holding grudge more than females.
H9a	There are gender differences when complaining to the company/organization about bad experience regardless of the experienced emotion.
H9b	There are gender differences when telling others about bad experience N-WOM.
H10a	There are gender differences in terms of maintaining or exiting the relationship when facing bad experience.
H11a	There are gender differences in terms of their current grudgeholding emotions.
H11b	There are gender differences in terms of holding on to grudge

Chapter 4 : Research Design and Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the research paradigm that defines the theory of knowledge set in the theoretical perspective; the philosophical postulation that lies behind the research methodology; the research strategy that defines the nature of relationship between the research and theory; and the methods used for data collection and analysis. The detailed discussion of the planned procedures for conducting the study and gaining valid findings is provided in the following sections of this chapter. Section 4.1 argues the research philosophy and describes where the research stands in the perception of reality and the development of knowledge. Section 4.2 presents the research paradigm. Section 4.3 outlines the research design and describes the differences between qualitative and quantitative research, and choose quantitative. The description of the quantitative study is provided at section 4.4 Throughout this section, a detailed discussion of the survey design, sampling techniques, pilot testing and methods of data analysis is provided. Section 4.5 illustrates the ethical considerations, and the final section provides the conclusions.

4.2 The Research Philosophy

Research is the process of obtaining knowledge to find answers to certain problems or issues in order to provide better understanding of the social world (Matthews and Ross, 2010). The philosophy relates to the researcher's perspective of reality, how it is described, explained and its relationship to the developed knowledge (Saunders et al., 2009). The philosophical belief refer to the set of basic assumptions that represent the worldview and define the relationship between the environment and the researcher. The research paradigm shows the researcher in a particular discipline the form and nature of reality, acceptable knowledge and methods of conducting a research (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The research paradigm can be characterized into three main groups: ontology, epistemology and methodology (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders et al., 2012). Ontology and epistemology impact the structure and processes of social research and provide clarifications in the area of philosophy of science (Machamer, 2002; Nelson, 2010).(For more knowledge see Appendix J about research paradigm)

4.2.1 Ontology

Ontology originates as a term from theology and is concerned with the nature or essence of things. Ontology concerns the nature of reality and has two aspects determined by the role of social actors: objectivism and subjectivism. Objectivism is the ontological position depicting the independency of the social actors from the social phenomenon; while subjectivism (constructionism) is the ontological position that refers to the formation of social phenomenon by the interactions between social actors. Ontological assumptions emphasize on issues around being human within the world and whether a person sees social reality or aspects of the social world as external, independent, given and objectively real or instead as socially constructed, subjectively experienced (Wellington et. al, 2005). Ontology informs methodologies as to the nature of reality or better as to “what” social research is supposed to study (Sarantakos, 2005). The assumptions of an ontological nature concern the core of the phenomena under investigation to find out whether the nature of reality is an objective and external to the person or it is subjective and from the person’s cognition (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

Ontology is a branch of metaphysics which deals with the nature of existence (Jankowicz, 2004, p. 106). In the ontological assumptions, data is pertaining to existing events and can be found by anyone following the same procedures. In an ontological sense, you perceive the social world has implications for the sorts of research questions you are likely to be interested in and the methodologies and methods you are likely to consider ‘valid’ means of collecting ‘valid’ data that can be used to make a ‘valid’ interpretation, thus creating ‘valid’ knowledge (Wellington et. al, 2005).

4.2.2 Epistemology

The epistemology defines the nature of the relationship between the researcher and the studied phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2012). Epistemology is the theory of knowledge and deals with what establishes knowledge, from where knowledge comes and whose knowledge it is, and with what it is possible to know and understand and represent (Wellington et. al, 2005). 'Epistemology', according to the Dictionary of Statistics and Methodology is the “study of knowledge” and to Oxford Dictionary is: “The theory of knowledge, especially with regard to its methods, validity, and scope, and the distinction between justified belief and opinion”. Thus epistemology is concerned with what

knowledge is and how it can be acquired, and the extent to which knowledge relevant to any given subject or entity can be acquired. Much of the debate in this field has focused on the philosophical analysis of the nature of knowledge and how it relates to connected notions such as truth, belief, and justification. Epistemological issue concerns the question of what is considered as suitable knowledge in a discipline (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Epistemology informs methodologies about the nature of knowledge, or about what counts as a fact and where knowledge is to be sought (Sarantakos, 2005).

The epistemological assumptions are concerned with two important issues which are whether knowledge is acquired or something which has been experienced personally (Burrell and Morgan, 1979); and a ground of knowledge according to Burrell and Morgan is how one might understand the world and share the knowledge acquired to others. Epistemology is seen as the general framework or theory for specifying the generation of knowledge: how does the knower come to understand and interpret the nature of reality? Its domain concerned macro-level philosophical questions: What is knowledge? Who can know and by what means? How do we recognize, validate, and evaluate knowledge claims? (Fonow and Cook, 2005, p. 2212).

4.2.3 Methodology

The methodology identifies the methods of collecting and analysing data in order to conduct a research (Creswell, 2009). Research methodology refers to a procedural framework within which the research is directed. It describes an approach to a problem that can be implemented either in a research programme or process. Methodology is the study of methods which allow the researchers to use all sorts of philosophical questions to validate their claims to knowledge (Fisher and Buglear, 2010). In short, it is the theory of how to undertake the research (Saunders et al., 2012). Research methodology is the direct and control obtaining of data then extract meaning from them (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005).

Kaplan, the philosopher of science, (1964, p. 23) said: "The aim of methodology is to describe and analyse research methods, throwing light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their presuppositions and consequences, relating their potentialities to the twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge". Thus, research methodology refers to the theory of gaining knowledge and the activity of assessing and choosing the best methods. Methods

are the specific techniques and procedures used for getting and analysing data which will provide the evidence base for the creation of the knowledge (Wellington et al., 2005).

4.3 Paradigm

A paradigm is defined as “a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research has to be done and how results have to be interpreted (Bryman 1988, p. 4). The term “paradigm” has been introduced by Kuhn (1970, p.10) and relates to the evolution of “normal science” and means a basic direction to theory and research. “Men whose research is based on shared paradigms are committed to the same rules and standards for scientific practice” (Kuhn, 1970, p.11).

Every researcher has to follow a specific paradigm in conducting the research. The paradigm according to Hussey and Hussey (1997) is something you determine through your research project including basic beliefs about the world, research design, collecting and analysing data, and even the way of writing the thesis. Two main research paradigms are the most common; positivist and phenomenological or different terms are used by others; quantitative and qualitative (Hussey and Hussey, 1994). The positivist paradigm has been referred by Creswell (1994) as quantitative and the phenomenological as qualitative. Thus, the most popular research philosophies are positivism and interpretivism (also called phenomenology). Moreover, between these two positions, other research philosophies exist like realism (Blumberg, et al., 2014).

Examples of such paradigms are positivism, symbolic interactionism, ethnomethodology and phenomenology (Sarantakos, 2005). Burrell and Morgan (1979) identified four distinct sociological paradigms: functionalist, interpretative, radical humanist and radical structural. The four paradigms signified the four different visions of social world based on different meta-theoretical assumptions regarding the nature of science and of society (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The basic set of beliefs of each paradigm is outlined through four philosophical assumptions: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Table 4.1 illustrates the four philosophical assumptions and its corresponding ontological, epistemological, and methodological paradigm.

Table 4.1: Basic beliefs of alternative inquiry paradigms

Item	Positivism	Post-positivism	Critical theory	Constructivism
Ontology	Naïve realism - "real" reality but apprehendable	Critical realism – "real" reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable	Historical realism – virtually reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, and gender values; crystallised over time	Relativism – local and specific constructed realities
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist; findings true	Modified dualist/objectivist; critical tradition/community; findings probably	Transactional/objectivist; value – mediated findings	Transactional/objectivist; created findings
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative	Modified experimental/manipulative; critical pluralism; falsification of hypotheses; may include quantitative methods	Dialogic/dialectical	Hermeneutical/dialectical

Source: Guba and Lincoln, (1994, p.109)

According to the positivist approach, it is proposed that the best way of getting the truth when doing research is to use scientific method, which is known as the hypothetic-deductive method that is made up of the following sequence (Jankowicz, 2004): first, a formally expressed general statement which attempts to test theory; second, the purpose of the theory is to generate hypotheses that can be tested and allows explanations of laws to be measured (deductive principal); third, a careful operationalisation of constructs; fourth, measurement of constructs; fifth, hypotheses testing and finally, confirmation of the theory (Jankowicz, 2004). Positivism is considered as link between the theory and the

research and attempts to test theory in order to increase predictive understanding of phenomena.

Thus, the research aim, following the positivism assumption, is to study a social phenomenon (consumer grudgeholding) in search of regularities and causal relationships assuming the independency of social actors. It is objective and adopts the deductivist principal, by depending on an existing theory to develop a tested hypothesis. Therefore, the researcher acquires knowledge by gathering facts that lead to further development of the theory (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012).

4.4 Research Design

Research design is the “science (and art) of planning procedures for conducting studies so as to get the most valid findings” (Vogt and Johnson, 2011, p. 338). Defining the research design means the researcher will have a detailed plan which will be used to guide and focus the research. The research design includes a range of dimensions of the research process such as: expression of interrelationships between variables, generalisation of larger group of individuals to the whole population, understanding behaviour in a specific social context and a sequential appreciation of social phenomena and their interconnections (Bryman and Bell, 2007). A research design is a logical plan of a number of major steps, including the collection and analysis of relevant data for answering questions (Yin, 2014).

The research design is the “blueprint of fulfilling objectives and answering questions” (Blumberg, et al., 2014, p.57). It is the structure that guides the implementation of a research method of collecting and analysing the following data (Bryman and Bell, 2003). The research design includes a range of dimensions of the research process such as: expression of interrelationships between variables, generalisation of larger group of individuals than those who actually contribute in the investigation, understanding behaviour and the meaning of behaviour in a specific social context and a progressive appreciation of social phenomena and their interconnections (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The methodological design has to be suitable to the research problem, the degree of controllability over actual behavioural events and the time-focus of the phenomena

observed (Yin, 1984). The research approach selected depends on the research issue or question determined by the nature of relationship between the theory and the research. Based upon this relationship, the clarity of the theory and the reason of collecting the data, whether to test or build the theory, will be signified. Then, the researcher can establish the design of the research project (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

Research design explains and justifies the types and methods of data collection, source of information, sampling strategy and time-cost constraints (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). However, the most acceptable research design is the one based on the research purpose. There are three types of research design based on the study's purpose: exploratory, descriptive and causal (Chisnall, 2001). The exploratory study provides more insight and ideas to discover the real nature of the issue under investigation. Descriptive study stems from previous knowledge and is concerned with describing specific phenomena systematically and precisely; it is a means to an end rather than an end, since it encourages future explanation (Chisnall, 2001; Jankowicz, 2004; Ghauri and Gronhaug, 2005; Saunders et al., 2012). These three basic designs are interrelated, and the research can combine more than purpose.

The current study is trying to discover the real nature of the consumer grudgeholding. It starts with theory representing accumulated knowledge in the marketing (consumer behaviour academic literature) and psychology (cognitive appraisal, emotion and adaptation) in order to provides an explanation of how consumer forms their grudge toward companies/organizations. Therefore, for this purpose, the research design comprises two phases. By moving on at the research process, each phase can provide answers that contribute to the research problem. The first phase constitutes the exploratory stage, employed to gain more insights into the determinants of the consumer grudgeholding by reviewing the literature. The second phase represents the descriptive-explanatory phase, which describes the characteristics of the respondents of the sample surveyed. This is conducted to test the hypotheses and explain the relationships between the study constructs. Figure 4.1 shows the research design chart.

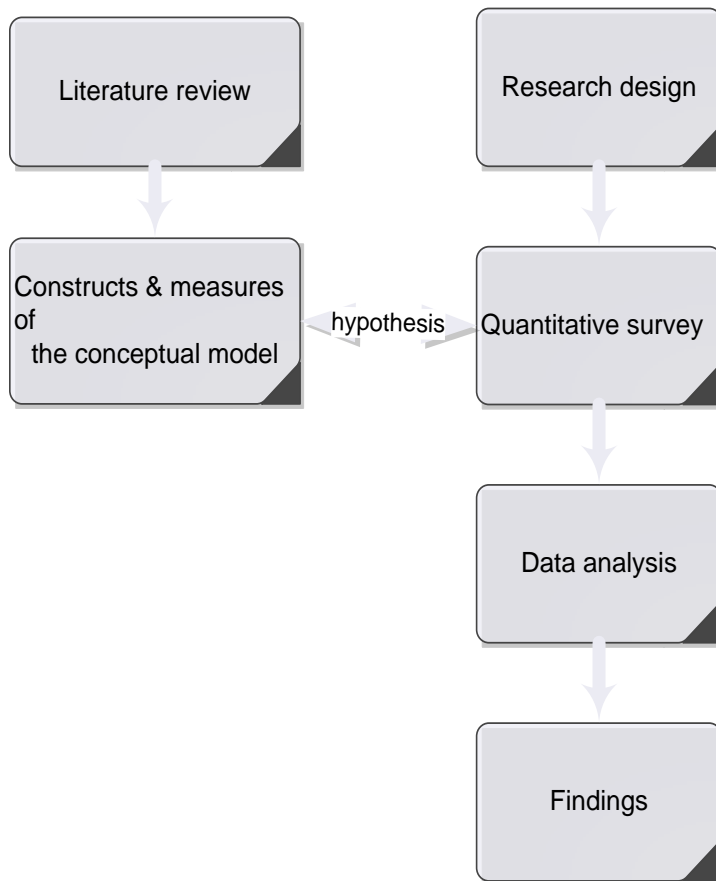


Figure 4.1 : Research Design

4.4.1 Deductive vs. inductive approach

There are two research approaches that define the link between theory and research: deductive and inductive. The deductive approach, or the hypothetic-deductive method (Baker and Foy, 2008), represents the common view of the relationship between research and theory (Bryman, 2008). This approach starts with theory developed from reviewing the academic literature from which propositions are deduced. The scholar develops propositions, which are logical conclusions or predictions derived from theory. Then, he/she collects data relating to the propositions. By analysing the data, the theory can be rejected or accepted or subject to modifications in order to explain the research inquiry (Bryman, 2008; Saunders et al., 2012).

The deduction approach focuses on scientific principles, moving from theory to data, causal relationships between variables, quantitative data and controls to ensure validity of data, operationalization of concepts, highly structured approach, research independence and objectivity as well as samples of sufficient size (Saunders et. al., 2003). The deductive approach is the process which begins with an abstract, logical relationship among concepts, then moves toward concrete empirical evidence to get the conclusion (Neuman, 2003, p.51). The conclusion is followed from the reasons given, and the link between reasons and conclusions must be true and valid. A deduction is valid if it is impossible for the conclusion to be false as long as the reasons are true and the argument form is valid (Blumberg, et al., 2014). It is the process by which we test whether the hypothesis is capable of explaining the facts.

The inductive approach represents the common-sense view of how scientists discover reality and build theories (Baker and Foy, 2008). Inductive approach is defined as “an approach to developing or confirming a theory that begins with concrete empirical evidence and works toward more abstract concepts and theoretical relationships” (Neuman, 2006). Therefore, the research begins by collecting data about the studied phenomenon in order to explore it and then build a theory. This approach allows for the interaction of social actors in interpreting reality and follows a flexible structure. It is conducted by interviewing a small sample of subjects working in the context in which the event under investigation took place; thus, there is less concern about generalisation (Saunders et al., 2012). Therefore, the theory itself is the result of the research (Bryman, 2008).

Inductive approach is defined as building the theory from the ground up beginning with detailed observations of the world and move toward more abstract generalizations using few uncertain concepts, and identifying preliminary relationships (Neuman, 2003). It is the way of generation of theory. The induction approach focuses on: understanding meanings of human attacks to events, understanding of research context, qualitative data, and flexible structure to permit changes, and the researcher participation in the research process (Saunders et. al., 2003). The induction approach is concerned about collecting data to explore a phenomenon, identifying themes and patterns then create a conceptual framework; which enable the researcher to generalize from the specific to the general (Saunders et. al., 2012).

4.4.2 Justification of the research approach

The research philosophy approach adopted should be relevant to the research issue or problem. Saunders et al. (2012) suggest that it is difficult to fit the research problem to one particular philosophical position. However, it is still important to determine the research philosophy in order to define the approach the researcher will use to find answers to the research questions.

The current study aims to establish and explains the marketing and psychological determinants of consumer grudgeholding. Then use them as base to build on for new model to consumer grudgeholding. To reach this aim, the research employs the deductive approach and follows its sequential steps was considered in order to test the theory through empirical investigation. It starts with theory representing accumulated knowledge in the marketing (consumer behaviour academic literature) and psychology (cognitive appraisal, emotion and adaptation) in order to provides an explanation of how consumer forms their grudge toward companies/organizations. The literature provides the theoretical foundation of the proposed model and hypotheses. The model defines the determinants of consumer grudgeholding and explores the relationship between them based on the theoretical background of consumer behaviour from a psychoanalytic view.

4.4.3 Quantitative vs. qualitative research

The question of the research methods comes directly after defining the research paradigm and its ontological and epistemological view. Each philosophical supposition attempts to answer questions related to research ontological, epistemological positions, and its methodology. The current study adopts the positivism philosophical assumption which tries to use the natural science models and methods in their study of human matters (Neuman, 2006). Therefore, it adopts the belief of objectivity and views the phenomena of the research as objects (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

Although, Guba and Lincoln (1994) identified four philosophical positions to frame the research paradigm; however, both the positivism and interpretivism define the two main methodological approaches. The research methodology or the philosophy of methods gives answers to how the research problem can be studied. Broadly, the research methods can be classified into two types: qualitative and quantitative (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). The following table illustrates clearly the difference between both methods.

Table 4.2: Differences between the quantitative and qualitative methods

Point of Comparison	Quantitative	Qualitative
Nature of reality	Objective, independent of social actors	Subjective, socially constructed
Approach	Deductive: testing of theory	Inductive: building theory
Research design	Exploratory	Descriptive
Research strategies	Experimental and survey research (structured interviews)	Unstructured or semi-structured interviews, case study, ethnography, grounded theory and narrative research
Types of Data	Quantitative; numeric	Qualitative; non-numeric
Sample size	Large sample size in order to generalise conclusions	Small sample size with less concern about generalisation

Thus, it can be argued that the quantitative research is inspired with the positivism philosophical assumption while the qualitative research attempts to understand social actors clarifications of their environment (Bryman, 2006). The methodological approach of the positivism philosophical assumption is usually highly structured using large samples and both quantitative and qualitative methods. However, the quantitative methods are commonly used. The interpretivist philosophical assumption depends on small sample sizes and goes into in-depth investigations using qualitative methods. However, mixed or multiple methods design can be used (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Saunders et al., 2012). Therefore, qualitative research is associated with inductive approach, interpretive philosophy, and understands the social phenomenon using non-numeric data collection and analysis (Saunders et al., 2012). Whereas, quantitative research is associated with deductive approach, the positivism philosophy, and measures the relationship between variables using quantification for data collection and analysis.

Qualitative research builds a holistic view of the research inquiry and uses a naturalistic approach to understand it in the particular context-settings (Hoepfl, 1997, Patton, 1990). It is concerned with interpreting the non-numeric data in order to access the subjective and social constructed meanings of the studied phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2012). The qualitative data enables the researcher to obtain detailed information from the respondents' perspectives, and describe their experiences, feelings, attitudes, preferences, perceptions and positions (Patton, 1990). Bryman (2006) suggests that this type of research helps to understand relationships between the study variables that do not exist in the survey. Additionally, qualitative research can be used to explain the concepts and achieve better wording of the scale items to develop the questionnaire (Bryman, 2006; Churchill, 1995; Silverman, 2006). However, qualitative research is criticised as being subjective and difficult to replicate; lacking generalizability (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

Whereas quantitative research is built on the realism approach, it operationalizes the concepts inferred from theory to measure them (Baker and Foy, 2008). It examines the relationships between the variables and tests the hypotheses. Therefore, it places great emphasis on the numeric data to achieve conclusions that can be generalized to the whole population (Saunders et al., 2012). However, the quantitative research is criticised for having low involvement or no contact with the subjects, an arbitrary definition of the variables away from the context-settings, and failure to generate hypotheses from the data (Silverman, 2006). To achieve the research objectives, quantitative research will be used.

4.5 Data Generation Sources and Communication Method

4.5.1 Introduction

The undertaken study is characterised as quantitative survey research and uses a descriptive and an exploratory survey. Most of the research questions focus mainly on “what” and “how” questions which are likely to favour survey methods. The survey method is advantageous when the research goal is to describe the incidence or prevalence of a phenomenon or when it is to be predictive about certain outcomes (Yin, 2014, p.10). The question “why” is used once in this research which requires an additional explanatory study in the future. The research of consumer grudgeholding runs both descriptive and exploratory study. Descriptive research presents a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relationship (Neuman, 2003). It intends to explore more about

consumer grudgeholding to understand the psychological content of this phenomenon. Exploratory research may help to design and apply systematic and extensive study later. According to Neuman, descriptive and exploratory research have many similarities. The researcher begins with a well-defined subject and conducts research to describe it accurately in order to get a clear picture.

data sources are generally divided into two categories: primary and secondary. The information gathered for the research will be primary data. Primary data refer to the generation of sources, which are related specifically to the research problem. There are three sources of primary data as being respondents, analogous situations and experimentation (Kinner and Taylor,1991). The analogous situation and experimental design options were considered unsuitable because of the number of in-built methodological limitations and their perceived lack of effectiveness for the purpose of this study. The respondent source is considered more appropriate, for this study on the basis that: "When the information needs of a study require data about respondents 'attitudes, perceptions, motivations, knowledge, and indented behaviour, asking people questions is essential" (Kinner and Taylor, 1991, p. 135). Traditionally, the methods for data collection are grouped into two categories: quantitative in the form of numbers, and qualitative in the form of words or pictures (Neuman, 2003,). The primary data of this research depends on a survey using questionnaires.

A survey is used for exploratory and descriptive study. The analysed quantitative data can be used to test and give reasons for specific relationships between variables, and produce models based on these relationships (Saunders et al., 2012). Several studies in marketing investigate consumer brand preferences using the survey method (for example, Oliver et al, 1997; Nyer and Gopinath, 2005). This research needs to find out what people think and feel when they hold a grudge against a company or organization, how they respond so the survey is the appropriate way through asking them. Most survey research is descriptive which help to identify characteristics of a specific group, to measure attitudes, and to describe behavioural patterns (Zikmund, 2002). Therefore, survey fulfil the aim of the study in terms of exploring and defining consumer grudgeholding behaviour.

4.5.2 Survey design and questionnaire development

Questionnaires offer great assurance of anonymity, limit the risk for bias or errors caused by the behaviour of interviewer, offer an objective view of the issue since respondents prefer to write rather than to talk about certain issues. In addition, questionnaires allow a wide coverage since researchers can approach respondents more easily (Sarantakos, 2005). In designing a questionnaire, the researcher should follow some important requirements in order to get true responses (Chisnall, 2001). Firstly, the researcher should determine the type of information required to be addressed by the questionnaire. The research literature and the followed hypotheses guide the questionnaire and determine the variables that specify the associations, the type of questions and the respondents (Churchill, 1995). Hence, the survey questions should be designed to help achieving the goals of the research, and in particular to answer the research questions at the end. Secondly, the structure of the questions should be phrased using simple language and clear words specifically related to the investigated topic, not lengthy, and should not place pressure on respondents' memories for the success of data generation (Robson, 2002). The clearer the design of the questionnaire, the more willing respondents will be to answer it (Chisnall, 2001).

4.5.3 Type of questionnaire and scale

The type of questionnaire can be determined using the method of communication (Churchill, 1995), divided into three types; self-administrated questionnaires, personal interviews, and telephone interviews (Robson, 2002; Blumberg et al., 2008). This study requires a self-administered respondent approach because there is no necessity to consider a direct control over the physical data generation method. The self-administrated questionnaires can be sent electronically to respondents (web-based questionnaire), posted by mail (mail-questionnaires), by approaching people in public places, such as shopping malls (intercept or mall questionnaires), or delivered by hand and collected later (delivery and collection questionnaires) (Blumberg et al., 2008; Churchill, 1995; Saunders et al., 2012). The telephone questionnaire is conducted via phone call (Churchill, 1995), or computer-assisted telephone interviewing (Chisnall, 2001). The personal interviews are face-to-face conversations between the researcher and the interviewee (Churchill, 1995). By comparing the types of questionnaire, it was found that telephone interviews are costly and limited in length (Blumberg et al., 2008). The personal interviews can result in a high

response rate, but they are also costly and require trained interviewers (Saunders et al., 2012). In addition, both personal and telephone interviews are subject to interviewer bias (Churchill, 1995). In contrast, self-administrated questionnaires are often low in cost and do not require the involvement of the researcher (Blumberg et al., 2008).

Questionnaires are associated with both positivist and phenomenological methodologies. Questionnaire is characterised a list of structured questions, chosen after examination, in an attempt to choose reliable responses from a chosen sample. However, questionnaire is the common technique for survey, as it is suitable for descriptive and analytical research (Saunders et al., 2012). According to the descriptive and exploratory nature of this research, questionnaire-based surveys are suitable. For the descriptive nature of the research, they can provide information about the distribution of a wide range of people characteristics, and of relationships between those characteristics. Besides, they help to get a relatively simple and straightforward approach to the study of attitudes, values, beliefs and motives. For the exploratory nature of the research, open-ended questions are fit to explore some areas of the research. Positivist approach suggests closed questions, while the phenomenological approach suggests the open-ended questions (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Integrating both closed and open-ended questions broaden the information required to explore consumer grudgeholding using the respondents' words, self-reports.

According to the positivist paradigm, questionnaires can be used for large scale surveys. Self-completion questionnaire or self-administered questionnaire is referred to the way when the respondents answer questions by completing the questionnaire themselves (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Self-administered questionnaire can be sent electronically using the Internet (Internet-mediated or Web-based questionnaires) or intranet (intranet-mediated questionnaires), posted to respondents who return them by post after completion (postal or mail questionnaires) or delivered by hand to each respondent and collected later (delivery and collection questionnaires). Moreover, responses to interviewer-completed questionnaires are recorded by the interviewer on the basis of each respondent's answers. Questionnaires undertaken using the telephone are known as telephone questionnaires. The final category, structured interviews, refers to the state of meeting the respondents face to face with the interviewers and ask the questions (Saunders et al., 2012).

The research depends on self-administered questionnaire as a method of data generation because of its reliability in assuring respondent anonymity, demanding low levels of administrative requirements (cheap to administer, quicker to administer), possessing a high degree of standardisation and accessibility, absence of interviewer effect,

convenience for respondents and accurate means of assessing information about the population. Self-administered questionnaires were selected for the research in order to give the respondents all the freedom to read and answer the questions. Moreover, self-completion questionnaires are better for researching in sensitive topic (Robson, 2002), such as expressing the negative emotions. Besides, a structured standardised method can increase the response rate since it provides greater anonymity and the respondent will have more time to think for their responses (Sellitz, 1981).

However, there are some recognised limitations to use self-administered questionnaire. For examples, the investigator's lack of control over the questionnaire completion process, low response rate, limited volume of data capable of being generated and the possibility of biases being present in the sample frame, greater risk for missing data (Bryman and Bell, 2003, 2007; Paxson, 1992; Saunders et al., 2012; Robson, 2002; Zikmund, 2002). To avoid some limitations, the researcher extended the time of collecting the data to increase the response rate and to assure the representative sample. Besides, the researcher considers some issues in designing the questionnaire in order to maximize the response rate (for example, short with simple and clear language provided with definition of the main topic).

Closed and open-ended questions (specifically propping questions) were both used in the research as a way of motivating the respondent's memory to retrieve a previous experience and recall actions and behaviours. Using both closed and open-ended questions provides the research with expected and unexpected answers. The researcher may predict the general sense of the response but prefer to know the terminology used by the respondents and the strength of their feeling (Brace, 2013). Close-ended questions limit the respondent to the set of alternatives being offered, while open-ended questions allow the respondent to express an opinion without being influenced by the researcher (Foddy, 1993, p. 127). Open-ended questions are good for two reasons : They help to discover the responses that individuals give spontaneously and avoid the bias that may result from suggesting responses to individuals (Reja et al., 2003).

In marketing research, there are several kinds of scales that have been widely used, such as the Thurstone scale, Likert scale, Semantic differential scale and Guttman scale (Chisnall, 2001). The Thurstone scale is a classic interval scale that requires sophisticated mathematical procedures. The Guttman scale is a cumulative scale that allows respondents to express their agreement on different statements, but it is very complicated

and validation problems can occur. The two most popular, easy to use and reliable scales are the Osgood semantic scale and Likert scale (Chisnall, 2001).

Semantic differential rating scale is often used in consumer research to determine underlying attitudes. The respondent is asked to rate a single object or idea on a series of bipolar rating scales of opposite adjective (Saunders et al., 2009). Churchill (1995) illustrates that, in marketing, the use of semantic differential scale have been modified to follow the Likert scale rather than the Semantic scale construction. One problem with this scale is that its psychometric properties and level of measurement are disputed. Furthermore, attitudes can be difficult to express briefly, and it is sometimes hard to find an opposite to ensure that the scale embodies a linear progression from one end to the other (Brace, 2013). Therefore, its validity has been questioned. In addition, respondents always find it easier to respond to questions using the Likert scale (Churchill, 1995).

For these reasons, the current study uses the Likert scale for two questions which test the grudgeholding consumers' emotions and appraised responses after the corrective actions taken in responding to the complaints. The number of Likert scale points usually ranges from four to seven (Saunders et al., 2012). The four points force the respondents to express their attitude or feelings, while the five points give respondents the chance of being unsure about an implicit negative statement (Saunders et al., 2009). Moreover, the five points are clearer in appearance and easier to handle than the seven points (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Based upon these, the Likert five-points scale is used for only two questions in order to avoid the respondents from falling into a routine of ticking boxes in a pattern (Brace, 2013).

However, it often makes sense to use or adapt existing scales (Schrauf and Navarro 2005). The research contacted the authors who worked on the same subject of consumer grudgeholding Aron and his colleagues asking their permission to use the same questionnaire they used in their study (Aron, 2001; Aron et al., 2007) . Their scale is suitable for the interest of the research because it measures some of the constructs, have been empirically tested and validated by others like (Hunt et al., 1988,1990; Heufner and Hunt, 1992) and were designed for a reasonably similar group of respondents.

The research is based mainly on tested questionnaire (Aron et al., 2007) after some amendments to its contents. See Appendix B to see the original questionnaire and the modified one.

4.5.4 Pilot testing and items purification

Pilot study is an instrument employed by quantitative researchers before the actual data collection. The purpose of the pilot test is to refine the questionnaire to eliminate any possible weaknesses in design and instrumentation so that respondents will have no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data. Also, a pilot study is important to give a pre evaluation and revision of the measurement in order to create the final questionnaire for the main survey (Zikmund, 1997). Purification of the measurement items refers to assessment of the content validity and reliability of the data that will be collected (Saunders et al., 2012). Pilot testing is important to ensure that the survey questions operate well and the respondents understand and answer them easily (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Several scholars (for example, Oppenheim, 1992; Sproull, 1988) have analysed the following goals of pilot studies: the costs and duration of the main study, effectiveness of the study's organisation, suitability of research methods and instruments, response rate, ascertain the degree of survey population, discover weaknesses and limitations.

The research adopted the same steps of survey pilot process (Lewis , 1982; Ericsson and Simon, 1993; Dillman, 2000) summarised in the table below:

Table 4.3: Questionnaire pilot stages

Stage 1	Cognitive interviews and “think loud” protocols test if the respondents could complete the survey.
Stage 2	Questionnaire has been tested by and a group of consumers ensure question completeness, efficiency, relevancy and format appropriateness
Stage 3	Small pilot study that completed all the procedures proposed in the main study.
Stage 4	During the last revision process, researchers have checked for typos and errors prior to the questionnaire distribution.

Survey Pilot Process (adopted by Lewis , 1982; Ericsson and Simon, 1993; Dillman, 2000)

Although the validity of the original questionnaire is approved when it was applied before (Aron et al., 2007), the researcher needed to take further steps after modifying the original questionnaire with the help of three senior lecturers in the discipline. The first stage of pre-testing the validity of the questionnaire, is the “think aloud” protocol introduced by Lewis (1982), which is pretesting to determine respondents’ comprehension through cognitive interviews. In this participating arrangement, four academic researchers in the discipline were asked to come to a central location. The questionnaire is administered to each respondent separately. Borrowing a procedure called think aloud from cognitive psychology, respondents are instructed to think out loud as they answer each question. The idea is to determine what things respondents consider in answering the question. This method can provide insights into comprehension problems as do other pre-test methods, but in a more direct fashion because respondents are explicitly reporting what they think about while answering a question. In addition to comprehension, this method also has the potential to identify problems in other phases of the response process, for example, performance tasks, such as recall, or using the response options (Czaja and Blair, 2005

On the second stage of running the pilot study, the questionnaire has been tested by a group of consumers to assure the following objectives which are summarized by Peat et al. (2002, p.123). See Table (4.4)

Table 4.4: Pilot study objectives

objectives	administer the questionnaire to pilot subjects in exactly the same way as it will be administered in the main study
	ask the subjects for feedback to identify ambiguities and difficult questions record the time taken to complete the questionnaire and decide whether it is reasonable
	discard all unnecessary, difficult or ambiguous questions
study	assess whether each question gives an adequate range of responses
	establish that replies can be interpreted in terms of the information that is required
	check that all questions are answered
Pilot	re-word or re-scale any questions that are not answered as expected shorten, revise and, if possible, pilot again.

Source: (Peat et al. 2002, p.123).

Hence, pilot study was conducted in February 2010 by collecting 20 responses from students in Brunel University. The sample size is 20 respondents; this number meets the guidelines of the pilot study sample size. The minimum number of responses for pilot test is 10, and between 100 and 200 for large surveys (Saunders et al., 2012). The respondents were asked about the clarity of meaning, instructions, layout, wording and phrasing, and time required to answer the questionnaire. The respondents were very interested about the subject. They understood the questions and they took less than 10 minutes to fill it. However, for some propping questions, the response rate was small . Some people find it difficult to articulate everything that they know or feel about a subject, or they aren't prepared to think of additional answers (Brace, 2013). The researcher informed that the suggested answers are representative enough. However, other closed and open-ended questions were fully answered. The researcher justified that filling the questionnaire all with no missing data by respondents as an indication to its simplicity and clarity in designing the consequential questions. Moreover, consumer grudgeholding is an interesting subject that triggers aggressed people to talk if they have a negative experience with any company or organization.

After collecting the pilot data, the items were purified by assessing their reliability (Churchill, 1979). The reliability is assessed by measuring Cronbach's alpha, which assesses the consistency of the whole scale (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, the items are

considered reliable with inter-item correlation and item to total correlation more than 0.3 (Field, 2005), and value of Cronbach's alpha exceeding 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). However, in some cases, alpha value of 0.5 or 0.6 is still acceptable (Churchill, 1979).

4.5.5 Sampling Procedures

After identifying the methods of data collection, the next step is to determine the element from which the data will be collected (Churchill, 1995). Sampling is in the Dictionary of Statistics and Methodology (Vogt and Johnson, 2011, p.347), "a group of subjects or cases selected from a larger group in the hope that studying this small group (the sample) will reveal important information about the larger group (the population).

4.5.5.1 Define the Population and Sampling Frame

Firstly, it is important to define the population and identify the sampling frame (Churchill, 1995; Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Population refers to the universe of units from which the sample is selected (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The target population has to be convenient, serve the research objective and consider the appropriate sampling unit (Aaker et al., 1997, Hair et al., 2003). Malhotra and Briks (2003) specify that the target population should be defined in terms of elements, sampling unit, extent and time. For the current study, the population is the British customers (born or brought up in the United Kingdom), young age group between 18 and 30. The reasons behind the choice of this age group (18+) complies first to the restriction of the Ethical Research Committee that the respondents' age should be above or equal to 18 years old. Unless the research targets children or specific young respondents, in such cases approval from the committee is required. Second, the research is interested to know if there is any gender differences for this specific age group.

The sampling frame refers to the list of all units in the population from which the sample will be selected (Bryman and Bell, 2011). It is not possible to obtain a list of the population (the whole young group of British consumers). Accordingly, in the light of unavailability of sampling frame the sampling technique is determined

4.5.5.2 Sampling Technique

There are two types of sampling techniques: probability and non-probability sampling. The probability sampling means that each element in the population has the chance to be selected, while the non-probability sampling means that probability of selecting an element cannot be estimated (Churchill, 1995). The probability sample includes four types of samples: simple random sample, systematic sample, stratified random sampling, and cluster sampling. In general, researchers prefer probabilistic or random sampling methods over non-probabilistic ones, and consider them to be more accurate and rigorous. However, in applied social research there may be circumstances where it is not possible, practical or theoretically sensible to do random sampling. Here, we consider a wide range of non-probabilistic alternatives such as the convenience sampling, quota sample and snowball sample (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

The current study will depend on non-probability sampling; namely, convenience sampling because the sampling frame is unavailable, and it is not always feasible to draw a random sample (Reynolds et al., 2003; Saunders et al., 2012). All of us are consumers (the population), and the sample can be generated from anywhere such as (universities, hospitals, companies, factories, shopping malls, etcetera.) Convenience sampling “is one of the most frequently used non-probability sampling methods” (Hair et al., 2003, p.217), and used commonly in marketing (Bryman, 1989; Andreasen, 1984; Kim et al., 2011). Convenience sampling means the non-random selection of available elements from the study-defined population. It is an easy, quick, and cost-effective technique, but the main drawback is that it is unrepresentative of the population (Churchill, 1995; Saunders et al., 2012).

The researcher drew convenient sample from Brunel University between January and October (2011), and depended on the availability of students, and avoided exam and holiday times when collecting the data. Any student can be selected for non-bias reasons when trying to get a representative sample of the population (young consumers who were born or brought up in the United kingdom). Almost three departments from each college has been targeted. The researchers contacted some modules’ leaders from each to get their permissions to take 15 minutes of their lectures’ time to distribute then collect the questionnaire (filling the questionnaire takes 5 minutes and less).

4.5.5.3 Sample Size

The appropriate sample size of the each study is hard to determine. However, it depends on several factors, such as the margin of error, degree of certainty, size of population, and the statistical techniques (Saunders et al., 2012). A sample has to be carefully selected to represent the targeted population. In positivism, large sample size is important to ensure that the findings based on the sample investigated represent the whole population; hence generalization is important (Blumberg et al., 2014). A small sample could be a waste of effort because it cannot provide significant effects (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000). The larger your sample's size the lower the likely error in generalising to the population (Saunders et al., 2009)

The purpose of the study is to examine how consumers behave when they face a bad experience and hold a grudge against a company or organization; therefore, it is important to elicit answers from a large sample of consumers in order to assure validity and reliability. One thousand is the total number of individuals who have been contacted to participate in the study. In October 2011, the researcher arranged collecting data from students (as potential customers) in Brunel University- by approaching them and asking politely to participate and by emailing their lectures' leaders to get their permission of 15 minutes from their lectures' time to distribute, fill and collect the 5-minute questionnaire.

4.6 Questionnaire Contents

The participants were asked to remember a six-month and more an event that was as authentic as possible and to bring back as much of the actual negative experience as they possibly could step-by-step. Finally, by means of closed and open-ended questions, participants were asked to describe the feelings, thoughts, action tendencies, actions like voicing their concerns, and motivational goals they had.

It is vital that the survey's instructions and measurement items should be well written, easy to the respondent to understand, crystal clear and not vague. Towards that end, the study used a questionnaire applied by Aron et al (2007) to collect data for the main survey from consumers who born or brought up in United Kingdom. During the research work on consumer grudgeholding and the literature review starting with first topics of Hirschman exit and voice (1970) to Twedt's concept of consumer grudgeholding for the first time in a conference (1987) according to Hunt and Hunt (1990) who introduced the one word

grudgeholding to the developed conceptual model by Aron (2001). The researcher gets the knowledge from all of what have been done in the subject trying to apply and find answers to the same questions of Aron et al (2007) but in different culture with new adding to the knowledge of concentrating on the psychoanalytical issue. Aron et al researched about the type of purchase that cause such a response to know how the cost affects and create the grudge. They investigated the efforts of all parties involved in rectifying the offending experience. Also, they studied exit and voice contents and the expected future relationship with the offenders.

This research chose the definition of grudge by Aron et al (2007) to provide the respondents with clear view of what the questionnaire is about. The definition is short and clear to know many things about grudge as long as the researcher followed the way of the least the best. The definition of grudge is “a strong, lasting feeling of hostility or dislike for a company or organization that you feel has treated you badly” (Aron et al, 2007).

A questionnaire is one sheet with two pages to make it as easy and quick as possible to get the required results. Respondents usually who accept to share in a study in the busy and quick life do not prefer to stay for a long time and fill a questionnaire of several pages. The demographic questions are presented in the beginning of the research not at the end like Aron et al study. The main reason of asking about age, gender and the birth and growing up from the beginning and before moving to the key question that will divide the data between those who hold grudge against a company or an organization and those who do not and they can stop from filling the rest of the questionnaire, is that the researcher needs to know if there is any difference between males and females of holding the grudge. Are males more likely to hold grudge than females or the opposite or there is no difference?

The other following questions are: what did you purchase? Or what was the service?The researcher added a question about service to make the respondents feel free to talk about their bad experience whatever they are. Aron et al did not mention the service option. The next question is about the cost of the product or service (question 6). I added to the expected answers nothing and unknown paid because sometimes the consumers do not remember, do not care to the price or even do not know, so they can answer nothing if they really received a free service but an offending one. This was not in the original one of Aron et al as well . The seventh question is to know their emotions (for example, angry, disgusted, shocked, surprised, afraid, fearful, humiliated, cheated, disappointed). It is modified by adding “indifferent” which represents the neutral middle (Frijda et al., 1989;

Fontaine and Scherer, 2013) when they first experienced the offence. Then, respondents replied to two questions about whether they responded to the offence by telling others inside the company/organization or outside. If they tell people like family, friends and others, they have to tell how many approximately of them have been told. If they complain to the source of aggress, they have to answer the question about the product or service recoveries in responding to their grievance choosing among several options (for example, gave a refund, offered store or company credit, repaired the product, apologized, gave you extra attention, replaced the product) or something else that they received and not in the options (questions 8,9,10).

The respondents followed a logical sequence applied in the questionnaire in a purpose of helping them to recall emotions of negative experience happened at least six months before. Besides, they have been asked to reveal their current emotion, if they still hold a grudge or not (question 11). If yes, they need to choose the correct matching level to their current emotion in the Likert scale. The research intended to modify Aron Likert scale from seven to five for two reasons: First, it makes it easier for the respondent to identify exactly their answers. Second, the tempting goal for the researcher would be to make direct comparisons between two groups of responses. (Brace, 2013). The scale that measure the grieved consumers' current emotion ranges from much worse than when it happened to much better; with a neutral point in the middle again to refer to those people who lack the feeling, indifferent or prefer to suppress their emotions expression (in reality or/and in responding to the study). The question before the last is to measure their future behaviour (purchase intention) to identify if they exit for no return (question 12). Yet, they have to choose one of the answers on the 5-Likert scale that ranges from I definitely will not, to I definitely will with a point in the middle for those who are not sure so they may or may not return. Finally, the research was interested about studying the grudgeholders future attitude or action tendency. A propping open-ended question presented at the end to predict their intention to rectify the situation with some suggestions for attributions to their ending the pursuing for solution (not worth time or effort, did not think it would help, happened too recently) in addition to please give reason to encourage them to reply in their own words by asking, what would you suggest the company or organization do now in order to resolve the situation? Adapted from Snellman and Vihtkari (2003) and Blodgett et al., (1995).

4.7 Response Issue

The percentage or proportion of members of a sample who respond to a questionnaire is the response rate according to the Dictionary of Statistics and Methodology. Low response rates are one of the more frequent sources of bias in social science research; the lower a response rate, the more questions are likely to be raised about the representativeness of the sample (2011, p. 341; Bryman and Bell, 2007). It is likely, however, to be an issue only with randomly selected samples. The following classification of response rate is provided: over 85% excellent, 70-85% very good, 60-70% acceptable and below 50% not acceptable (Mangione 1995, p. 60-61).

It is well known that questionnaires are associated with low response rates. Therefore, the questionnaire should be followed by a detailed cover letter and cover page which will provide instructions regarding the research subject, the details about those collecting the data, types of questions, necessary time to be completed not only to increase the response rate but also to facilitate the procedure for the respondents. Furthermore, it was made clear that all information obtained from the particular survey will remain absolutely confidential. Finally, in the last page respondents were able to express their opinion and to indicate if they are keen on receiving the results of the survey. In addition, surprisingly, shorter questionnaires incline to achieve better response rates than longer ones (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

A total of have responded to the questionnaire after distributing total of (1000) questionnaires were distributed, and (818) were returned for an effective response rate of (82%). The high response rate was attributable to the survey being personally distributed in the researcher's university, The interesting subject, and the short questionnaire. Of the (818) survey returned, (255) students fulfilled the criteria of this research of being born or brought up in the UK, situated in the required age group (18-35), and completed the whole questionnaire with no missing data confirming their holding the grudge based on an experience that occurred six month or longer, while (531) were not used in the research so they have been refused because they do not hold a grudge. The reset were not born or brought up in the UK. The questionnaire advised them to stop in the fourth question if they did not have grudge so they did not need to go through the rest of the questionnaire. Due to the manner in which the data was collected, (in person) a non-response bias is not a major concern of this study (see Table 3.5).

Table 4.5: The response rate

	Females	Males	Total
Consumers with grudge	95 (37.3%)	160 (56%)	255
Consumers without grudge	188 (35.4%)	343 (62.7%)	531
All responses	283 (72.7%)	503 (118.7%)	786
Grudgeholders out of the total	(95/786)=12%	(160/786)=20.35%	32.44%
Non-grudgeholders out of the total	(188/786)=43.63%	(343/786)=23.91%	67.56%

4.8 Research Constraints

The limitations of survey techniques are the data that are affected by the respondents who did not report their beliefs and attitudes accurately (Robson, 2002). Important constraints for the researcher are time and efforts spent to arrange with each module leader from each department to get the access to a part of the sample.

In an attempt to achieve the research objectives, the researcher faced the challenge of investigating consumers thinking, feeling, behaviours and attitudes.

More than half of the respondents returned the questionnaire with a negative answer that they do not hold a grudge. It might be the reality and it might be the social norm of refusing to talk about a subject that touches their hidden feeling, or the refusal of showing a dark side of personality of being grudgeholder.

4.9 Ethical Consideration and Confidentiality

It is vital in the early stage of the study to take into consideration the ethical aspects of the proposed study. Ethics refer to the rules of conduct codes or set of principles (Reynolds, 1979). The research abides by the rules of the Research Ethic Code. The purpose of this code as mentioned by Brunel University Research Ethic Committee (2005) is to achieve fairness for both the participant and the researcher. The participants of this research have been kindly asked to participate and fill in the questionnaire with confidentiality and anonymousness. Every precaution should be taken to respect and safeguard the privacy of

the participant, the confidentiality of the participant's information and to minimise the impact of the study on the participant's physical and mental integrity and personality (Ford, 2003).

Furthermore, it is important to ensure anonymity when conducting the research, since this will help the participants to express in a greater freedom (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). Sometimes it is good way to solve the problem of anonymity by agreeing on confidentiality (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). This research presented both anonymity and confidentiality together according to the cognitive and emotional nature of the subject in addition to the human behaviour resulting from harbouring grudge. Whilst it is considered ethically acceptable to request an undergraduate or postgraduate student to participate in research, the student must be assured that, by declining to participate in a particular procedure, their assessment will in no way be adversely affected, and that undue academic pressure or financial inducement shall not be brought to bear (Ford, 2003).

The participants of the research described in this thesis were asked to participate and fill in the questionnaire whilst at the same time ensuring that confidentiality and suitable anonymity was in place, that is, this research offered all the participants the right to be anonymous which means they were not going to be identified with any of the answers they supplied. In short, the research described in this thesis ensured both anonymity and confidentiality. This research poses no risk of any kind to the respondents given that according to the responses given to the questions asked, which recall their bad experience with any company or organization are anonymous and exclude questions that can cause inhibition such as if they commit illegal or criminal actions after holding a grudge which guarantees no sensitive information is disclosed. So, after a careful and adequate assessment for the risks and benefits, the institution at which this research was undertaken decided that no risk existed. Prior to the distribution of the questionnaire to the respondents, the questionnaires received the ethical approval from Brunel University Ethics Committee.

4.10 Conceptualisation and Operationalisation of Variables and their measures

Researchers use the following sequence for quantitative research: first, conceptualisation, followed by operationalisation, followed by applying the operational definition or measurement in order to collect data (Neuman, 2006).

The concept is the name given to the construct to organise its main features (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The process of conceptualisation denotes to taking a construct and refining it by giving it a theoretical or conceptual definition (Churchill, 1995, Neuman, 2006). While operationalisation denotes to the process of converting concepts into indicators to be measured empirically (Saunders et al., 2012). Essentially, it is employed when concepts are abstract or unclear and translates these constructs into synonymous empirical referents. In general, self-reports were used to measure consumer grudgeholding. Questions were designed as closed and open-ended (probing questions) to get the most of the answers in the respondents' own words.

Appraisal— The research discussed the most frequent types of appraisal (goal relevance, goal congruence, self-esteem or ego-involvement, self or other blamed, stability and controllability) based on the grudgeholders' own words of closed and open-ended questions.

Table 4.6: Appraisal measure in Literature

Appraisal measure	Source
Primary appraisal: Interpretation of the stressors as(positive, irrelevant, or dangerous) Secondary appraisal: Analysis of the available resources as sufficient or not	Lazarus (1966,1991, 1993), Lazarus and Folkman (1984); Smith and Kirby (2009)
Primary appraisal: (Goal relevance, goal congruence, ego-involvement) Secondary appraisal: (Blame or credit, coping potential, and future expectations)	Stephens and Gwinner (1998); Lazarus (1991); Shteynberg (2005); Nyer (1997b); Smith and Kirby (2009)
Primary appraisal: (Offence severity, frequency and magnitude) Secondary appraisal: (accountability, stability, and controllability)	Zourrig et al. (2009) Boote (1998); Weiner (1985); Blodgett and Granbois (1992) Lazarus (1991); Shteynberg, (2005)

Emotions – emotions can be measured through “full set of signs or evidence including evaluative appraisals, subjective feelings, body posture and gestures, facial expressions, physiological responses, action tendencies and overt actions” (Bagozzi et al., 2002, p. 44).

Some measurements explain emotions in a wider range. Some studied emotions from the coding of events to action responses (Frijda, 1986). Others found that emotions are complex patterns of physiological responses (Cacioppo et al., 1992a; Norman et al., 2014). However in modern psychology, the relationship between emotion and the autonomic nervous system has been a debatable topic (Norman et al., 2014). For example, LeDoux (1996) discussed the need for measurement processes further than self-reports concentrating on brain processes and the role of the amygdala in specific. Cacioppo et al. (1992a) emphasized that emotional experience is a blend of somatovisceral activation, afferentiation and cognitive operations. Besides, there are some indirect measures of emotions like physiological, motor, or biological indicators.

Both Plutchik (1980) and Izard (1977) based their studies of emotion on Darwin theory. Plutchick identified eight primary emotions (fear, anger, joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust,

expectancy and surprise) using the evolutionary view. The emotions Profile Index used to measure these basic emotions in human (Plutchik and Kellman, 1974). Holbrook and Westwood (1989) developed their scale from Plutchik's primary emotions using three adjectives for each emotion which measures the intensity of each of the adjectives (see also Havlena and Holbrook, 1986). Whereas, Izard (1977) measured emotions by focusing on the facial expressions associated by ten major emotions function for the survival of human beings (interest, enjoyment, surprise, distress (sadness), anger, disgust, contempt, fear, shame/shyness and guilt). Izard developed Differential Emotions Scale (DES) to measure these 10 emotions (see also, Izard, 1992, 1993, 1994, 2013).

The consumption related emotions are more complex than the two and three factor solutions observed in studies of reactions to ads or customer satisfaction Richins (1997). Richins used multidimensional scaling procedure, in combination with examination of clusters based on location and semantic similarity of emotional descriptors in two-dimensional space. Sixteen clusters of emotions were identified: anger, discontent, worry, sadness, fear, shame, envy, loneliness, romantic love, love, peacefulness, contentment, optimism, joy, excitement, and surprise. Richins's (1997) Consumption Emotions Set (CES) with its 16 descriptors is appealing because it covers most emotional reactions one encounters in consumption, and its measures achieved satisfactory reliability.

According to the appraisal theories which consider emotions as mental states or processes, it is practically effective to directly measure the cognitive activities comprising the emotional content using self-report of one's subjective experience (Bagozzi et al., 2002, p. 44). Some other ways to measure emotions were used in this regard like emotional memory process such as subliminal priming and response time. Self-reports of one's subjective experiences are consider the most commonly used procedures in this regard (Mauss and Robinson, 2009). Marketers have inclined to take an empirical line to the measurement of emotions and to rely on self-reports such as unipolar or bipolar items on questionnaires (Bagozzie et al., 1999). Emotions are bipolar states either happy or sad according to some scholars (Barrett and Russell, 1998). Bagozzi et al. (1999) recommended the use of unipolar scales that ask respondents to express to what extent each emotion describe their own subjective feelings, rather than bipolar scales that can obscure differences in emotional responses across the various dimensions. For more details in emotion measures see Table

Therefore, this research relied on self-reports in measuring the consumers' emotions using the traditional means of pencil and paper questionnaires and rate on unipolar scale

of 10 emotions and five-point Likert scale to describe the degree of emotional equilibrium. In this area, items of positive and negative emotions are administered to measure reactions to the stimulus which causes grudge and post-consumption reactions (for example, Edell and Burke, 1987; Westbrook, 1987; Bagozzi et al., 1999; Aron, 2001; Oliver, 2010; Izard, 2013). The research investigated emotions of grudgeholding by two questions which covers before and after the recovery:

- How did you feel at the time the grudgeholding event occurred? (Circle all that apply), angry, disgusted, shocked, surprised, afraid, fearful, humiliated, cheated, disappointed, indifferent.
- Do you still hold the grudge? If yes, how do you currently feel about the situation? Circle the words that best reflect your current feelings: Much worse than when it happened, worse, indifferent, better, much better when it happened.

Table 4.7: Emotion measure in Literature

Emotion measure	Measure' explanation	Source
Emotion Profile Index	This index contains 62 emotion descriptor pairs; scales are provided to represent each of 8 emotions	Plutchik and Kellman (1974)
Holbrook and Westwood measure	The scale contains three adjectives for each emotion of Plutchik's primary emotions; respondents report the intensity of each of the adjectives	Holbrook and Westwood (1989)
Differential Emotions Scale (DES)	It contains 30 adjective items to measure 10 key emotions based on the facial expressions	Izard (1977,2013)
The PAD measure	It contains 18 semantic differential items, six each for pleasure, arousal and dominance	Mehrabian and Russell (1974)
PANAS	It depends on bi-dimensional measure of positive/negative affect	Watson et al (1985, 1988, 1992)
Consumption Emotions Set (CES)	It measures 17 consumption emotions using multidimensional measure of positive and negative	Richins (1997)
Edell and Burke's Ad Feeling Dimensions	three dimensions of upbeat, negative, and warm feelings, best capture consumers' emotional responses to ads.	Edell and Burke (1987, 1989)
Aaker et al.'s Ad Feeling Clusters	It identifies 31 feeling clusters as response to ads.	Aaker et al. (1988)
Batra and Holbrook's Affective Responses to Ad Categories	It identifies 12 affective responses to ad	Batra and Holbrook (1990)
Consumer's satisfaction/dissatisfaction response and repurchase intention	By using factor analysis have found emotional items to load on two factors: positive affect and negative affect	Oliver(1994,2010), Westbrook (1987)

Voice – According to Rogers and Williams (1990), consumer complaint behaviour is defined as the group of all responses depicted by consumers whether behavioural or non-

behavioural in responding to their negative perception of a dissatisfying event. The concept gained importance with the typology given by Hirschman (1970), which classified complaint actions into three categories, “exit”, “voice” and “loyalty”. This model was further modified by Rusbult and colleagues (1982), by including neglect as an additional response to dissatisfaction, which indicates to passively letting a relationship deteriorate. Day and Landon (1977), divided consumers into two categories, those who will “take some action”(public such as direct redress seeking, legal action or complaining to a private agency; and private action such as boycotting and warn friends and relatives), and those who will “take no action” (forgetting). On the other hand, Singh (1988) categorized the complaining behaviour of consumers into three types: voice (redress seeking complaint), private (word-of-mouth) and third-party action (legal action/consumer agency). However, consumer complaining behaviour has been depicted as a dynamic process by Blodgett, et al. (1994), representing it like a link of several events in the form of decision tree. Besides, the study by Ro (2007) identified two more complaining responses under “voice” action, that is, “friendly complaint” and “opportunism”. A friendly complaint is described as a form of constructive advice given to resolve the trouble and is similar to “considerate voice” identified by Hagedoorn et al. (1999). Opportunism is exaggerating some facts of the problem with an intention to gain some benefits (Ping, 1993) or to take advantage of the service provider’s fault (Van Kenhove et al., 2003).

Consumer complaining behaviour could be conceptualized and measured as an eight-dimensional construct entailing redress-seeking complaint, friendly complaint, opportunism, third-party complaint, word-of-mouth complaint, switching, loyalty and neglect (Kaur and Sharma, 2015). Therefore, this study depends on the survey data-based approach, use the traditional means of pencil and paper questionnaires to measure the consumer grudgeholding voice based on three items, complaining to the source of offence negative word-of-mouth and the range of people who have been told following Aron et al (2007) asking the consumers these two questions:

- Have you told anyone at the company or organization about the incident?
- Have you told anyone else who does not work at the company or organization about the incident?
- How many people did you tell?

Table 4.8: Consumer's voice measure in Literature

Voice (complaint and negative word-of-mouth) measure	Source
<p>Take no action or take some actions like public and private</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public action (seeking redress directly, legal action, complain to private agency). • Private action (boycott seller or manufacturers, warn friends and relatives). 	Day and Landon (1977b)
<p>the probability of future complaint (complaint intention)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • private response(word-of-mouth) • voice response (seek redress from the seller) • Third party response (take legal action) 	Singh (1988); Zeithaml et al. (1996); Yavas et al. (1997)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have you told anyone at the company or organization about the incident? • Have you told anyone else who does not work at the company or organization about the incident? • How many people did you tell? 1, (2 – 4), (5 – 7), (8 – 10), (11 – 13), (More than 13) <p>Are you still trying to resolve the situation?</p>	Aron et al. (2007)
<p>Visible negative post-purchase behaviours</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would contact the shop to complain; • I would contact the manufacturer to complain; • I would return the product to the shop; and • I would never buy this product again. <p>Non-visible negative post-purchase behaviours</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would tell my friends to avoid this product; • Next time I would switch to a different brand; and • Next time I would switch to a different product 	Butt (2016)

Grievance outcome – It has been measured by marketer response to the complaint which is measured by two dimensions; one is the retailer’s willingness to rectifying the dissatisfaction through several ways (for example, repair of the product, replacement or refund), and another is the extent to which the retailer can facilitate the complaint process (Richins, 1983, Aron et al., 2007).

This research followed the same way in measuring the marketer responses to resolve the situation. Respondents were asked to state if they receive any help and to circle all that apply of the kind of help (Aron et al., 2007):

- “Has anyone working for the company done anything to try to resolve the situation?”;
- “What did they do? Gave refund, offered store or company credit, repaired the product, apologized, gave you extra attention, replaced the product, and something else”.

Table 4.9: Grievance outcome (product/service recovery) measure in Literature

product/service recovery measure	Source
Positive or negative emotion has been studied by Consumer’s satisfaction/dissatisfaction response and repurchase intention	Oliver, (2010);
“Has anyone working for the company done anything to try to resolve the situation?”; “What did they do? Gave refund, offered store or company credit, repaired the product, apologized, gave you extra attention, replaced the product, and something else”.	Aron et al., (2007)

Repurchase intention– is usually measured using one-single item (for example, Hellier et al., 2003; Aron et al., 2007). The research adapted the same scale asking the respondents to identify their certainty of exiting the relationship referring to their intention to purchase or deal again on 5-Likert scale

- How do you feel about purchasing or dealing with that company or organization again?
I definitely won’t, I won’t, maybe I will, maybe I won’t, I will, I definitely will

Table 4.10: Repurchase intention measure in Literature

Measure	Source
What are the chances in ten that you will continue to purchase? how likely is it that you will actually purchase? Do you intend to continue to purchase? Do you intend to continue to contribute? I intend to recommend the Internet shopping site	Hellier et al. (2003); Chiu et al. (2009); Kim et al., (2012)
How do you feel about purchasing at the shop or from the company again? using (I definitely will not purchase– I definitely will) on 7-Likert scale	Aron et al. (2007)

4.11 Methodology for Data Analysis

4.11.1 Introduction

The selection of data analysis methods depends on whether the data will be qualitative or quantitative. Qualitative researchers focus on the knowledge of research setting; avoid distancing themselves from people or events of the study. If the researcher is personally involved in the research, they are sensitive to prior assumptions (Neuman, 2006). However, quantitative researchers endeavour to achieve objectivity and integrity; therefore, they apply objective technology such as precise statements, standards techniques, numerical measurements, statistics and replication (Neuman, 2006). “Ideally, expertise should be mechanised and objectified. grounded in specific techniques This ideal of objectivity is a political as well as scientific one. Objectivity means rule of law, not of men. It implies the subordination of personal interests and prejudices to public standards” (Porter, 1995, p. 774). As the research described in this thesis adopts the positivist research, quantitative research approach has been selected.

4.11.2 Variables

Variables have been categorised into four main categories: interval/ratio variables: these are variables where the distances between the categories are identical across the range of categories; ordinal variables: these are variables whose categories can be rank ordered but the distances between the categories are not equal across the range; nominal/categorical variables: these comprise categories that cannot be rank ordered and finally, dichotomous variables: these contain data that have only two categories (Bryman and Bell, 2003, p. 241).

Two frequently used ways were considered and selected in order to measure attitudes. Likert and semantic differential scaling techniques (Bagozzi et al., 2002). Multivariable indicator or multiple-item measures of concepts, like Likert scale produces strictly ordinal variables (Bryman and Bell, 2003, p. 240). The Likert items ask respondents their degree of agreement or disagreement or whether they are neutral. The semantic differential scaling techniques is good for this research as it captures attitudes along an evaluative continuum of bipolar adjectives such as (much worse-much better, definitely will not-definitely will). After coding the variables, a package as SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) can be used in order to analyse them. A summary of the techniques used for data analysis in the study are presented below: descriptive statistics and correlation analysis.

4.11.3 Classification of statistical techniques

For the analysis of the variables univariate and bivariate analysis were employed. Univariate analysis occurs when one variable is analysed at a time and bivariate analysis occur when two variables at a time are analysed in order to test any interrelationship between variables. Univariate analysis includes frequency tables, diagrams, measures of tendency (i.e. arithmetic mean, median, mode). Popular univariate techniques include chi square, t-test, z-test and GLM (General Linear Mode). The bivariate analysis includes contingency tables, Pearson's r , Spearman's ρ , Phi and Cramer's V (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Multivariate analysis is a statistical method that deals with one or more variables. It can be examined either by defining dependent or independent variables or treating them equally (Bryman and Cramer, 2001). In the research described in this thesis, univariate

techniques of descriptive analysis and GLM analysis and the bivariate technique of correlation analysis were employed for the purpose of the undergoing study.

4.11.4 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive analysis is a univariate analysis which consists of frequency tables, diagrams, measures of central tendency (arithmetic mean, median, and mode) and measures of dispersion (Bryman and Bell, 2003).

4.11.5 Pearson's Chi-square test

There are two main types of chi-square test. The chi-square test for goodness of fit applies to the analysis of a single categorical variable, and the chi-square test for independence or relatedness applies to the analysis of the relationship between two categorical variables (Coakes, 2013, p.161).

Conducting Chi-square test requires considering three assumptions that are summarised by Coakes (2013, p. 161-162):

- Random sampling: Observations have to be randomly sampled from the population of all possible observations.
- Independence of observations: A different subject should generate each observation and no subject is counted twice.
- Size of expected frequencies: when the number of cells is less than ten and particularly when the total sample size is small, the lowest expected frequency required for a chi-square test is five. However the observed frequencies can be any value, including zero.

4.11.6 Correlation analysis

It examines the relationships between variables describing the direction and degree of association between them. A correlation matrix includes the values of the correlation coefficients for the variables involved (Robson, 2002). A correlation is very low if the coefficient has a value under 0.20, low between 0.21 and 0.40, moderate between 0.41

and 0.70, high between 0.71 and 0.91 and very high if it is over 0.91 (Pfeifer, 2000). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is used in order to examine the strength of a correlation and whether is appropriate to proceed toward subsequent analysis.

4.11.7 Concluding remarks

In this chapter, the research approach followed in the study was described and explained. The use of quantitative techniques: self-administered questionnaires, and analysing the data using positivism theory which will enable the data to be conceptualised. The survey methodology and the proposed data collection methods have been analysed in the lights of their limitations. Being aware of the limitations and how they can affect the undertaken study is likely to increase the validity and reliability of the research. The following chapter will present the descriptive findings of the study.

Usable surveys were obtained from 786 undergraduates and postgraduates students whose age groups range from 18 to 39 (the majority 61.6% are between 18 and 20, 29.4% are between 21 and 29, 9% are between 30 and 39). Approximately 32.44 percent (255) of the respondents (786) stated that they had held at one time or currently hold a grudge against a company or organization. More than 20% out of them are males, and 12% are females. However, the percent of grudgeholders to non-grudgeholders of males is 46.64%. Whereas, the percent of female grudgeholders to non-grudgeholders is 50%.

Table 4.11: Grudgeholders versus non-grudgeholders

	Non-grudgeholders		Grudgeholders	
	Frequency	percent	Frequency	Percent
Females	188	35.4	95	37.3
Males	343	64.6	160	62.7
Total	531	100.0	255	100.0

The survey instrument consisted of various closed and open-ended questions. Likert-type scales are good for this research to get and evaluate respondents' opinions regarding their bad experience that drive them to the grudgeholding issue. The survey data were subsequently edited, coded and entered in SPSS 20 for analysis.

Chapter 5 : Research Findings

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an account of in depth findings generated from the empirical analysis detailed in Chapter 4. Descriptive statistics such as, averages and measures of central tendency and dispersion were used in order to understand the structure of the data and to identify potential problems with the misconception of data (Peacock, 1998). However, Bailey (1982, p. 39) stated that: “In a descriptive study the researcher may be more concerned with describing the extent of occurrence of a phenomenon than with studying its correlates. In such a case univariate presentation is in order”.

Results and findings are detailed and discussed on a construct-by-construct basis. The descriptive results are presented in the following order:

5.2 Cost of Products and Services Responsible for the Grudge

Participants reported a wide variety of negative product and service experiences. Reported service failures fell in the categories of personal transportation (by train, bus, airplane, or taxi), telecommunication, stores, restaurants, education, banking and insurance, repair and utility services, travel agencies, and local government.

As is evident in Table 5.1; Figure 5.1, results showed that a grudge could stem from a negative experience involved with cheap as well as expensive items. In addition, less expensive products or services are largely responsible for the formation of grudge. Products or services costing £50 or less are responsible for over half of the grudges identified through participants responses. Much of this can be explained by the fact that traditional undergraduate students are not in the life stage in which large incomes and expenditures are common.

The research found that grudge happens regardless of the cost of a product or a service. However, less expensive products or services (such as doughnut, clothing items or poor service at a restaurant) are largely responsible for formation of grudges for both females and males. It is evident that products and services with a cost between £26 and £50 scored the highest percent of grudge for both females and males (7.1% for females, 8.6% for males) followed by products and services with a cost between £1 and £12. The relatively expensive products/services, which cost more than £100 and less than £500,

create a small grudgeholding percentage. This could also have to do with the fact that individuals of this age group are inclined to make more low cost of unplanned buying.

Therefore, nearly half of the participants state that they currently hold, or have held a grudge, and in most cases, these grudges entails relatively low-cost products or services.

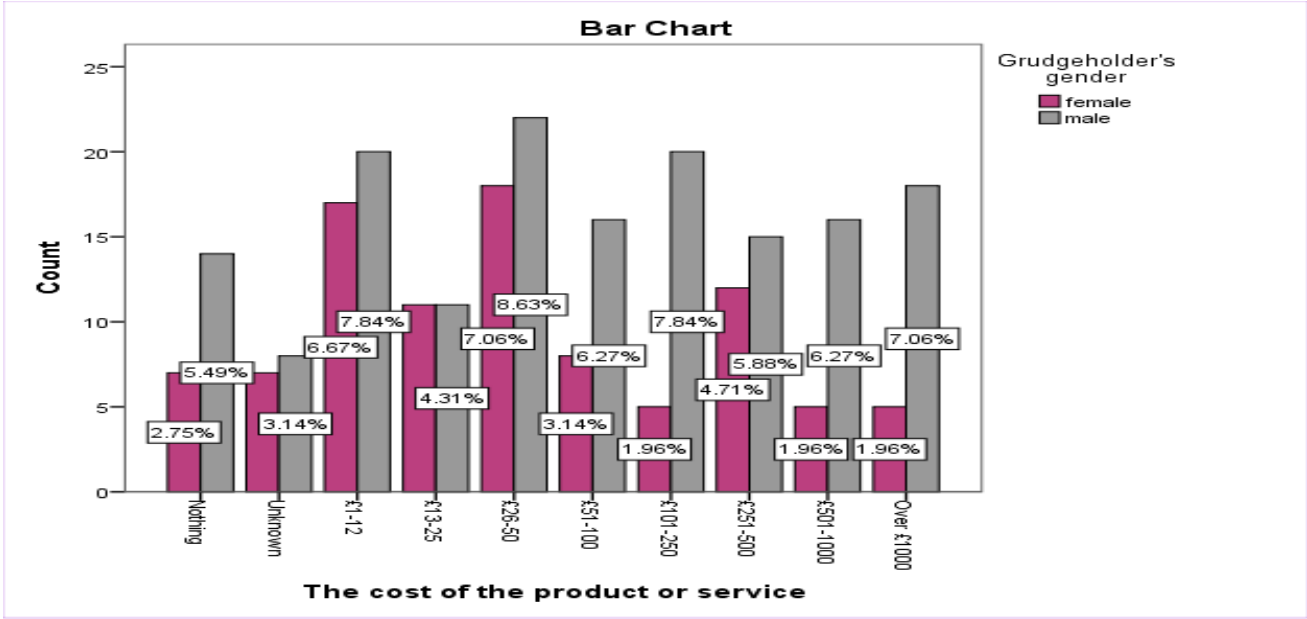


Figure 5.1: Cost of the products or services responsible for grudge, by gender

The majority of females held grudge when they spent £50 and less. There were 7.4% of females did not know the cost but they hold grudge and 7.4% held a grudge even though the cost was nothing. Out of the females who held grudge against a company/organization 17.9% spent their money on products and services cost £1-12, 11.6% on products and services cost £13-25. The following summarized the (percent-cost): 18.9%~£26-50, 8.4%~£51-100, 5.3%~101-250, 12.6%~£251-500, 5.3%~£501-1000 and 5.3% spent on products and services over £1000.

Males held grudge when spending nothing, unknown cost and from £1 to £1000 and more. The following are the details of the percentages of the costs per category 12.5% ~£1-12, 6.9%~£13-25 13.8%~£26-50, 10.0%~£51-100, 12.5%~101-250, 9.4%~£251-500, 10.0%~£501-1000 and 11.2% over £1000.

In general, all respondents held grudge when they experience an offence by a company or an organization on purchasing and patronizing products and services of all price categories recording the highest percentage on prices between £26 and £50 followed by prices between £1 and £12. The surprising result that 8%of respondents reported that they held grudge on one time without paying a single penny (see Table 5.1)

Table 5.1: Cost of the products or services responsible for grudge, by gender

		The cost of the product or service									Total	
		Nothing	Unknown	£1-12	£13-25	£26-50	£51-100	£101-250	£251-500	£501-1000		Over £1000
female	Count	7	7	17	11	18	8	5	12	5	5	95
	% within gender	7.4%	7.4%	17.9%	11.6%	18.9%	8.4%	5.3%	12.6%	5.3%	5.3%	100%
	% within cost	33.3%	46.7%	45.9%	50.0%	45.0%	33.3%	20.0%	44.4%	23.8%	21.7%	37.3%
	% of total	2.7%	2.7%	6.7%	4.3%	7.1%	3.1%	2.0%	4.7%	2.0%	2.0%	37.3%
male	Count	14	8	20	11	22	16	20	15	16	18	160
	% within gender	8.8%	5.0%	12.5%	6.9%	13.8%	10.0%	12.5%	9.4%	10.0%	11.2%	100%
	% within cost	66.7%	53.3%	54.1%	50.0%	55.0%	66.7%	80.0%	55.6%	76.2%	78.3%	62.7%
	% of total	5.5%	3.1%	7.8%	4.3%	8.6%	6.3%	7.8%	5.9%	6.3%	7.1%	62.7%
Total	Count	21	15	37	22	40	24	25	27	21	23	255
	% within gender	8.2%	5.9%	14.5%	8.6%	15.7%	9.4%	9.8%	10.6%	8.2%	9.0%	100%
	% within cost	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
	% of total	8.2%	5.9%	14.5%	8.6%	15.7%	9.4%	9.8%	10.6%	8.2%	9.0%	100%

However, research calculates Pearson chi-square statistic test to identify the association between gender of the grudgeholders and the cost of the products and services that cause the grudge. The result showed that there is no significant association between gender and cost, which means that the two variables are independent and males and females do not differ significantly on how much they spend (Chi-square=12.389 df=9, $P>.05$). It means that the null hypothesis of no difference between males and females in terms of holding grudge due to the costs is supported and therefore the alternative hypothesis H8b (that is, costs affect males' orientation of holding grudge more than females), is rejected. See Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Pearson Chi-square test

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.389 ^a	9	.192
Likelihood Ratio	12.885	9	.168
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.262	1	.039
N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.59.

Table 5.3: Symmetric Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Ordinal by Ordinal Spearman Correlation	.132	.061	2.118	.035 ^c
N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

5.3 Grudgeholding emotions results

The results showed the most frequently repeated emotions by grudgeholding consumers which characterize and signify the grudgeholding consumer from the dissatisfying consumer. Figure 5.2 reveals that the majority of grudgeholders reported their prominent emotions of anger, disappointment and cheated as the most occurring comparing to those who expressed their emotions of being disgusted, surprised, afraid and even indifferent.

Calculating the chi-square test for goodness of fit shows that there are significant differences in the frequency of experiencing each emotion (which are, angry, disgusted, shocked, surprised, afraid, fearful, humiliated, cheated, disappointed, and indifferent). The majority of the respondents described their negative emotions by feeling angry, disappointed and cheated. Some reported disgusted, shocked, and surprised. Few expressed their experience of humiliation and fear. However, just three respondents were indifferent.

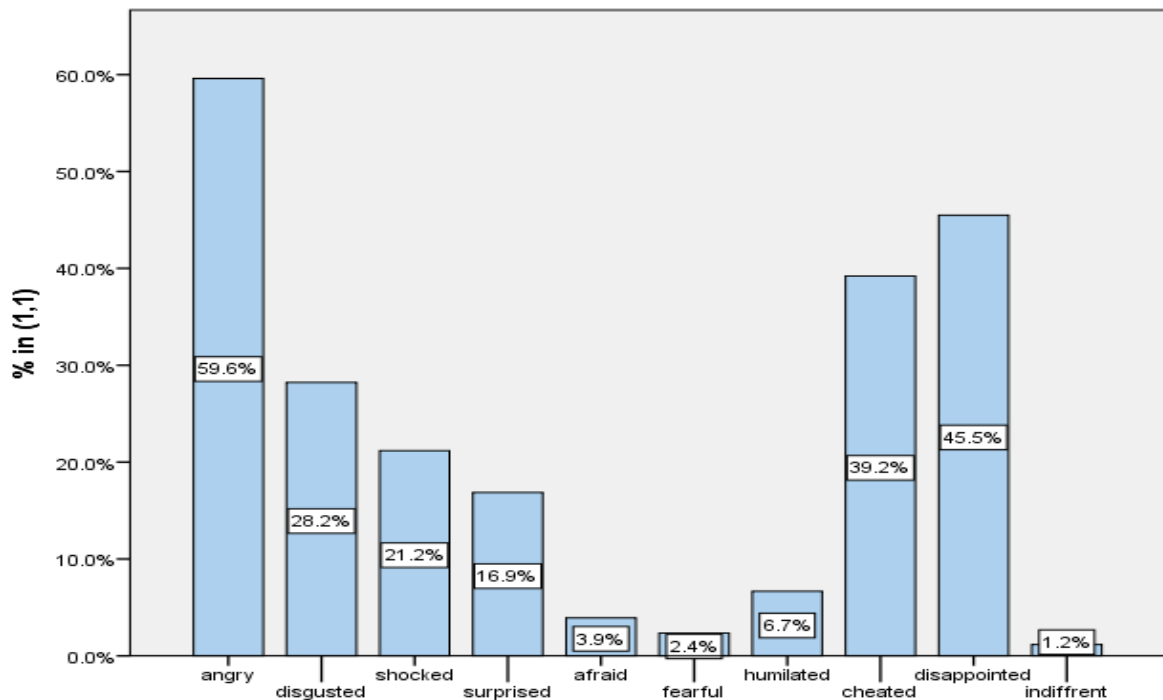


Figure 5.2: Consumer grudgeholding emotions

As it is evident from Table 5.4, the percentages of most frequent emotions which are experienced by consumers, who are categorized as grudgeholders are as follows: 59.6% for anger, 45.5% for disappointed, 39.2% for cheated, 28.2% for disgusted, 21.2% for shocked, 16.9% for surprised, 6.7% for humiliated, 3.9% afraid, 2.4% fearful, and 1.2% who stated that they are indifferent. Consumers in the sample experienced variety of negative emotions (such as anger, disappointment, feeling betrayed and cheated, disgusted, shocked, surprised and feeling of fear) because they appraised the situation differently. Therefore, H3a: grudgeholders experience various negative emotions (anger, disgust, betrayal, disappointed, etcetera) because they appraise the negative events differently; is supported.

The majority got angry for being offended and not getting what they wanted. This finding supports H3b (that is, anger is the most prominent emotion of grudgeholders, which trigger their confronting response).

Table 5.4: Emotions frequencies

	Responses		Percent of Cases	
	N	Percent		
Grudgeholders' emotions	Angry	152	26.5%	59.6%
	Disgusted	72	12.6%	28.2%
	Shocked	54	9.4%	21.2%
	surprised	43	7.5%	16.9%
	Afraid	10	1.7%	3.9%
	Fearful	6	1.0%	2.4%
	humiliated	17	3.0%	6.7%
	cheated	100	17.5%	39.2%
	disappointed	116	20.2%	45.5%
	indifferent	3	0.5%	1.2%
Total		573	100.0%	224.7%

5.3.1 Consumer grudgeholding emotions and complaining

The results show that more than 70% of the grudgeholding consumers complain to the source of offence either a company or an organization supporting H6b: Grudgeholders are inclined to complain about their negative experience. There were 63.2% of complainers angry. There were 29.2% complainers who felt disgusted. Almost 24% of complainers were shocked. Nearly 15% of complainers were surprised. The consumers who reported their fear represented less than 5%. There were 7.0% humiliated, 42.7% cheated, 43.8% disappointed, and 1.1% indifferent. Out of all the grudgeholders who complained there are 45.9% who experience anger, 21.2% who experience disgusted, 17.3% who experience shocked, 10.6% are surprised, 2.4% are afraid, 1.2% reported fear, 5.1% were humiliated, 31.0% were disappointed, 31.8% stated that they felt cheated and 0.8% are indifferent. This support Hypothesis H6a that is: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (complaining) is triggered by the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (for example, anger, disgust, disappointed, humiliated, surprised, etcetera.).

The following results indicate to the positive relationship between each emotion and complaining behaviour. Grudgeholders experience several emotions categorized by negative valence mostly. These negative emotions evoke their coping responses such as complaining behaviour.

Table 5.5: Emotion role in complaining behaviour

		Grudgeholders' emotions										Total	
		angry	disgusted	shocked	surprised	afraid	fearful	humiliated	cheated	disappointed	indifferent		
Complaining to the company/organization	Count	35	18	10	16	4	3	4	21	35	1	70	
	No	% within complaining	50.0%	25.7%	14.3%	22.9%	5.7%	4.3%	5.7%	30.0%	50.0%	1.4%	
		% within Emotions	23.0%	25.0%	18.5%	37.2%	40.0%	50.0%	23.5%	21.0%	30.2%	33.3%	
		% of Total	13.7%	7.1%	3.9%	6.3%	1.6%	1.2%	1.6%	8.2%	13.7%	0.4%	27.5%
		Count	117	54	44	27	6	3	13	79	81	2	185
	Yes	% within complaining	63.2%	29.2%	23.8%	14.6%	3.2%	1.6%	7.0%	42.7%	43.8%	1.1%	
		% within Emotions	77.0%	75.0%	81.5%	62.8%	60.0%	50.0%	76.5%	79.0%	69.8%	66.7%	
		% of Total	45.9%	21.2%	17.3%	10.6%	2.4%	1.2%	5.1%	31.0%	31.8%	0.8%	72.5%
Total	Count	152	72	54	43	10	6	17	100	116	3	255	
	% of Total	59.6%	28.2%	21.2%	16.9%	3.9%	2.4%	6.7%	39.2%	45.5%	1.2%	100.0%	

More than 70% still hold a grudge after 6 months and more of the offensive incident. 63.4% of the grudgeholders who reported their enduring and negative feeling were angry, 32.8% were disgusted, 22.0% were shocked, 16.1% were surprised, 4.8% were afraid, 3.2% reported the situation as fearful, 7.5% are humiliated, 45.2% said that they have been cheated, 45.7% were disappointed and 1.6% stated that they were indifferent.

Table 5.6: Emotions and holding on to grudge

		Grudgeholders' emotions										Total
		angry	disgusted	shocked	surprised	afraid	fearful	humiliated	cheated	disappointed	indifferent	
Grudgeholding lasting	Count	34	11	13	13	1	0	3	16	31	0	69
	No											
	% within Lasting	49.3%	15.9%	18.8%	18.8%	1.4%	0.0%	4.3%	23.2%	44.9%	0.0%	
	% within Emotions	22.4%	15.3%	24.1%	30.2%	10.0%	0.0%	17.6%	16.0%	26.7%	0.0%	
	% of Total	13.3%	4.3%	5.1%	5.1%	0.4%	0.0%	1.2%	6.3%	12.2%	0.0%	27.1%
	Yes											
	Count	118	61	41	30	9	6	14	84	85	3	186
% within Lasting	63.4%	32.8%	22.0%	16.1%	4.8%	3.2%	7.5%	45.2%	45.7%	1.6%		
% within Emotions	77.6%	84.7%	75.9%	69.8%	90.0%	100.0%	82.4%	84.0%	73.3%	100.0%		
% of Total	46.3%	23.9%	16.1%	11.8%	3.5%	2.4%	5.5%	32.9%	33.3%	1.2%	72.9%	
Total	Count	152	72	54	43	10	6	17	100	116	3	255
	% of Total	59.6%	28.2%	21.2%	16.9%	3.9%	2.4%	6.7%	39.2%	45.5%	1.2%	100.0%

Anger and complaining— Results indicated that more than 70% of the angry category complained as a result to the offence with no difference between angry males and angry females. Both angry females and angry males are more likely to complain. Results showed that 80% of angry females complained and 75% of angry males complained. Furthermore, some of the grudgeholders complained triggered by other emotions different from anger. (See Table 5.7)

Table 5.7: Anger versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	10	25	35
		% within angry	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	12	48	60
		% within angry	20.0%	80.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	22	73	95
		% within angry	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	25	43	68
		% within angry	36.8%	63.2%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	23	69	92
		% within angry	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	48	112	160
		% within angry	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	35	68	103
		% within angry	34.0%	66.0%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	35	117	152
		% within angry	23.0%	77.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	70	185	255
		% within angry	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

Continuity Correction is used here instead of Chi-square since it is 2x2 Table and there is kind of agreement on the problems arise with small tables. Therefore, results in Table 5.8 showed that there is no significant difference or an association between the anger felt by consumers and their likelihood of complaining to the source of offence. For females, there is no sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis of that the two variables: anger and complaining are independence. Hence, there is no significant relationship between anger and complaining for females (Continuity Correction=.495, df=1, p>.05). For males, there is no significant association between anger and complaining as well (Continuity

Correction=2.047, df=1, p>.05). Therefore, H6a: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (complaining) is triggered by the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (for example, anger, disgust, disappointed, humiliated, surprised, etcetera.) is supported in terms of the emotion anger. Anger triggers the complaining behaviour, but it is not enough to cause the complaining behaviour. Yet, the hypothesis H9a (that is, there are gender differences when complaining to the company/organization about bad experience) is rejected for angry consumers.

Table 5.8: Chi-square tests for the relationship between anger and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.913 ^c	1	.339		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.495	1	.482		
	Likelihood Ratio	.897	1	.344		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.450	.239
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.903	1	.342		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	2.577 ^d	1	.108		
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.047	1	.152		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.561	1	.110		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.119	.077
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.561	1	.110		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	3.699 ^a	1	.054		
	Continuity Correction ^b	3.170	1	.075		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.660	1	.056		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.063	.038
	Linear-by-Linear Association	3.685	1	.055		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 28.27.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.11.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.40.

Disgust and complaining— Feeling disgusted is an emotion experienced by some customers who had bad experiences especially when dining in some restaurants. More than 70% of those who felt disgusted reported how that they complained. They were 84% of females who felt disgusted and complained, and 70.2% of males who were disgusted and complained (see Table 5.9)

Table 5.9: Disgust versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	18	52	70
		% within disgusted	25.7%	74.3%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	4	21	25
		% within disgusted	16.0%	84.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	22	73	95
		% within disgusted	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	34	79	113
		% within disgusted	30.1%	69.9%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	14	33	47
		% within disgusted	29.8%	70.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	48	112	160
		% within disgusted	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	52	131	183
		% within disgusted	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	18	54	72
		% within disgusted	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	70	185	255
		% within disgusted	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

However, feeling disgusted or not per se did not affect the grudgeholders propensity to complain. In addition, the majority of them complained regardless of being disgusted or not. It indicates as revealed from Table 5.10 that there is no significant relationship between feeling disgusted and complaining; the two variables are independent not dependent on each other. For females, there is no significant relationship between being disgusted and the complaining behaviour (Continuity Correction = .507, df=1, P > .05). For males, both variables are independent from each other which means the null hypothesis is accepted (Continuity Correction = .000, df=1, P > .05). Therefore, the hypothesis (H6a) is

supported in terms of the emotion disgust that is disgust triggers the complaining behaviour but it is not enough to activate the action of complaining. Furthermore, the hypothesis H9a (that is, there are gender differences when complaining to the company/organization about bad experience) is rejected for disgusted consumers.

Table 5.10: Chi-square tests for the relationship between disgust and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.977 ^c	1	.323	.414	.242
	Continuity Correction ^b	.507	1	.476		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.034	1	.309		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.967	1	.326		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.001 ^d	1	.970	1.000	.564
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.001	1	.970		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.001	1	.970		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.303 ^a	1	.582	.642	.350
	Continuity Correction ^b	.155	1	.693		
	Likelihood Ratio	.306	1	.580		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.301	1	.583		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.76.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.79.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.10.

Socked and complaining— Results in Table 5.11 reveal that not so many have reported their emotions as feeling shocked by the transgression. Only (21.2%) expressed their emotion of being shocked. However, more than 80% of them complained to get rid of their negative feeling. There were 88.2% females who were shocked and complained, and 78.4% of males who were shocked and complained. However, more than 70% who did not experience this emotion complained as well.

Table 5.11: Shocked versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	20	58	78
		% within shocked	25.6%	74.4%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	2	15	17
		% within shocked	11.8%	88.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	22	73	95
		% within shocked	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	40	83	123
		% within shocked	32.5%	67.5%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	8	29	37
		% within shocked	21.6%	78.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	48	112	160
		% within shocked	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	60	141	201
		% within shocked	29.9%	70.1%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	10	44	54
		% within shocked	18.5%	81.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	70	185	255
		% within shocked	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

Hence, there is no significant relationship between feeling shocked per se and complaining, as Table 5.12 reveals for both males and females. For females, Fisher's Exact Test calculates the association significance because the assumption is violated and it is 2x2 table, $P > .05$). For males, (Continuity Correction = 1.132, $df=1$, $P > .05$). Hence, the hypothesis (H6a) is supported in terms of feeling shocked that is feeling shocked triggers the complaining behaviour but it is not enough to activate the action of complaining. Furthermore, the hypothesis H9a (that is, there are gender differences when complaining to the company/organization about bad experience) is rejected for shocked consumers.

Table 5.12: Chi-square tests for the relationship between feeling shocked and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	1.510 ^c	1	.219	.343	.183
	Continuity Correction ^b	.831	1	.362		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.703	1	.192		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.494	1	.222		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.609 ^d	1	.205	.227	.143
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.132	1	.287		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.683	1	.194		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.599	1	.206		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	2.745 ^a	1	.098	.122	.066
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.205	1	.138		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.917	1	.088		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.734	1	.098		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.82.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.94.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.10.

Surprise and complaining— Some customers expressed their surprise regarding the negative experience they faced. 16.9% ticked the box of being surprised and 62.8% of them complained as a response to this emotion. There were 77.8% females who were surprised and complained, and 58.8% of males who were surprised and complained (Table 5.13).

Table 5.13: Surprise versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	20	66	86
		% within surprised	23.3%	76.7%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	2	7	9
		% within surprised	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within surprised	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	34	92	126
		% within surprised	27.0%	73.0%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	14	20	34
		% within surprised	41.2%	58.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	48	112	160
		% within surprised	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	54	158	212
		% within surprised	25.5%	74.5%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	16	27	43
		% within surprised	37.2%	62.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	70	185	255
		% within surprised	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

Yet, results showed that there is no significant association between being surprised and complaining. For females, Fisher's Exact Test calculates the association significance because the assumption is violated and it is 2x2 table, $P > .05$). For males, (Continuity Correction = 1.937, $df=1$, $P > .05$). It is therefore concluded that the null hypothesis should be accepted. There is not enough evidence to suggest that any difference between the groups is for any reason other than chance (see Table 5.14). Therefore, the respondents' gender does not have an impact on the relationship between being surprised and complain rejecting H9a.

Table 5.14: Chi-square tests for the relationship between feeling surprised and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.005 ^c	1	.944	1.000	.655
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.005	1	.944		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.005	1	.945		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	2.568 ^d	1	.109	.140	.084
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.937	1	.164		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.466	1	.116		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.552	1	.110		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	2.473 ^a	1	.116	.134	.085
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.919	1	.166		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.356	1	.125		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.463	1	.117		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.80.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.08.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.20.

Afraid and complaining— It is not likely to feel afraid when you are a grudgeholding consumer. Table 5.15 revealed that minority of 3.9% of the grudgeholders reported their emotion as being afraid of the whole experience, and more than half of them complained. There were 66.7% females who reported their feeling of being afraid and complained in response, and 57.1% males who were afraid and complained.

Table 5.15: Afraid versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total	
			No	Yes		
female	not ticked	Count	21	71	92	
		% within afraid	22.8%	77.2%	100.0%	
	ticked	Count	1	2	3	
		% within afraid	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%	
	Total		Count	22	73	95
			% within afraid	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	45	108	153	
		% within afraid	29.4%	70.6%	100.0%	
	ticked	Count	3	4	7	
		% within afraid	42.9%	57.1%	100.0%	
	Total		Count	48	112	160
			% within afraid	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	66	179	245	
		% within afraid	26.9%	73.1%	100.0%	
	ticked	Count	4	6	10	
		% within afraid	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%	
	Total		Count	70	185	255
			% within afraid	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

The results indicate that there is no significant association between feeling afraid and complaining. Table 5.16 below indicated to the violation in the assumption caused by several cells which have expected count less than five. Therefore, Fisher Exact Test show that there is not enough evidence to confirm the significant relationship between the two groups ($p>0.05$). Thus in conclusion, the respondents' gender does not have an impact on whether the afraid customers will complain or not. These findings support H6a and reject H9a in terms of studying the emotion, afraid.

Table 5.16: Chi-square tests for the relationship between feeling afraid and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.180 ^c	1	.671	.551	.551
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.166	1	.684		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.178	1	.673		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.576 ^d	1	.448	.429	.351
	Continuity Correction ^b	.114	1	.736		
	Likelihood Ratio	.542	1	.462		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.573	1	.449		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.823 ^a	1	.364	.469	.281
	Continuity Correction ^b	.298	1	.585		
	Likelihood Ratio	.765	1	.382		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.820	1	.365		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.75.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .69.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.10.

Fear and complaining— Table 5.17 indicates to the small percent of the grudgeholders who reported their fear. Only 6 individuals described the negative experience as fearful and half of them complained.

Table 5.17: Fearful versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	22	72	94
		% within fearful	23.4%	76.6%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	0	1	1
		% within fearful	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within fearful	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	45	110	155
		% within fearful	29.0%	71.0%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	3	2	5
		% within fearful	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	48	112	160
		% within fearful	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	67	182	249
		% within fearful	26.9%	73.1%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	3	3	6
		% within fearful	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	70	185	255
		% within fearful	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

The table below indicated to the violation in the assumption caused by the cells, which have expected count less than five. Therefore, Fisher Exact Test show that there is not enough evidence to confirm the significant relationship between the feeling of fear and complaining to the source of aggression for both males and females ($p>0.05$). Hence, gender does not have an impact on the relationship between the two categories. The results support H6a and reject H9a therefore.

Table 5.18: Chi-square tests for the relationship between fear and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.305 ^c	1	.581	1.000	.768
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.530	1	.467		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.301	1	.583		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	2.212 ^d	1	.137	.160	.160
	Continuity Correction ^b	.983	1	.321		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.990	1	.158		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	2.198	1	.138		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	1.569 ^a	1	.210	.350	.208
	Continuity Correction ^b	.624	1	.430		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.401	1	.236		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.563	1	.211		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.65.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .23.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.50.

Humiliation and complaining— Sometimes, the consumers experience humiliation in accompany with other negative emotions or alone. It is indicated in Table 5.19 that 6.7% of the Grudgeholders reported that they had been humiliated, and more than 70% complained in response. Out of them, there were 87.5% females reported humiliation and complaining response and 66.7% males reported their humiliation and complaining response (Table,5.19)

Table 5.19: Humiliation versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	21	66	87
		% within humiliated	24.1%	75.9%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	1	7	8
		% within humiliated	12.5%	87.5%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within humiliated	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	45	106	151
		% within humiliated	29.8%	70.2%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	3	6	9
		% within humiliated	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Total	Count	48	112	160
		% within humiliated	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	66	172	238
		% within humiliated	27.7%	72.3%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	4	13	17
		% within humiliated	23.5%	76.5%	100.0%
	Total	Count	70	185	255
		% within humiliated	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

Therefore, Fisher Exact Test show that there is not enough evidence to confirm the significant relationship between the feeling humiliated and complaining to the source of humiliation for both males and females ($p > 0.05$). The relationship between humiliation and complaining is not statistically significant for both males and females. Further, gender does not have an impact on the relationship as well. However, this support H6a that the negative emotion “humiliation” triggers the complaining behaviour but does not cause it. Besides, the hypothesis H9a is rejected regarding the negative effect of gender on the relationship which means the null hypothesis is accepted and that humiliated males and females react to the offence similarly by complaining (see Table 5.20).

Table 5.20: Chi-square tests for the relationship between humiliation and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.558 ^c	1	.455	.676	.405
	Continuity Correction ^b	.095	1	.757		
	Likelihood Ratio	.632	1	.427		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.552	1	.458		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.050 ^d	1	.822	1.000	.541
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.050	1	.824		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.050	1	.823		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.141 ^a	1	.708	1.000	.478
	Continuity Correction ^b	.009	1	.925		
	Likelihood Ratio	.145	1	.703		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.140	1	.708		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.67.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.85.

d. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.70.

Feeling cheated and complaining— Some customers expressed how that they felt cheated with 39% of them described their emotion at the time of occurrence by feeling cheated. Nearly 80% of them raised their concerns and complained. There were 83.8% females and 76.2% males who felt cheated and complained.

Table 5.21: Cheated versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	16	42	58
		% within cheated	27.6%	72.4%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	6	31	37
		% within cheated	16.2%	83.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within cheated	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	33	64	97
		% within cheated	34.0%	66.0%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	15	48	63
		% within cheated	23.8%	76.2%	100.0%
	Total	Count	48	112	160
		% within cheated	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	49	106	155
		% within cheated	31.6%	68.4%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	21	79	100
		% within cheated	21.0%	79.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	70	185	255
		% within cheated	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

There is no significant relationship between feeling cheated and complaining within both gender groups. For females, (Continuity Correction=1.064, df=1, $p>0.05$). For males, (Continuity Correction=1.441, df=1, $p>0.05$). Further, gender does not have an impact on the relationship between the two categories complaining when feeling betrayed. However, this support H6a that the negative emotion “cheated” triggers the complaining behaviour but does not cause it. Besides, the hypothesis H9a is rejected. The gender does have a neutral effect on the tendency of the cheated consumers to complain. This means betrayed males and females react to the offence similarly by complaining, see Table 5.22

Table 5.22: Chi-square tests for the relationship between feeling cheated and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	1.641 ^c	1	.200		
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.064	1	.302		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.700	1	.192		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.224	.151
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.624	1	.203		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.896 ^d	1	.168		
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.441	1	.230		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.931	1	.165		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.217	.114
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.884	1	.170		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	3.438 ^a	1	.064		
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.925	1	.087		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.518	1	.061		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.084	.043
	Linear-by-Linear Association	3.424	1	.064		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.45.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.57.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.90.

Disappointment and complaining— 45.5% of the grudgeholders reported how they were disappointed by what they have received, and nearly 70% preferred not to stay silent or just exiting the relationship but to complain and show grievance. There were 70.5% disappointed females who complained and 69.4 % disappointed males who complained (Table 5.23)

Table 5.23: Disappointed versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	9	42	51
		% within disappointed	17.6%	82.4%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	13	31	44
		% within disappointed	29.5%	70.5%	100.0%
Total		Count	22	73	95
		% within disappointed	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	26	62	88
		% within disappointed	29.5%	70.5%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	22	50	72
		% within disappointed	30.6%	69.4%	100.0%
Total		Count	48	112	160
		% within disappointed	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	35	104	139
		% within disappointed	25.2%	74.8%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	35	81	116
		% within disappointed	30.2%	69.8%	100.0%
Total		Count	70	185	255
		% within disappointed	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

Yet, results showed that being disappointed may motivate the customers to complain, but it is not the real and only cause for responding to the offence in such way. No significant association between disappointed emotional experience and complaining exists in accordance to the following Table 5.24. For females group, (Continuity Correction=1.270, df=1, $p>0.05$). For males, (Continuity Correction=.000, df=1, $p>0.05$). Thus, gender does not affect the relationship between the two categories of feeling disappointed and complaining. Therefore, the results support H6a that the negative emotion “disappointed” triggers the complaining behaviour but does not cause it. Besides, the hypothesis H9a is rejected. The gender does not have a neutral effect on the tendency of the disappointed consumers to complain. This means disappointed males and females react to the offence similarly by complaining.

Table 5.24: Chi-square tests for the relationship between disappointment and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	1.879 ^c	1	.170		
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.270	1	.260		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.879	1	.170		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.224	.130
	Linear-by-Linear Association	1.859	1	.173		
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.019 ^d	1	.890		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.019	1	.890		
	Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.513
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.019	1	.890		
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.791 ^a	1	.374		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.561	1	.454		
	Likelihood Ratio	.790	1	.374		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.400	.227
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.788	1	.375		
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 31.84.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.19.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 21.60.

Indifference and complaining— The only emotional response that demonstrated the case of departing the self from the situation is reporting the indifference feeling. Only one percent showed no specific emotion in compatible with their bad experiences (Table 5.25).

Table 5.25: Indifferent versus complaining to the company/organization

Grudgeholder's gender			Complaining to the company/organization		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	22	73	95
		% within indifferent	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	22	73	95
		% within indifferent	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	47	110	157
		% within indifferent	29.9%	70.1%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	1	2	3
		% within indifferent	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	not ticked	Count	48	112	160
		% within indifferent	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	69	183	252
		% within indifferent	27.4%	72.6%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	1	2	3
		% within indifferent	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Total	Count	70	185	255
		% within indifferent	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

The table below indicated to the violation in the assumption caused by two cells which have expected count less than five. Therefore, Fisher Exact Test show that there is not enough evidence to confirm the significant relationship between the two groups ($p > 0.05$). Yet also, gender does not affect the association between feeling indifference and complaining.

Table 5.26: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between disappointment and complaining

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	. ^c				
	N of Valid Cases	95				
	Pearson Chi-Square	.016 ^d	1	.899		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.016	1	.900		
	Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.660
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.016	1	.899		
Male	N of Valid Cases	160				
	Pearson Chi-Square	.053 ^a	1	.818		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.051	1	.822		
	Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.620
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.053	1	.819		
Total	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .82.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. No statistics are computed because indifferent is a constant.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .90.

5.3.2 Consumer grudgeholding emotions and word-of-mouth

It seems that most grudgeholders do not just complain to the source of aggression to sort their grievance out, but they tell others like family and friends about their bad experience. More than three quarters of the grudgeholders spread the negative word-of-mouth in response to the negative experience they faced.

Same as many grudgeholders complained to the company or to the organization responsible for grudge, more than 70% told others like family and friends. 63.8% of those who told others about their bad experience were angry, 27.6% were disgusted, 20.9% were shocked, 15.3% were surprised, 2.6% said they were afraid, 1.5% found the experience fearful, 5.1% felt humiliated, 39.8% reported that they were cheated, 44.9% experienced disappointment, and just 1.0% of those who reported their indifference spread the word.

Therefore, the hypothesis H5b (Grudgeholders are inclined to tell others about their negative experience) is supported because more than three quarters of the grudgeholding consumers reported their coping responses of telling others about the incident.

Table 5.27 indicates that consumers are inclined to tell others about their negative experience when they are angry, disappointed, cheated, disgusted, shocked and surprised. However, fear does not provoke the response of telling others as much as other emotions

Table 5.27: Emotion role in spreading negative word-of-mouth

		Grudgeholders' emotions										Total
		angry	disgusted	shocked	surprised	afraid	fearful	humiliated	cheated	disappointed	indifferent	
Have you told others from outside the company/organization?	Count	27	18	13	13	5	3	7	22	28	1	59
	No WOM	45.8%	30.5%	22.0%	22.0%	8.5%	5.1%	11.9%	37.3%	47.5%	1.7%	
	No Emotions	17.8%	25.0%	24.1%	30.2%	50.0%	50.0%	41.2%	22.0%	24.1%	33.3%	
	% of Total	10.6%	7.1%	5.1%	5.1%	2.0%	1.2%	2.7%	8.6%	11.0%	0.4%	23.1%
	Yes Count	125	54	41	30	5	3	10	78	88	2	196
	Yes WOM	63.8%	27.6%	20.9%	15.3%	2.6%	1.5%	5.1%	39.8%	44.9%	1.0%	
	Yes Emotions	82.2%	75.0%	75.9%	69.8%	50.0%	50.0%	58.8%	78.0%	75.9%	66.7%	
	% of Total	49.0%	21.2%	16.1%	11.8%	2.0%	1.2%	3.9%	30.6%	34.5%	0.8%	76.9%
Total	Count	152	72	54	43	10	6	17	100	116	3	255
	% of Total	59.6%	28.2%	21.2%	16.9%	3.9%	2.4%	6.7%	39.2%	45.5%	1.2%	100.0%

Anger and word-of-mouth— As Table 5.28 revealed, more than 80% of the angry consumers spread the negative word to others. 85.0% females and 80.4% males were angry and expressed their concerns by telling others like family and friends.

Table 5.28: Anger versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			Word-of-mouth		Total
			no	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	13	22	35
		% within angry	37.1%	62.9%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	9	51	60
		% within angry	15.0%	85.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within angry	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	19	49	68
		% within angry	27.9%	72.1%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	18	74	92
		% within angry	19.6%	80.4%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within angry	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	32	71	103
		% within angry	31.1%	68.9%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	27	125	152
		% within angry	17.8%	82.2%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within angry	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

Results showed that the angry consumers who hold a grudge are inclined to tell others about their bad experiences with companies and organizations. There is strong evidence against the null hypothesis that the two variables are independent from each other. Therefore, there is significant relationship between anger and voicing the words to others according to females (Continuity Correction=4.910, df=1, p<0.05), with small to moderate effect of the association by calculating the size effect of the relationship for small tables Phi=.253 see Table 5.30. On the other hand, there is no significant relationship between the two categories, feeling angry and telling others for males (Continuity Correction=1.108, df=1, p<0.05). When controlling for gender, the relationship is no longer significant. However, a partial association remains for females respondents. In conclusion, the respondent gender does have an impact on feeling angry and spreading the word to others Angry females spread the word more than angry males (see Table 5.29).

Table 5.29: Chi-square tests for the relationship between anger and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	6.091 ^c	1	.014		
	Continuity Correction ^b	4.910	1	.027		
	Likelihood Ratio	5.919	1	.015		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.022	.014
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.543 ^d	1	.214		
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.108	1	.293		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.530	1	.216		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.256	.146
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	6.111 ^a	1	.013		
	Continuity Correction ^b	5.386	1	.020		
	Likelihood Ratio	6.021	1	.014		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.016	.011
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.83.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.11.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.73.

Table 5.30: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between anger and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Female	Phi	.253			.014
	Nominal byNominal Cramer's V	.253			.014
	ContingencyCoefficient	.245			.014
	Ordinal by Ordinal Spearman Correlation	.253	.104	2.524	.013 ^c
	N of Valid Cases	95			
Male	Phi	.098			.214
	Nominal byNominal Cramer's V	.098			.214
	ContingencyCoefficient	.098			.214
	Ordinal by Ordinal Spearman Correlation	.098	.080	1.240	.217 ^c
	N of Valid Cases	160			
Total	Phi	.155			.013
	Nominal byNominal Cramer's V	.155			.013
	ContingencyCoefficient	.153			.013
	Ordinal by Ordinal Spearman Correlation	.155	.063	2.492	.013 ^c
	N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Disgust and *word-of-mouth*— Feeling disgusted is an emotion experienced by some customers who had bad experiences especially when dining in some restaurants. Table 5.31 reveals that more than 70% of those who felt disgusted spread the word to other people like family and friends. They were 76.0% of females who felt disgusted and told others, and 74.5% of males who were disgusted and voiced their thoughts.

Table 5.31: Disgust versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			no	yes	
Female	not ticked	Count	16	54	70
		% within disgusted	22.9%	77.1%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	6	19	25
		% within disgusted	24.0%	76.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within disgusted	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
Male	not ticked	Count	25	88	113
		% within disgusted	22.1%	77.9%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	12	35	47
		% within disgusted	25.5%	74.5%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within disgusted	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	41	142	183
		% within disgusted	22.4%	77.6%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	18	54	72
		% within disgusted	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within disgusted	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

The results indicated that there is no significant association between the two categories: feeling disgusted and word-of-mouth for both males and females. Feeling disgusted and spreading the word are not dependent on each other, but they are independent variables according to females (Continuity Correction=.000, df=1, $p>0.05$) and males (Continuity Correction=.068, df=1, $p>0.05$). However, gender does not have an impact on this relationship, as it is clear from table 5.32.

Table 5.32: Chi-square tests for the relationship between disgust and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.014 ^c	1	.907		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.013	1	.908		
	Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.554
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.217 ^d	1	.641		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.068	1	.795		
	Likelihood Ratio	.214	1	.644		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.683	.392
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.196 ^a	1	.658		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.077	1	.781		
	Likelihood Ratio	.194	1	.660		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.742	.386
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.66.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.79.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.87.

Feeling shocked and word-of-mouth— Nearly 76% of those who felt shocked told others about the problem that caused them grudgeholding with no difference between females and males on their response to the shocking experience. The majority of them spread the word (see Table 5.33).

Table 5.33: Shocked versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			no	yes	
female	not ticked	Count	18	60	78
		% within shocked	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	4	13	17
		% within shocked	23.5%	76.5%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within shocked	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
Male	not ticked	Count	28	95	123
		% within shocked	22.8%	77.2%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	9	28	37
		% within shocked	24.3%	75.7%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within shocked	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	46	155	201
		% within shocked	22.9%	77.1%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	13	41	54
		% within shocked	24.1%	75.9%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within shocked	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

Table 5.34 revealed that there is no significant relationship between the two variables, feeling shocked and spreading the word for both gender groups. Both females and males respondents told others about their shocking experience. According to the violation in the results caused by one cell, that has expected count less than five for females, Fisher exact test shows that there is no significant association between the two categories. For males, the two variables are independent from each other as well (Continuity Correction=.000, df=1, p>0.05). Hence, gender does not have an impact on the relationship between feeling shocked and spreading the word.

Table 5.34: Chi-square tests for the relationship between feeling shocked and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.002 ^c	1	.968		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.002	1	.968		
	Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.595
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.039 ^d	1	.844		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.039	1	.844		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.827	.501
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.034 ^a	1	.854		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	.998		
	Likelihood Ratio	.034	1	.855		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.857	.492
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12.49.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.94.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.56.

Surprised and word-of-mouth— Most consumers nearly 70%, who reported their surprise of what they have experienced, stated that they told others about the incident (Table 5.35). Females and males who reported their surprise to what have experienced told others.

Table 5.35: Surprised versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			no	yes	
female	not ticked	Count	20	66	86
		% within surprised	23.3%	76.7%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	2	7	9
		% within surprised	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within surprised	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
Male	not ticked	Count	26	100	126
		% within surprised	20.6%	79.4%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	11	23	34
		% within surprised	32.4%	67.6%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within surprised	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	46	166	212
		% within surprised	21.7%	78.3%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	13	30	43
		% within surprised	30.2%	69.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within surprised	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

There is no significant association between the two variables feeling surprised and telling others for both females and males as it is clear in Table 5.36. For females, Fisher exact test shows that there is no significant relationship. For males, (Continuity Correction=1.461, df=1, p>0.05) that means the two categories are independent from each other.

Table 5.36: Chi-square tests for the relationship between feeling surprised and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.005 ^c	1	.944	1.000	.655
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.005	1	.944		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	2.068 ^d	1	.150	.171	.115
	Continuity Correction	1.461	1	.227		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.956	1	.162		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	1.464 ^a	1	.226	.237	.156
	Continuity Correction	1.024	1	.312		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.394	1	.238		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.95.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.08.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.86.

Feeling afraid and word-of-mouth— It is clear from the results that the propensity of spreading the word among others decreases when the offended customers feel afraid. Only 33% of females and 57% of males who were afraid voiced their concerns to family, friends, and others (Table 5.37).

Table 5.37: Afraid versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			no	Yes	
Female	not ticked	Count	20	72	92
		% within afraid	21.7%	78.3%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	2	1	3
		% within afraid	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within afraid	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
Male	not ticked	Count	34	119	153
		% within afraid	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	3	4	7
		% within afraid	42.9%	57.1%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within afraid	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	54	191	245
		% within afraid	22.0%	78.0%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	5	5	10
		% within afraid	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within afraid	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

Fisher's exact test shows that there is no significant association between feeling afraid and telling others who do not work at the place, source of offence for both gender groups (Table 5.38).

Table 5.38: Chi-square tests for the relationship between afraid and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	3.295 ^c	1	.069		
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.254	1	.263		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.665	1	.103		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.133	.133
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.603 ^d	1	.205		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.653	1	.419		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.400	1	.237		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.202	.202
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	4.223 ^a	1	.040		
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.797	1	.094		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.573	1	.059		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.055	.055
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.31.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .69.

d. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.62.

Fear and word-of-mouth— In the case of holding grudge, only few described the experience as fearful. However, this kind of feeling did not encourage them to spread the word as revealed in Table 5.39

Table 5.39: Fear versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			no	yes	
Female	not ticked	Count	22	72	94
		% within fearful	23.4%	76.6%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	0	1	1
		% within fearful	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within fearful	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
Male	not ticked	Count	34	121	155
		% within fearful	21.9%	78.1%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	3	2	5
		% within fearful	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within fearful	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	56	193	249
		% within fearful	22.5%	77.5%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	3	3	6
		% within fearful	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within fearful	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

Table 5.40 shows that there is no significant association between the two categories according to the Fischer's Exact test results. It seems that males and females who reported their fear did not have the inclination to tell others about their concerns.

Table 5.40: Chi-square tests for the relationship between fear and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.305 ^c	1	.581	1.000	.768
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.530	1	.467		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	3.948 ^d	1	.047	.081	.081
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.097	1	.148		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.232	1	.072		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	2.493 ^a	1	.114	.139	.139
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.186	1	.276		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.103	1	.147		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.39.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .23.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.16.

Humiliation and word-of-mouth— Some customers reported their humiliation as an emotional response to the negative experience with a company or an organization. Half of the humiliated females voiced their concerns among others, and more than half of the males act the same. Surprisingly in terms of humiliation, there were 50% of females reported their response of word-of-mouth comparing to 50% who did not (see Table 5.41).

Table 5.41: Humiliation versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			no	yes	
female	not ticked	Count	18	69	87
		% within humiliated	20.7%	79.3%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	4	4	8
		% within humiliated	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within humiliated	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
Male	not ticked	Count	34	117	151
		% within humiliated	22.5%	77.5%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	3	6	9
		% within humiliated	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within humiliated	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	52	186	238
		% within humiliated	21.8%	78.2%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	7	10	17
		% within humiliated	41.2%	58.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within humiliated	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

The relationship between the two variables, feeling humiliated and telling others were not statistically significant according to the results in Table (5.42). Fisher's Exact Test indicates to a non- statistically significant relationship.

Table 5.42: Chi-square tests for the relationship between humiliation and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	3.537 ^c	1	.060		
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.082	1	.149		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.025	1	.082		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.081	.081
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.559 ^d	1	.455		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.116	1	.733		
	Likelihood Ratio	.516	1	.473		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.433	.345
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	3.333 ^a	1	.068		
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.335	1	.127		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.946	1	.086		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.078	.069
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.93.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.85.

d. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.08.

Cheated and word-of-mouth— The majority of grudgeholders, who experienced and reported their negative emotion as feeling cheated, responded not just by complaining to the source of offence but by telling others as well.

Table 5.43: Cheated versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	12	46	58
		% within cheated	20.7%	79.3%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	10	27	37
		% within cheated	27.0%	73.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within cheated	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
Male	not ticked	Count	25	72	97
		% within cheated	25.8%	74.2%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	12	51	63
		% within cheated	19.0%	81.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within cheated	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	37	118	155
		% within cheated	23.9%	76.1%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	22	78	100
		% within cheated	22.0%	78.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within cheated	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

However, Table 5.44 showed that there is no significant association between feeling cheated and voicing the word to others for both gender groups. For females, (Continuity Correction=.216, df=1, p>0.05). For males, (Continuity Correction=.630, df=1, p>0.05). Yet, gender does not have an impact on this association.

Table 5.44: Chi-square tests for the relationship between cheated and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.510 ^c	1	.475		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.216	1	.642		
	Likelihood Ratio	.504	1	.478		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.619	.319
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.972 ^d	1	.324		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.630	1	.427		
	Likelihood Ratio	.989	1	.320		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.345	.215
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.120 ^a	1	.729		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.038	1	.846		
	Likelihood Ratio	.120	1	.729		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.763	.425
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.14.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.57.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.57.

Cheated and word-of-mouth— Most consumers who were disappointed by the negative experience they had faced, expressed their concerns and told others. Nearly 82% females felt disappointed and spread the negative word to friends, family and others, whereas 72% males felt disappointed and expressed that among others (Table 5.45).

Table 5.45: Disappointed versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	14	37	51
		% within disappointed	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	8	36	44
		% within disappointed	18.2%	81.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	22	73	95
		% within disappointed	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	17	71	88
		% within disappointed	19.3%	80.7%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	20	52	72
		% within disappointed	27.8%	72.2%	100.0%
	Total	Count	37	123	160
		% within disappointed	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	31	108	139
		% within disappointed	22.3%	77.7%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	28	88	116
		% within disappointed	24.1%	75.9%	100.0%
	Total	Count	59	196	255
		% within disappointed	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

However, feeling disappointed and spreading negative word-of-mouth were not significantly related to each other as it is clear from Table 5.46. In the females group, (Continuity Correction=.679, df=1, p>0.05). In the males group, (Continuity Correction=1.154, df=1, p>0.05). In addition, gender does not have an impact on this relationship between feeling disappointed and telling others.

Table 5.46: Chi-square tests for the relationship between disappointed and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	1.140 ^c	1	.286		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.679	1	.410		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.155	1	.283		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.335	.205
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.594 ^d	1	.207		
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.154	1	.283		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.588	1	.208		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.259	.141
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.120 ^a	1	.729		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.039	1	.844		
	Likelihood Ratio	.120	1	.729		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.767	.421
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26.84.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.19.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.65.

Indifference and word-of-mouth— The results in Table 5.47 indicate that grudgeholders rarely are indifferent. Consumers who have been offended experienced and expressed various negative emotions. Three of the males reported their emotion as indifferent.

Table 5.47: Indifferent versus word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender			word-of-mouth		Total
			no	Yes	
Female		Count	22	73	95
		% within indifferent	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
	not ticked	Count	36	121	157
		% within indifferent	22.9%	77.1%	100.0%
Male	ticked	Count	1	2	3
		% within indifferent	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	not ticked	Count	37	123	160
		% within indifferent	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
Total	ticked	Count	58	194	252
		% within indifferent	23.0%	77.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	1	2	3
		% within indifferent	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Count	59	196	255	
	% within indifferent	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%	

Table 5.48: Chi-square tests for the relationship between indifferent and word-of-mouth

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	. ^c				
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	.179 ^d	1	.672		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.165	1	.685		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.548	.548
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.177 ^a	1	.674		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.163	1	.686		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.548	.548
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .69.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. No statistics are computed because indifferent is a constant.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .69.

Consequently, emotion triggers the coping response word-of-mouth. It is statistically significant relationship for females in terms of anger. Angry females spread the word more than angry males. Therefore, H9b (that is, there are gender differences when telling others about bad experience) is partially supported because it is only statistically significant for angry females.

Grudgeholding consumers' voice to internal and external individuals— Grudgeholders share their animosity surrounding with individuals outside of the company or organization responsible as much as with individuals inside the respective companies or organizations. As can be seen in Table 5.49, the majority 72.5.1 percent of grudgeholders raise their concerns to personnel in the company or organization responsible for the grudgeholding incident, and nearly 77 percent of grudgeholders share their concerns with individuals outside the company (including family and friends). In fact, well over 40 percent of grudgeholders tell at least 4 people about their negative experience and over 20 percent of grudgeholders tell more than 13 individuals.

Table 5.49: Grudgeholding consumers' voice to internal and external individuals

Voice	Number	Percent
Telling internal personnel (complaining)	Yes:185	72.5%
	No:70	27.5%
Telling external personnel (WOM)	Yes:196	76.9%
	No:59	23.1%
Number of people who have been told by the grudgeholders		
1	7	4.48 %
2-4	59	37.82 %
5-7	40	25.64%
8-10	16	10.25 %
11-13	2	1.28 %
More than 13	32	20.51 %
		100.0

5.3.3 Consumer grudgeholding emotions and repurchase intentions

The research studied if there is any relationship between consumers' different emotions and their future intention to exit or keep the relationship (that is repurchase intention but not loyalty). Choosing not to exit does not mean loyalty. It might be false loyalty. However, future research should cover loyalty in the context of consumer grudgeholding.

Anger and repurchase intention— Results show that more than half of the angry grudgeholders of both gender groups will exit and the majority of them assured their intention to leave the offending company/organization for no return. In addition, some consumers 21.7% are not sure so they may exit or may not. However, there are 12.5% of the angry grudgeholders will return.

The angry females are more likely to exit than to return for purchasing and patronizing again. More than 70% of the angry females intend to exit comparing to 12% who will not and 18% who are not sure. On the other hand, there are 63% of the angry males will exit, 13% will not, and less than quarter are not sure.

Table 5.50: Anger versus exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	% not angry	25.7%	22.9%	40.0%	8.6%	2.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	9.5%	8.4%	14.7%	3.2%	1.1%	36.8%
	% angry	50.0%	20.0%	18.3%	11.7%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	31.6%	12.6%	11.6%	7.4%	0.0%	63.2%
	% within angry	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not angry	25.0%	22.1%	38.2%	8.8%	5.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.6%	9.4%	16.2%	3.8%	2.5%	42.5%
	% angry	39.1%	23.9%	23.9%	10.9%	2.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	22.5%	13.8%	13.8%	6.2%	1.2%	57.5%
	% within angry	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% not angry	25.2%	22.3%	38.8%	8.7%	4.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.2%	9.0%	15.7%	3.5%	2.0%	40.4%
	% angry	43.4%	22.4%	21.7%	11.2%	1.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	25.9%	13.3%	12.9%	6.7%	0.8%	59.6%
	% within angry	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

Results in Table 5.51 show that the relationship between the two variables, anger and repurchase intention is significant for both males and females. For females, Likelihood Ratio=9.47, df=4, $p \leq .05$. For males, Likelihood Ratio=6.708, df=4, $p \leq .05$.

Table 5.51: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between anger and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	9.120 ^b	4	.058
	Likelihood Ratio	9.471	4	.050
	N of Valid Cases	95		
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	6.686 ^c	4	.153
	Likelihood Ratio	6.708	4	.052
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	15.073 ^a	4	.005
	Likelihood Ratio	15.150	4	.004
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.83.

b. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .37.

c. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.55.

It is clear from the output that Spearman's rank-order correlation for females is significant, $r(95) = -.224$, $p < .05$, and it means that the anger is related negatively with the intention to repurchase and patronize again. Females are more likely to exit when they are angry. Spearman's rank-order correlation for males is significant as well, $r(160) = -.157$, $p < .05$, and therefore the association between anger and repurchase intention or exit is negatively significant. In other words, same as angry females, angry males are more likely to exit the relationship with the offending source of business (see Table 5. 52). This supports the hypothesis H4a (*Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (such as anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal etcetera) and (grudgeholding lasting)*)

Table 5.52: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between anger and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma Zero-Order	-.343	.143	-2.265	.024
	Spearman Correlation	-.224	.099	-2.218	.029^c
	N of Valid Cases	95			
Male	Gamma Zero-Order	-.236	.114	-2.024	.043
	Spearman Correlation	-.157	.078	-1.998	.047^c
	N of Valid Cases	160			
Total	Gamma Zero-Order	-.279	.089	-3.025	.002
	Gamma First-Order Partial	-.263			
	Spearman Correlation	-.184	.061	-2.986	.003^c
	N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Disgust and repurchase intention— The majority of the disgusted consumers who held or currently hold a grudge decided not to purchase or deal again with the source of aggression. More than 60% of the females who felt disgusted will exit and more than half of them will exit for sure comparing to 8% who reported their return but not definitely.

However, there are 24% of females might or might not return. On the other hand, nearly 60% of the disgusted males will exit; (36% will definitely exit and 23% will exit) comparing to 8% who will not exit. However, the rest of the males who reported their emotion as feeling disgusted still are not sure of their exit or return.

Table 5.53: Disgust versus exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	% not disgusted	42.9%	17.1%	27.1%	11.4%	1.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	31.6%	12.6%	20.0%	8.4%	1.1%	73.7%
	% disgusted	36.0%	32.0%	24.0%	8.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	9.5%	8.4%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	26.3%
	% within disgusted	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not disgusted	31.9%	23.0%	29.2%	11.5%	4.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	22.5%	16.2%	20.6%	8.1%	3.1%	70.6%
	% disgusted	36.2%	23.4%	31.9%	6.4%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.6%	6.9%	9.4%	1.9%	0.6%	29.4%
	% within disgusted	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	not disgusted	36.1%	20.8%	28.4%	11.5%	3.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	25.9%	14.9%	20.4%	8.2%	2.4%	71.8%
	% disgusted	36.1%	26.4%	29.2%	6.9%	1.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.2%	7.5%	8.2%	2.0%	0.4%	28.2%
	% within disgusted	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

Results in Table 5.54 show that the relationship between the two variables, disgusted and repurchase intention is not significant for both males and females. For females, Likelihood Ratio=2.885, df=4, p>.05. For males, Likelihood Ratio=1.737, df=4, p>.05.

Table 5.54: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between disgust and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	2.774 ^b	4	.596
	Likelihood Ratio	2.885	4	.577
	N of Valid Cases	95		
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.608 ^c	4	.807
	Likelihood Ratio	1.737	4	.784
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	2.454 ^a	4	.653
	Likelihood Ratio	2.610	4	.625
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 1 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.98.

b. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.

c. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.76.

It is clear from the output that Spearman's rank-order correlation for females is not significant, $r(95) = -.012$. $p > .05$, and it means that the feeling of disgust is not related significantly with the intention to repurchase and patronize again. Spearman's rank-order correlation for males is not significant as well, $r(160) = -.067$. $p > .05$, and therefore the association between the two variables is not statistically significant. Therefore, gender does not have an impact on the association.

Table 5.55: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between disgust and exit

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma	Zero-Order	-.021	.169	-.123	.902
		Spearman Correlation	-.012	.097	-.115	.909^c
		N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma	Zero-Order	-.113	.129	-.875	.382
		Spearman Correlation	-.067	.077	-.849	.397^c
		N of Valid Cases	160			
Total		Zero-Order	-.078	.103	-.762	.446
	Gamma	First-Order Partial	-.090			
		Spearman Correlation	-.046	.060	-.733	.464^c
		N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Shocked and repurchase intention— In the results below, it is obvious that most of the shocked consumers (more than 60%) reported their exit with 43% who were sure of their exit comparing to 13% who will not. However, there are 22% of the shocked consumers have both options, either exit or return.

Nearly 77% of the shocked males reported their exit, 13.5% will not and 19% might or might not exit. More than half of the shocked females will exit as well, whereas, 12% will not and 29% might exit or not (see Table 5.56)

Table 5.56: Shocked versus exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	% not shocked	39.7%	23.1%	25.6%	10.3%	1.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	32.6%	18.9%	21.1%	8.4%	1.1%	82.1%
	% shocked	47.1%	11.8%	29.4%	11.8%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	8.4%	2.1%	5.3%	2.1%	0.0%	17.9%
	% within shocked	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not shocked	30.9%	22.0%	33.3%	10.6%	3.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	23.8%	16.9%	25.6%	8.1%	2.5%	76.9%
	% shocked	40.5%	27.0%	18.9%	8.1%	5.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	9.4%	6.2%	4.4%	1.9%	1.2%	23.1%
	% within shocked	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% not shocked	34.3%	22.4%	30.3%	10.4%	2.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	27.1%	17.6%	23.9%	8.2%	2.0%	78.8%
	% shocked	42.6%	22.2%	22.2%	9.3%	3.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	9.0%	4.7%	4.7%	2.0%	0.8%	21.2%
	% within shocked	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

Results show that the relationship between the two variables, shocked and repurchase intention is not statistically significant for both males and females. For females, Likelihood Ratio=1.650, df=4, p>.05. For males, Likelihood Ratio=3.756, df=4, p>.05. (Table 5.57)

Table 5.57: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between shocked and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	1.354 ^b	4	.852
	Likelihood Ratio	1.650	4	.800
	N of Valid Cases	95		
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	3.610 ^c	4	.461
	Likelihood Ratio	3.756	4	.440
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	2.076 ^a	4	.722
	Likelihood Ratio	2.090	4	.719
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 1 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.48.

b. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .18.

c. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.39.

It is clear from the output that Spearman's rank-order correlation for females is not significant, $r(95) = -.019$. $p > .05$, and it means that there is not enough evidence to assure the significant association between the two variables, feeling shocked and the intention to repurchase and patronize again. Spearman's rank-order correlation for males is not significant as well, $r(160) = -.099$. $p > .05$, and therefore the association between the two variables is not statistically significant. Therefore, gender does not have an impact on the association.

Table 5.58: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between shocked and exit

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma	Zero-Order	-.039	.219	-.178	.858
		Spearman Correlation	-.019	.106	-.183	.855^c
		N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma	Zero-Order	-.176	.142	-1.238	.216
		Spearman Correlation	-.099	.080	-1.255	.211^c
		N of Valid Cases	160			
Total		Zero-Order	-.121	.119	-1.020	.308
	Gamma	First-Order Partial	-.147			
		Spearman Correlation	-.065	.064	-1.035	.302^c
		N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Surprise and repurchase intention— In general, most consumers who got surprised by the offending incident reported their intention to exit while 16% stated that they will not and 30% may or may not exit. Moreover, results showed that females who were surprised exit less than males. For females, 33% of the surprised will exit, 22% will not, and 44% may or may not exit. For males, nearly 59% will exit comparing to 15% will not and almost 26% might follow either options (see Table 5.59).

Table 5.59: Surprise versus exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	%not surprised	44.2%	20.9%	24.4%	9.3%	1.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	40.0%	18.9%	22.1%	8.4%	1.1%	90.5%
	% surprised	11.1%	22.2%	44.4%	22.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	1.1%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	9.5%
	% within surprised	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not surprised	31.7%	23.8%	31.0%	9.5%	4.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	25.0%	18.8%	24.4%	7.5%	3.1%	78.8%
	% surprised	38.2%	20.6%	26.5%	11.8%	2.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	8.1%	4.4%	5.6%	2.5%	0.6%	21.2%
	% within surprised	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% not surprised	36.8%	22.6%	28.3%	9.4%	2.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	30.6%	18.8%	23.5%	7.8%	2.4%	83.1%
	% surprised	32.6%	20.9%	30.2%	14.0%	2.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	5.5%	3.5%	5.1%	2.4%	0.4%	16.9%
	% within surprised	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

The chi-square test showed that the association between the two variables is only significant for females (see Table 5.60)

Table 5.60: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between surprise and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	4.816 ^b	4	.307
	Likelihood Ratio	5.243	4	.053
	N of Valid Cases	95		
male	Pearson Chi-Square	.850 ^c	4	.932
	Likelihood Ratio	.86	4	.932
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	1.020 ^a	4	.907
	Likelihood Ratio	.968	4	.915
	N of Valid Cases	255		

b. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .09.

c. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.28.

However, results from Table below refers to a partial association for females. $R(95) = .213$. $P \leq .05$. Feeling surprised by females relate positively with the intention to buy or deal again. Whereas for males, the negative association is not significant $r(160) = -.037$. $p > .05$. Therefore, gender does have an impact on the association between feeling surprised and repurchasing intentions. This means, surprised females are more likely to exit than the surprised males.

Table 5.61: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between surprised and exit

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma	Zero-Order	.513	.183	2.067	.039
		Spearman Correlation	.213	.089	2.097	.039^c
		N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma	Zero-Order	-.069	.150	-.459	.646
		Spearman Correlation	-.037	.081	-.468	.641^c
		N of Valid Cases	160			
Total		Zero-Order	.095	.126	.747	.455
	Gamma	First-Order Partial	.025			
		Spearman Correlation	.047	.063	.755	.451 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Afraid and repurchase intention— as it revealed from the results, few consumers felt afraid when facing some bad experiences. The three females who felt afraid reported that they might return. Whereas, most males who were afraid said that they definitely will not return (see Table 5.62)

Table 5.62: Afraid versus exit

Afraid by grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	% not afraid	42.4%	21.7%	25.0%	9.8%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	24.2%	9.5%	1.1%	96.8%
	% afraid	0.0%	0.0%	66.7%	33.3%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	1.1%	0.0%	3.2%
	% within afraid	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not afraid	31.4%	24.2%	30.7%	10.5%	3.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	30.0%	23.1%	29.4%	10.0%	3.1%	95.6%
	% afraid	71.4%	0.0%	14.3%	0.0%	14.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	3.1%	0.0%	0.6%	0.0%	0.6%	4.4%
	% within afraid	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% no afraid	35.5%	23.3%	28.6%	10.2%	2.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	34.1%	22.4%	27.5%	9.8%	2.4%	96.1%
	% afraid	50.0%	0.0%	30.0%	10.0%	10.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	2.0%	0.0%	1.2%	0.4%	0.4%	3.9%
	% within afraid	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

Results in Table 5.63 showed that the association between the two variables is not significant in total. Likelihood ratio=6.889, df=4, P>.05

Table 5.63: Chi-square tests for the relationship between afraid and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	5.404 ^b	4	.248
	Likelihood Ratio	6.196	4	.045
	N of Valid Cases	95		
male	Pearson Chi-Square	8.436 ^c	4	.077
	Likelihood Ratio	9.249	4	.053
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	4.889 ^a	4	.299
	Likelihood Ratio	6.285	4	.179
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .27.

b. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .03.

c. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .26.

However, when calculating Spearman Correlation, it indicated that there is a significant association for females $r(95)=.207$. $p \leq .05$ and for males $r(95)=-.108$. $p \leq .05$ (see Table 5.64)

Table 5.64: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between afraid and exit

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Sig.
female	Gamma	Zero-Order	.810	.096	1.738	.082
		Spearman Correlation	.207	.067	2.039	.044^c
		N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma	Zero-Order	-.402	.351	-1.103	.270
		Spearman Correlation	-.108	.092	-1.362	.45^c
		N of Valid Cases	160			
Total		Zero-Order	-.002	.292	-.008	.994
	Gamma	First-Order Partial	-.134			
		Spearman Correlation	-.001	.074	-.009	.993 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Fear and repurchase intention— Table 5.65 reveals that the percent of those who reported the situation as fearful is very small. It showed that the feared and afraid males are prone to exit more than the feared females.

Table 5.65: Fear versus exit

Fear by grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	%not fearful	41.5%	21.3%	25.5%	10.6%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	25.3%	10.5%	1.1%	98.9%
	% fearful	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	1.1%
	% within fearful	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not fearful	32.9%	23.9%	30.3%	9.7%	3.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	31.9%	23.1%	29.4%	9.4%	3.1%	96.9%
	% fearful	40.0%	0.0%	20.0%	20.0%	20.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	1.2%	0.0%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	3.1%
	% within fearful	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% not fearful	36.1%	22.9%	28.5%	10.0%	2.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	35.3%	22.4%	27.8%	9.8%	2.4%	97.6%
	% fearful	33.3%	0.0%	33.3%	16.7%	16.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.8%	0.0%	0.8%	0.4%	0.4%	2.4%
	% within fearful	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

The relationship between the two variables is not statistically significant for males and females (see Table 5.66)

Table 5.66: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between fear and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	2.830 ^b	4	.587
	Likelihood Ratio	2.700	4	.609
	N of Valid Cases	95		
male	Pearson Chi-Square	5.590 ^c	4	.232
	Likelihood Ratio	4.858	4	.302
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	6.024 ^a	4	.197
	Likelihood Ratio	5.028	4	.284
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .16.

b. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .01.

c. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .19.

Calculating Spearman Correlation shows no significant association between the fear emotion and the coping response to repurchase or exit. However, the frequency results showed that feared males are more likely to exit and not purchase again comparing to females who reported their unsure intention.

Table 5.67: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between fear and exit

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma	Zero-Order	.686	.087	1.006	.314
		Spearman Correlation	.095	.049	.921	.360 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma	Zero-Order	.231	.398	.546	.585
		Spearman Correlation	.057	.102	.713	.477 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	160			
Total		Zero-Order	.323	.332	.866	.386
	Gamma	First-Order Partial	.278			
		Spearman Correlation	.068	.075	1.079	.281 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Humiliation and repurchase intention— Feeling humiliated when facing bad experience with a company or an organization makes nearly 47% of the grudgeholding consumers intend to leave with no return, 18% with no exit intention and 35% are in between. Furthermore, humiliated males are more likely to exit comparing to humiliated females. When the females' consumers faced a humiliated experience, 50% of them reported their unsure exit comparing to 38% who were sure of exit and 18% who intend not to exit. On the other hand, males as majority, nearly 56 percent said that they will not and definitely will not purchase again, which means exit. Whereas, the rest were distributed between half for confident return and half for not sure (Table 5.68)

Table 5.68: Humiliation versus exit

Humiliation by grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	% not humiliated	41.4%	23.0%	24.1%	10.3%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	37.9%	21.1%	22.1%	9.5%	1.1%	91.6%
	% humiliated	37.5%	0.0%	50.0%	12.5%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	3.2%	0.0%	4.2%	1.1%	0.0%	8.4%
	% within humiliated	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not humiliated	33.1%	23.2%	30.5%	9.9%	3.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	31.2%	21.9%	28.8%	9.4%	3.1%	94.4%
	% humiliated	33.3%	22.2%	22.2%	11.1%	11.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	1.9%	1.2%	1.2%	0.6%	0.6%	5.6%
	% within humiliated	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% not humiliated	36.1%	23.1%	28.2%	10.1%	2.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.7%	21.6%	26.3%	9.4%	2.4%	93.3%
	% humiliated	35.3%	11.8%	35.3%	11.8%	5.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	2.4%	0.8%	2.4%	0.8%	0.4%	6.7%
	% within humiliated	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

The association between feeling humiliated and the intention to exit or return is not statistically significant for both gender groups. For females, Likelihood ratio=5.260, df=4, P>.05. For males, Likelihood ratio=1.153, df=4, P>.05 (Table 5.69)

Table 5.69: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between humiliation and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	3.852 ^b	4	.426
	Likelihood Ratio	5.260	4	.262
	N of Valid Cases	95		
male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.586 ^c	4	.811
	Likelihood Ratio	1.153	4	.886
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	1.896 ^a	4	.755
	Likelihood Ratio	1.905	4	.753
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .47.

b. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .08.

c. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .34.

Spearman Correlation measures indicated that there is no significant association between the two variables. Therefore, gender does not have an impact on the association.

Table 5.70: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between humiliation and exit

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma	Zero-Order	.216	.290	.704	.482
		Spearman Correlation	.078	.109	.753	.453 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma	Zero-Order	.065	.272	.237	.812
		Spearman Correlation	.020	.086	.257	.797 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	160			
Total		Zero-Order	.124	.199	.610	.542
	Gamma	First-Order Partial	.114			
		Spearman Correlation	.041	.067	.653	.514 ^c
		N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Cheated and repurchase intention— Results revealed that more than three quarters of the grudgeholders who felt cheated will not do business again with the cheater. Only 7% will do and 22% were not sure. Nearly 70% of females who reported their emotion as being cheated intended not to return comparing to 8% who will not exit and 22% who are in the middle. Almost the same applied for males (see Table 5.71)

Table 5.71: Cheated versus exit

Cheated by grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	% not cheated	32.8%	24.1%	29.3%	12.1%	1.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	20.0%	14.7%	17.9%	7.4%	1.1%	61.1%
	% cheated	54.1%	16.2%	21.6%	8.1%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	21.1%	6.3%	8.4%	3.2%	0.0%	38.9%
	% within cheated	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not cheated	27.8%	18.6%	35.1%	14.4%	4.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	16.9%	11.2%	21.2%	8.8%	2.5%	60.6%
	% cheated	41.3%	30.2%	22.2%	3.2%	3.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	16.2%	11.9%	8.8%	1.2%	1.2%	39.4%
	% within cheated	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% not cheated	29.7%	20.6%	32.9%	13.5%	3.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	18.0%	12.5%	20.0%	8.2%	2.0%	60.8%
	% cheated	46.0%	25.0%	22.0%	5.0%	2.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	18.0%	9.8%	8.6%	2.0%	0.8%	39.2%
	% within cheated	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

The association is statistically significant for both gender groups. For females, Likelihood ratio=4.982, df=4, $P \leq .05$. For males, Likelihood ratio=12.162, df=4, $P \leq .05$. Cheating does make difference in the consumers' future response.

Table 5.72: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between feeling cheated and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	4.651 ^b	4	.325
	Likelihood Ratio	4.982	4	.012
	N of Valid Cases	95		
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	11.333 ^c	4	.023
	Likelihood Ratio	12.162	4	.016
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	12.218 ^a	4	.016
	Likelihood Ratio	12.665	4	.013
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.75.

b. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .39.

c. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.36.

There are a negative significant relationship between the two variables. Cheating emotion and exit behaviour are related significantly. For females, $r(95)=-.194$, $p\leq.05$. For males, $r(160)=-.228$, $p\leq.05$ (Table 5.73)

Table 5.73: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between feeling cheated and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma Zero-Order	-.308	.155	-1.936	.053
	Spearman Correlation	-.194	.100	-1.911	.051^c
	N of Valid Cases	95			
Male	Gamma Zero-Order	-.347	.110	-3.036	.002
	Spearman Correlation	-.228	.075	-2.941	.004^c
	N of Valid Cases	160			
Total	Gamma Zero-Order	-.328	.090	-3.538	.000
	Gamma First-Order Partial	-.337			
	Spearman Correlation	-.212	.060	-3.454	.001 ^c
	N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Disappointment and repurchase intention— More than half the disappointed females will exit. Nearly 32% are not sure and 14 will return. Also, half the disappointed males will exit. Almost 35% may return or may exit and 15% will not exit (Table 5.74)

Table 5.74: Disappointed versus exit

Disappointed by grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	%not disappointed	47.1%	21.6%	21.6%	9.8%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	25.3%	11.6%	11.6%	5.3%	0.0%	53.7%
	% disappointed	34.1%	20.5%	31.8%	11.4%	2.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	15.8%	9.5%	14.7%	5.3%	1.1%	46.3%
	% within disappointed	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% not disappointed	39.8%	21.6%	26.1%	9.1%	3.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	21.9%	11.9%	14.4%	5.0%	1.9%	55.0%
	% disappointed	25.0%	25.0%	34.7%	11.1%	4.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	11.2%	11.2%	15.6%	5.0%	1.9%	45.0%
	% within disappointed	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% not disappointed	42.4%	21.6%	24.5%	9.4%	2.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	23.1%	11.8%	13.3%	5.1%	1.2%	54.5%
	% disappointed	28.4%	23.3%	33.6%	11.2%	3.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	12.9%	10.6%	15.3%	5.1%	1.6%	45.5%
	Count	92	57	73	26	7	255
	Total % within disappointed	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
Total % of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%	

The frequency results showed that the majority of the disappointed consumers whether males or females were inclined to exit the relationship because half of the responses for both gender groups assured the intention of not purchasing or dealing again with the offending company or organization and more than third were not sure so they may exit or may not. However, it is still not significant association between the two categories, disappointment and repurchase intentions. In addition, gender does not have an impact on the association.

Table 5.75: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between disappointment and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	3.138 ^b	4	.535
	Likelihood Ratio	3.527	4	.474
	N of Valid Cases	95		
male	Pearson Chi-Square	4.003 ^c	4	.406
	Likelihood Ratio	4.058	4	.398
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	5.965 ^a	4	.202
	Likelihood Ratio	6.016	4	.198
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.18.

b. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .46.

c. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.70.

In total the association between the two variables, feeling disappointed and repurchase intentions is statistically significant $r(255)=.143$, $p \leq .05$. Which means that disappointed customers are more likely to exit than to stay.

Table 5.76: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between disappointment and exit

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma	Zero-Order	.229	.152	1.472	.141
		Spearman Correlation	.149	.101	1.454	.149^c
		N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma	Zero-Order	.209	.115	1.795	.073
		Spearman Correlation	.140	.078	1.772	.078^c
		N of Valid Cases	160			
Total		Zero-Order	.215	.092	2.312	.021
	Gamma	First-Order Partial	.214			
		Spearman Correlation	.143	.062	2.292	.023^c
		N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

Indifference and repurchase intention— When consumers reported their grudgeholding experience, it was hardly for them to report no negative or bad emotion like in the case of indifferent which collected three answers. There were three males in total reported that they were indifferent in expressing their emotion of grudge. However, females were not indifferent. (Table 5.77)

Table 5.77: Indifferent versus exit

Indifferent by grudgeholder's gender		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Female	% within indifferent	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% within indifferent	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
Male	% within indifferent	33.1%	22.9%	30.6%	10.2%	3.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	32.5%	22.5%	30.0%	10.0%	3.1%	98.1%
	% within indifferent	33.3%	33.3%	0.0%	0.0%	33.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.6%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%	1.9%
	% within indifferent	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
Total	% within indifferent	36.1%	22.2%	29.0%	10.3%	2.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	35.7%	22.0%	28.6%	10.2%	2.4%	98.8%
	% within indifferent	33.3%	33.3%	0.0%	0.0%	33.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	1.2%
	% within indifferent	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

Table 5.78: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between indifferent and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	. ^b		
	N of Valid Cases	95		
male	Pearson Chi-Square	8.496 ^c	4	.075
	Likelihood Ratio	5.280	4	.260
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	11.696 ^a	4	.020
	Likelihood Ratio	5.778	4	.216
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .08.

b. No statistics are computed because indifferent is a constant.

c. 5 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .11.

There is no significant association between the two variables, indifferent and exit (see Table 5.79)

Table 5.79: Symmetric Measures for the relationship between indifferent and exit

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
female	Gamma Zero-Order	. ^d			
	N of Valid Cases	95			
male	Gamma Zero-Order	.079	.484	.161	.872
	Spearman Correlation	.016	.096	.196	.845 ^c
	N of Valid Cases	160			
Total	Gamma First-Order Partial	.118	.473	.241	.810
	Gamma First-Order Partial	.079			
	Spearman Correlation	.018	.076	.291	.771 ^c
	N of Valid Cases	255			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

c. Based on normal approximation.

d. No statistics are computed because indifferent is a constant.

In conclusion, most grudgeholding consumers tend to exit the relationship regardless of their experienced emotion. Anger and betrayal are among the most emotions which trigger the coping responses of exit for both males and females according to the statistically significant relationship. So, angry consumers who felt the betrayal are sure of their exit. Besides, fear, which was not experienced or reported widely like anger for instance, trigger the response of exit in males more than in females.

5.4 Grudgeholders' Coping Responses

Grudgeholders are quick to voice their concerns to the company or the organization with over 70% of these consumers voicing a complaint about the incident and spread the word to individuals like family friends and others.

Coping response (complaining)— As illustrated in (Figure 5.3), 76.8% of females complained to a company or an organization about the offence and 70.0% of males complained. The output show that the chi-square value is significant ($p < .05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that there are significant differences in the frequency of complaining to the company or organization, and the results show that people are largely inclined to complain in case of grudgeholding, $\chi^2 (1, N=255) = 51.86, p < .05$.

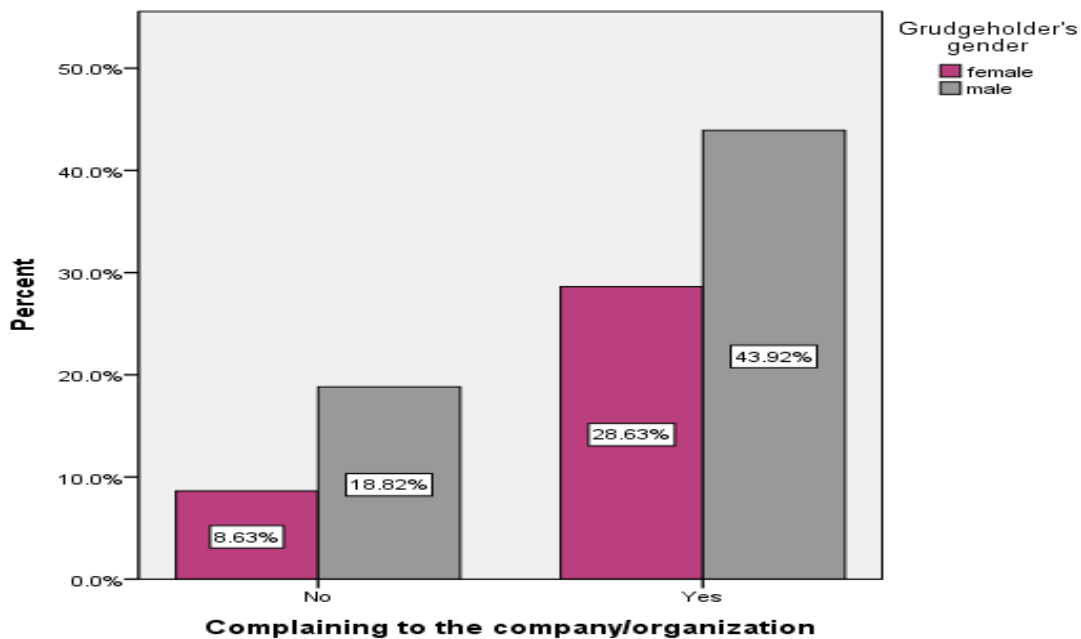


Figure 5.3: Complaining to the company/organization, by gender

It is revealed in Table 5.80 that 77% females and 70% males complained directly to the source of aggression.

Table 5.80 : Complaining to the company/organization, by gender

		Complaining to the company/organization		Total
		No	Yes	
female	Count	22	73	95
	% within gender	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
	% within Complaining	31.4%	39.5%	37.3%
	% of Total	8.6%	28.6%	37.3%
male	Count	48	112	160
	% within gender	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%
	% within Complaining	68.6%	60.5%	62.7%
	% of Total	18.8%	43.9%	62.7%
	Count	70	185	255
	% within gender	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%
	% within Complaining	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	27.5%	72.5%	100.0%

The result showed that there is no significant association between gender and complaining to the offenders, which means that the two variables are independent. Using both tests Chi-square and Continuity Correction show that gender does not have an impact on complaining in the case of offence. In other words, males and females do not differ in their complaining behaviour as a response to a bad experience (Chi-square=1.401, df=1, P>.05), (Continuity correction= 1.079, df=1, P>.05). see Table 5.81. Gender has a neutral effect in terms of the coping response (that is, complaining).

Table 5.81: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between complaining and gender

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.401 ^a	1	.237		
Continuity Correction ^b	1.079	1	.299		
Likelihood Ratio	1.423	1	.233		
Fisher's Exact Test				.250	.149
N of Valid Cases	255				

Coping response (word-of-mouth)— Grudgeholders in the sample were certainly not silent. Figure 5.4 shows that the majority of them told others who do not work in the company or the organization (for example, family, friends, etcetera.) about their bad experiences.

The output show that the chi-square value is significant ($p < .05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that there are significant differences in the frequency of telling others like family and friends (WOM), and the results show that grudgeholders are more likely to spread the word , $\chi^2 (1, N=255) = 73.6, p < .05$

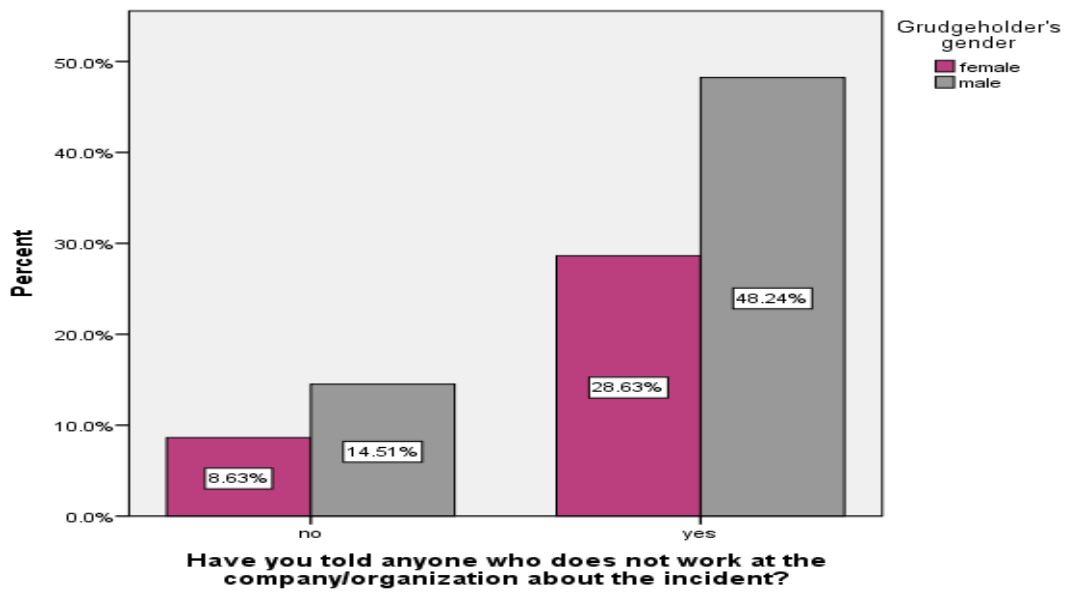


Figure 5.4: Word-of-mouth, by gender

As explained in Table 5.82, more than 70% admitted of voicing their concerns outside the offending party with the following percentages, (77% females and 77 % males).

Table 5.82: Word-of-mouth, by gender

		Word-of-mouth		Total
		no	yes	
Grudgeholder's gender	Count	22	73	95
	female			
	% within gender	23.2%	76.8%	100.0%
	% within WOM	37.3%	37.2%	37.3%
	% of Total	8.6%	28.6%	37.3%
	male			
	Count	37	123	160
% within gender	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%	
% within WOM	62.7%	62.8%	62.7%	
% of Total	14.5%	48.2%	62.7%	
Total	Count	59	196	255
	% within gender	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%
	% within WOM	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	23.1%	76.9%	100.0%

It is clear from Table 5.83 that there is no gender differences regarding word-of-mouth. Males and females do not differ significantly in terms of spreading negative word-of-mouth; (Chi-square=.000, df=1, P>.05), (Continuity correction= .000, df=1, P>.05). Therefore, males and females did not differ significantly in terms of spreading the word. Both of them are inclined to tell others about their negative experience

Table 5.83: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between word-of-mouth and gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.000 ^a	1	.995		
Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.000	1	.995		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.556
N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 21.98.

It is clear that most grudgeholders are more likely to tell their bad experiences at least to (2-4) of people who are part of the community outside the offending company/organization. See Table 5.84

The output show that the chi-square value is significant (p<.05). Therefore, it can be concluded that there are significant differences in the frequency of the telling others like family and friends (WOM), and the results show that grudgeholders are more likely to spread the word-of-mouth to 2-4 individuals at least ,(Chi-square=105.79, df=6, p<.05)

Table 5.84: Number of people who have been told outside about the incident, by gender

		Number of people who have been told outside about the incident							Total	
		0	1	2-4	5-7	8-10	11-13	More than 13		
Grudgeholder's gender	Female	Count	22	5	25	24	10	0	9	95
		Expected Count	22.0	4.8	26.1	19.7	8.2	.7	13.4	95.0
		% within gender	23.2%	5.3%	26.3%	25.3%	10.5%	0.0%	9.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	8.6%	2.0%	9.8%	9.4%	3.9%	0.0%	3.5%	37.3%
	Male	Count	37	8	45	29	12	2	27	160
		Expected Count	37.0	8.2	43.9	33.3	13.8	1.3	22.6	160.0
		% within gender	23.1%	5.0%	28.1%	18.1%	7.5%	1.2%	16.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	14.5%	3.1%	17.6%	11.4%	4.7%	0.8%	10.6%	62.7%
	Total	Count	59	13	70	53	22	2	36	255
		Expected Count	59.0	13.0	70.0	53.0	22.0	2.0	36.0	255.0
		% within gender	23.1%	5.1%	27.5%	20.8%	8.6%	0.8%	14.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	23.1%	5.1%	27.5%	20.8%	8.6%	0.8%	14.1%	100.0%

It is clear from Table 5.85 that there are no significant gender differences regarding who tell more individuals (N-WOM). Males and females do not differ significantly in terms of spreading negative word-of-mouth according to the likelihood ratio 6.442 and df=6, the P value is more than .05

Table 5.85: Chi-square tests for the relationship between word-of-mouth scope and gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.674 ^a	6	.461
Likelihood Ratio	6.442	6	.376
Linear-by-Linear Association	.683	1	.409
N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 3 cells (21.4%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .75.

5.5 Grievance Outcome and Cognitive-Emotive Response

Consumers appraise and evaluate their new situation of suffering from strongly negative emotion. Anger dominates the most of these emotions. Consequently, most of the angry, cheated and disappointed consumers complained and spread negative words to restore their normal equilibrium back. Then, they run a new phase of appraisal and emotion regulation to accomplish their goals of the grievance and retain equity.

To learn more about the current attitude of grudgeholders regarding the grudge, surveyed participants were asked to respond to one question regarding the present status of their grudge as well as two five point Likert-type scales: one addressing current feelings surrounding the grudgeholding situation and the other regarding feelings toward purchasing again from the store or company. As a result, grudgeholders are very slow to relinquish their grudges and to forget or/and forgive. Next results explained the second phase of appraisal applied by the grudgeholding consumers after complaining, and how it changed their negative emotions.

Products and services recovery— It is clear from the results that marketers did not respond at all or responded negatively. The results revealed that nearly three quarters of them stated that no one has done anything to restore the situation (64% of females and 71% of males did not receive any help). There were out of the total number who complained to get their justice back (24% females and 45% males) complained but did not get any listening comparing to (13% females and 18% males) complained and received help (See Figure 5.5)

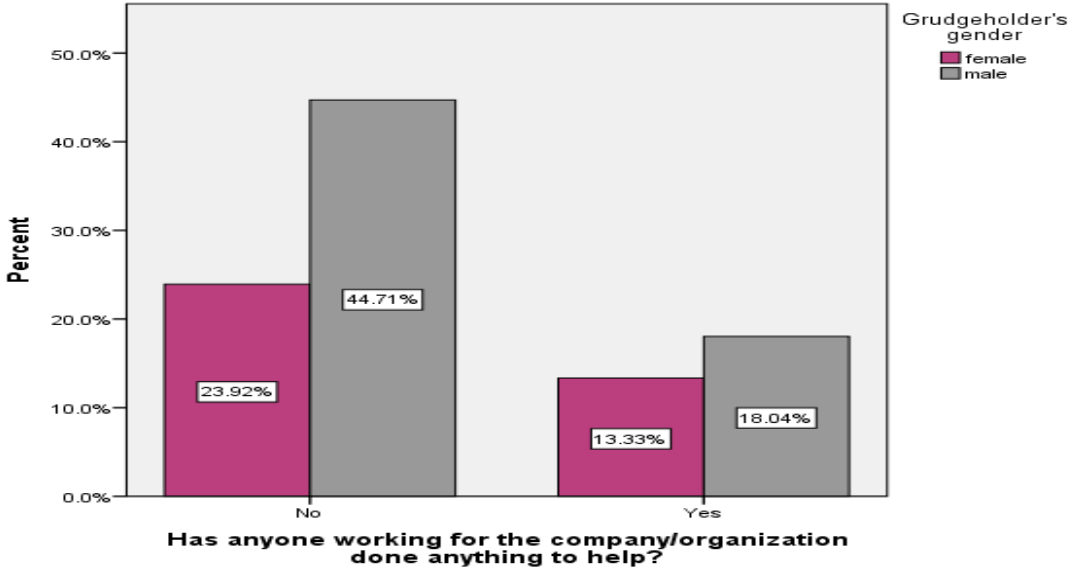


Figure 5.5: Products and services recovery

The consumers' complaining received most frequently no listening ears from the marketers with 64% of the complainers from females got no help and 71% of the males' complainers (Table 5.86).

Table 5.86: Products and services recovery received, by gender

		Has anyone working for the company/organization done anything to help?		Total	
		No	Yes		
Grudgeholder's gender	Female	Count	61	34	95
		% within gender	64.2%	35.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	23.9%	13.3%	37.3%
	Male	Count	114	46	160
	% within gender	71.2%	28.8%	100.0%	
	% of Total	44.7%	18.0%	62.7%	
Total		Count	175	80	255
		% within gender	68.6%	31.4%	100.0%
		% of Total	68.6%	31.4%	100.0%

However, the respondents' gender did not affect the results of how they responded to the offence. Table 5.87 showed that females and males do not differ significantly in terms of their response to the offence and the help that they received (Continuity correction= 1.064, df=1, P>.05)

Table 5.87: Chi-Square Tests for the relationship between recovery and gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.372 ^a	1	.241		
Continuity Correction ^b	1.064	1	.302		
Likelihood Ratio	1.360	1	.244		
Fisher's Exact Test				.265	.151
N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 29.80.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Type of corrective actions taken— The results below showed the most frequent marketers' responses to the consumers' complaints. The most frequent corrective actions taken by

companies and organizations to solve a problem were apology, giving refund, replace the product in order. Out of the 30 percent who did receive help, there were nearly 13% got apology, 10% got refund, 7% had a replaced product, 4% got a repaired product, 3% got extra help, and the least 2% had the store or company credit (See also Figure 5.6, to show corrective actions in total and Figure 5.7 to show corrective actions received by females and males).

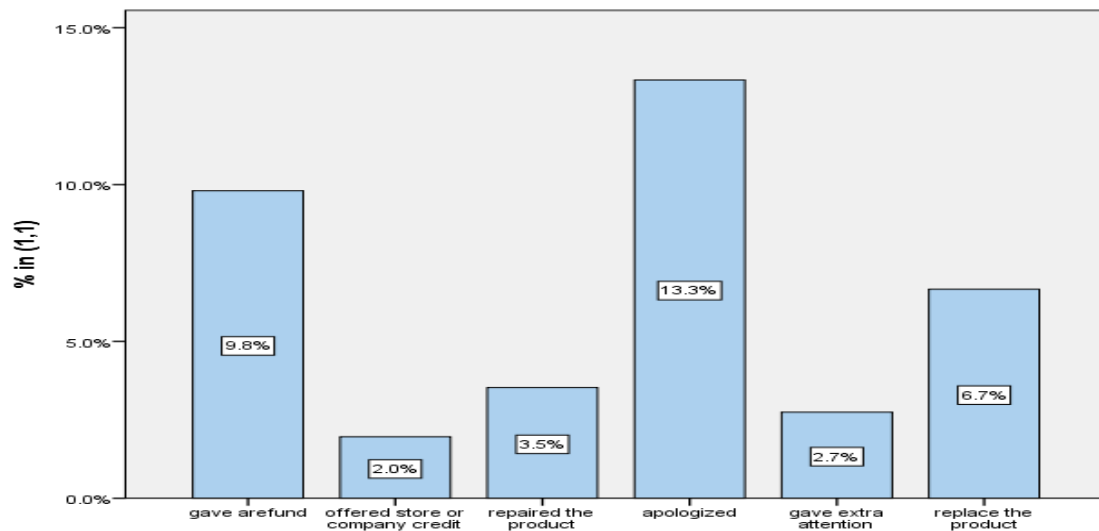


Figure 5.6: Corrective actions taken by companies/organization

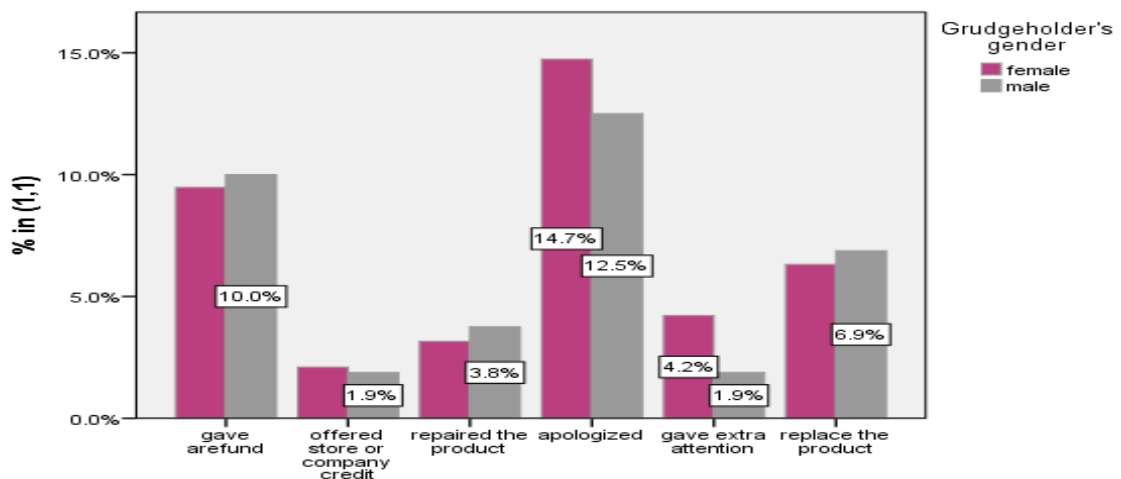


Figure 5.7: Corrective actions taken by companies/organization , by gender

Surprisingly, less than a third (31 percent) of companies considered responsible for the grudge take corrective recovery to address the situation. When companies do respond, the most common action taken by the company or organization in question is the offering of an apology, followed by giving a refund and replacement of the product. Because so few firms take corrective action, less than 14 percent of grudgeholders receive even an apology from the firms in question, less than 10 percent got refund, and less than 7 percent are issued a replacement product with a rarely chance of getting extra attention.

Table 5.88: Corrective actions taken by companies/organization

Corrective actions	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	
gave a refund	25	25.8%	31.6%
offered store or company credit	5	5.2%	6.3%
repaired the product	9	9.3%	11.4%
Apologized	34	35.1%	43.0%
gave extra attention	7	7.2%	8.9%
replace the product	17	17.5%	21.5%
Total	97	100.0%	122.8%

Current emotion— Whether the grudgeholders received help or not, they appraised their new situation after raising their voices. They evaluated the responses and the benefits they gained (see figure 5.8) which shows that the majority stayed on the third column and before (that indicates to the recovery failure and the long lasting of the negative emotion)

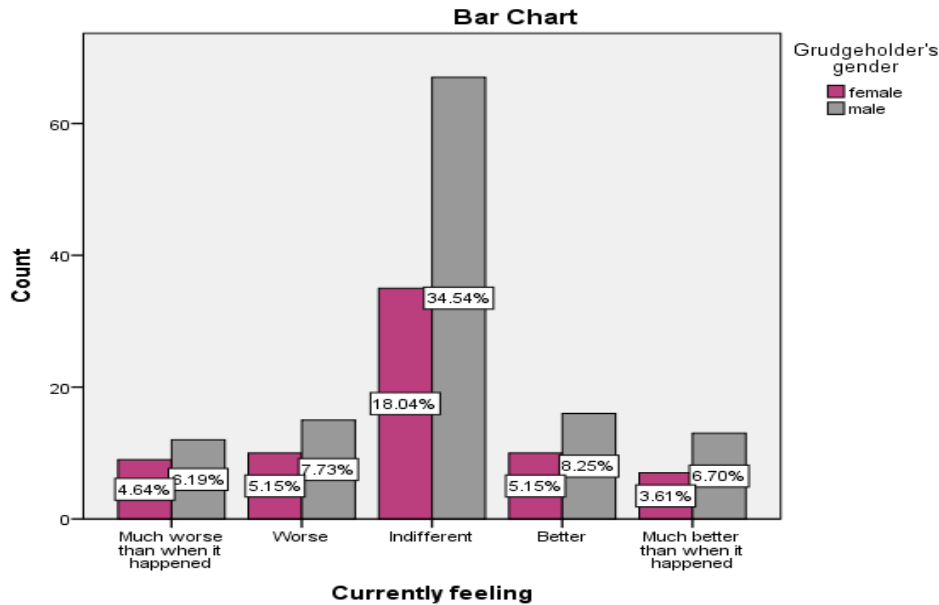


Figure 5.8: Currently feeling, by gender

It seems that wounds were very difficult to heal with no satisfactory responses to the angry complainers (Table 5.89). The majority of them reported their current feeling with at least six month after the offence occurrence, as more likely to be indifferent than much better or even better. There are out of the 70 percent of consumers who reported their long-term grudge: indifferent (37% females and 42% males), worse (10.5% females and 9.4% males), much worse than when it happened (9.5% females and 7.5% males), better (10.5% females and 10.0% males), and much better (7.4% females and 7.8% males).

Table 5.89: Consumers' current feeling, by gender

		Currently feeling						Total	
		not applicable (grudge-free)	Much worse than when it happened	Worse	Indifferent	Better	Much better than when it happened		
Grudgeholder's gender	female	Count	24	9	10	35	10	7	95
		% within gender	25.3%	9.5%	10.5%	36.8%	10.5%	7.4%	100.0%
		% of Total	9.4%	3.5%	3.9%	13.7%	3.9%	2.7%	37.3%
	Male	Count	37	12	15	67	16	13	160
		% within gender	23.1%	7.5%	9.4%	41.9%	10.0%	8.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	14.5%	4.7%	5.9%	26.3%	6.3%	5.1%	62.7%
Total		Count	61	21	25	102	26	20	255
		% within gender	23.9%	8.2%	9.8%	40.0%	10.2%	7.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	23.9%	8.2%	9.8%	40.0%	10.2%	7.8%	100.0%

Table 5.90 reveals that males and females do not differ significantly in their current emotions after complaint (Chi-square=.914, df=5, p>.05). However, they both could not heal and get better as nothing had happened specially the majority of them reported their enduring grudge accompanied by intentions to exit and not to purchase or deal again with the offending company/organization. Therefore, the hypothesis H11a (that is, there are gender differences in terms of their current grudgeholding emotions) is rejected.

Table 5.90: Chi-Square tests for the relationship between current emotion and gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.914 ^a	5	.969
Likelihood Ratio	.912	5	.969
Linear-by-Linear Association	.375	1	.540
N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.45.

Grudgeholding lasting— As Table 5.91 depicts, over three-quarters (78.5 percent) of those individuals who stated that they have at one time held a grudge, still hold that grudge with 72% females and 74% males. In spite of grudgeholders' attempts to make companies/organizations aware of the situation, grudgeholders currently feel virtually the same about the incident as they did when it originally happened.

The output show that the chi-square value is significant (p<.05). Therefore, it can be concluded that there are significant differences in the frequency of grudgeholding lasting or not and the results show that grudgeholders are more likely to hold on to grudge , χ^2 (1,N=255)= 53.68, p<.05. Hence, the hypothesis H7a (grudgeholders who perceive the outcome of their coping response as useless in venting their negative emotions continue their grudge) is supported.

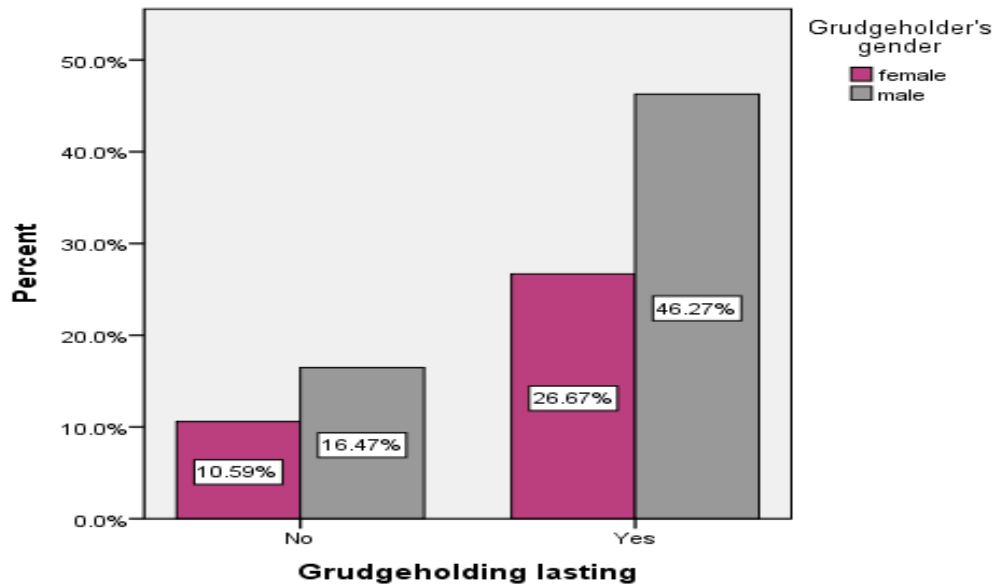


Figure 5.9: Grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Table 5.91: Grudgeholding lasting, by gender

		Grudgeholding lasting		Total	
		No	Yes		
Grudgeholder's gender	female	Count	27	68	95
		% within gender	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
		% within grudge lasting	39.1%	36.6%	37.3%
		% of Total	10.6%	26.7%	37.3%
Grudgeholder's gender	male	Count	42	118	160
		% within gender	26.2%	73.8%	100.0%
		% within grudge lasting	60.9%	63.4%	62.7%
		% of Total	16.5%	46.3%	62.7%
Total		Count	69	186	255
		% within gender	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%
		% within grudge lasting	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%

Males and females do not differ significantly in their grudgeholding lasting as it is clear from Table 5.92. However, both gender groups reported their long-lasting feeling of

grudge. Thus, the hypothesis H11b (that is, there are gender differences in terms of holding on to grudge) is rejected

Table 5.92: Chi-Square tests for the relationship between grudgeholding lasting and gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)		
Pearson Chi-Square	.142 ^a	1	.706				
Continuity Correction ^b	.054	1	.817				
Likelihood Ratio	.142	1	.707				
Fisher's Exact Test						.771	.406
Linear-by-Linear Association	.142	1	.707				
N of Valid Cases	255						

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.71.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Repurchase intentions— It is clear from Figure 5.10 that most frequent response of the grudgeholders on Likert scale is the first option that represents the assurance of not making any future purchasing or patronizing again followed by the middle option of maybe or maybe not, then again the negative response of not which represents number two on the scale. Very few of the angry customers stated that they will or they definitely will purchase again.

The output showed that the chi-square value is significant ($p < .05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that there are significant differences in the frequency of grudgeholders' attitude toward the companies/organizations, source of offence and the results show that grudgeholders are more likely to exit for sure or with a little chance of return, $\chi^2 (1, N=255) = 93.37, p < .05$.

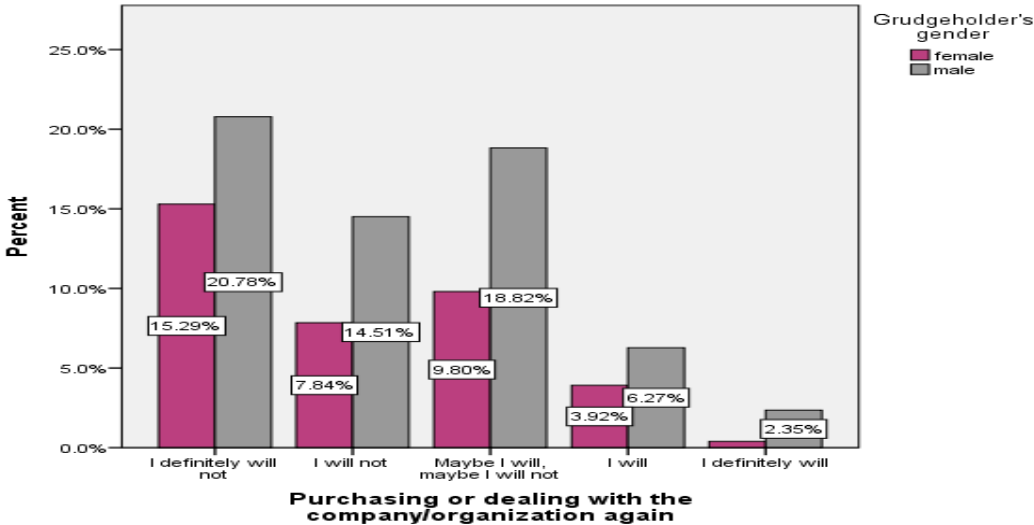


Figure 5.10: Repurchase intentions or exit, by gender

Table 5.93 showed the detailed future behaviour and attitude of the grudgeholding consumers for both gender groups. For females, 41.1% said that they definitely will not purchase or deal again with the offending company and organization and 21% said they would not, making together more than 60% of the negative responses. Whereas, 26.3% of the females consumers were not sure and stated that they might do business again. However, there were 11.6% would return and only 1.1% were confidently sure of their future re-purchase. For males, more than half reported their intended exit. There were 30% uncertain consumers, who might return or exit. The rest of the males nearly 14% confirmed their return.

Table 5.93: Repurchase intentions, by gender

		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total	
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will		
gender	Female	Count	39	20	25	10	1	95
		% within gender	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%
		% within Purchasing or dealing	42.4%	35.1%	34.2%	38.5%	14.3%	37.3%
		% of Total	15.3%	7.8%	9.8%	3.9%	0.4%	37.3%
	Male	Count	53	37	48	16	6	160
		% within gender	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%
		% within Purchasing or dealing	57.6%	64.9%	65.8%	61.5%	85.7%	62.7%
		% of Total	20.8%	14.5%	18.8%	6.3%	2.4%	62.7%
Total	Count	92	57	73	26	7	255	
	% within gender	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%	
	% within Purchasing or dealing	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%	

Again, no significant gender differences appeared regarding the grudgeholders' future responses of whether they are going to exit with no return or not. Calculating the Likelihood Ratio due to the violation in the expected count, (Likelihood ratio=3.265, df=4, $p>.05$). Therefore, the majority of females and males continued in holding on to grudge and exit with no return even though their feeling changed than before but not to the degree of getting better or much better, (see Table 5.94). Consequently, the hypothesis H10a (that is, there are gender differences in terms of maintaining or exiting the relationship when facing bad experience) is rejected.

Table 5.94: Chi-Square tests for the relationship between repurchase intentions and gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.032 ^a	4	.553
Likelihood Ratio	3.265	4	.514
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.643	1	.200
N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 2 cells (20.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.61.

Corrective actions impact on repurchase intentions— The research investigates the correlations between whether receiving help or not in response to the complaints will make any difference in the grudgeholding consumers' future attitude toward the source of offence. Table 5.95 shows that it is very difficult to heal the grudgeholding consumers' wounds. In the case of listening to the grudgeholders' grievance, the chance of repurchasing and patronising again ranged on the Likert scale as follows from the highest to the lowest: (35.0% they might purchase or deal again, 28.8% definitely will not, 20.0% will not, , 13.8% they will and 2.5% definitely will). Whereas, in the case of receiving no help, the highest response (39.4%) was to the first point that the angry consumers definitely will not purchase or deal again with those offenders in addition to the second responses (23.4%) who will not. More than 50% were the negative responses comparing to nearly (12%) of the positive answer that they will. The probability of losing the grieved consumers is big regardless of the help. However, the expected count of returning consumers improved slightly with help according to some grudgeholders.

Table 5.95: Corrective actions impact on repurchasing intentions

		Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total
		I definitely will not	I will not	Maybe I will, maybe I will not	I will	I definitely will	
Corrective actions	Count	69	41	45	15	5	175
	No % within being helped or not	39.4%	23.4%	25.7%	8.6%	2.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	27.1%	16.1%	17.6%	5.9%	2.0%	68.6%
	Count	23	16	28	11	2	80
	Yes % within being helped or not	28.8%	20.0%	35.0%	13.8%	2.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	9.0%	6.3%	11.0%	4.3%	0.8%	31.4%
Total	Count	92	57	73	26	7	255
	% within being helped or not	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%

Spearman's rho shows that there is an association between the two variables: responding to the complaint and future attitude of exit or not. (Spearman's rho = .128*, P<0.05). It indicates that the positive correlation between the two groups, the response to the grudgeholder's grievance and the future attitude of exit is small to moderate and statistically significant (see Table 5.96 for spearman's rho association). The findings support the hypothesis H4b (Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraisal process of the grievance outcome)

Table 5.96: The correlation between the help received and the intentions to repurchase or exit

			Help received	Future behaviour
Spearman's rho	Help received	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	
		N	255	
	Future behaviour (exit)	Correlation Coefficient	.128	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	.
		N	255	255

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The research went deep into each kind of help received by the complainers and studied if there is any significant relationship between different categories of marketers' responses to the consumers' complaints (such as, replace or repaired the failed product, apologize, gave extra attention, etcetera) and the consumers' future coping responses (such as exiting the relationship or not). Results showed that there are only two positive relationships statistically significant. Giving refund make consumers return and do business again which means less exit (Spearman's rho = .143*, P<0.05). Also, giving extra attention did help in retaining consumers (Spearman's rho = .133*, P<0.05)

Corrective actions impact on grudgeholding lasting— The results below showed the relationship between marketers' responses to the complaints and consumers' holding on to grudge. There were three perfectly negative relationships, which are statistically significant. Giving refund, offered store or company credit, and giving extra attention did help in decreasing grudge.

Table 5.97: Corrective actions' impact on grudgeholding lasting

		Corrective actions offered by companies and organizations						Total
		gave a refund	offered store or company credit	repaired the product	Apologized	gave extra attention	replace the product	
Grudgeholding lasting	Count	12	4	3	13	5	8	33
	% within Lasting	36.4%	12.1%	9.1%	39.4%	15.2%	24.2%	
	No % within marketer response	48.0%	80.0%	33.3%	38.2%	71.4%	47.1%	
	% of Total	15.2%	5.1%	3.8%	16.5%	6.3%	10.1%	41.8%
	Count	13	1	6	21	2	9	46
	% within Lasting	28.3%	2.2%	13.0%	45.7%	4.3%	19.6%	
	Yes % within marketer response	52.0%	20.0%	66.7%	61.8%	28.6%	52.9%	
	% of Total	16.5%	1.3%	7.6%	26.6%	2.5%	11.4%	58.2%
Total	Count	25	5	9	34	7	17	79
	% of Total	31.6%	6.3%	11.4%	43.0%	8.9%	21.5%	100.0%
Correlation Coefficient		-.155*	-.169**	-.027	-.099	-.168**	-.120	
Spearman's rho Sig. (2-tailed)		.013	.007	.668	.116	.007	.055	
N		255	255	255	255	255	255	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Giving refund and grudgeholding lasting— Giving refund plays an important role in decreasing grudge with males more than with females. More than 50% of female respondents who got refund are still holding grudge and more than 70% of them who did not get refund are still grudgeholders.

Whereas, receiving refund in response to males' complaints did make a slightly small difference. Half of the males continued their grudge even though they had refund comparing to 70% of them who did not get any refund (see Table 5.98)

Table 5.98: Giving refund*grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender			Grudgeholding lasting		Total	
			No	Yes		
female	gave a refund	not ticked	Count	23	63	86
			% within gave a refund	26.7%	73.3%	100.0%
	Total	Ticked	Count	4	5	9
			% within gave a refund	44.4%	55.6%	100.0%
		Count	27	68	95	
		% within gave a refund	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%	
male	gave a refund	not ticked	Count	34	110	144
			% within gave a refund	23.6%	76.4%	100.0%
	Total	Ticked	Count	8	8	16
			% within gave a refund	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		Count	42	118	160	
		% within gave a refund	26.2%	73.8%	100.0%	
Total	gave a refund	not ticked	Count	57	173	230
			% within gave a refund	24.8%	75.2%	100.0%
	Total	Ticked	Count	12	13	25
			% within gave a refund	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%
		Count	69	186	255	
		% within gave a refund	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%	

The association between the two variables of getting refund and the continuity of grudge is only statistically significant for males. By calculating Fisher's Exact Test, the relationship

between the two variables is significant ($p < .05$) for males. Therefore, it is partial association. When controlling for gender, the relationship between the two variables, giving refund and the lasting of grudge is no longer statistically significant. However, a partial association remains for male respondents. In conclusion, gender does have an impact on whether giving refund makes change to the lasting of grudge or not.

Table 5.99: Chi-Square Tests for the association between giving refund and grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	1.255 ^c	1	.263		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.535	1	.464		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.163	1	.281		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.268	.226
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	5.180 ^d	1	.023		
	Continuity Correction ^b	3.906	1	.048		
	Likelihood Ratio	4.621	1	.032		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.034	.028
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	6.158 ^a	1	.013		
	Continuity Correction ^b	5.038	1	.025		
	Likelihood Ratio	5.573	1	.018		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.018	.015
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.76.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.56.

d. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.20.

Phi measures the effect of the association because it is 2x2 table, which is small to moderate effect.

Table 5.100: Symmetric Measures

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Approx. Sig.
female	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.263
		Cramer's V	.263
		N of Valid Cases	95
Male	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.023
		Cramer's V	.023
		N of Valid Cases	160
Total	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.013
		Cramer's V	.013
		N of Valid Cases	255

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Offered company's or organization's credit and grudgeholding lasting— The angry grudgeholders especially males could release their anger and reduce their grudge when the offending party offered them their credit. However, offering store or company credit rarely occurs see (Table 5.101)

Table 5.101: offered store or company credit*grudgeholding lasting , by gender

Grudgeholder's gender				Grudgeholding lasting		Total
				No	Yes	
female	offered store or company credit	not ticked	Count	26	67	93
			% within offered credit	28.0%	72.0%	100.0%
	credit	ticked	Count	1	1	2
			% within offered credit	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total		Count	27	68	95
			% within offered credit	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
Male	offered store or company credit	not ticked	Count	39	118	157
			% within offered credit	24.8%	75.2%	100.0%
	credit	ticked	Count	3	0	3
			% within offered credit	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	Total		Count	42	118	160
			% within offered credit	26.2%	73.8%	100.0%
Total	offered store or company credit	not ticked	Count	65	185	250
			% within offered credit	26.0%	74.0%	100.0%
	credit	ticked	Count	4	1	5
			% within offered credit	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
	Total		Count	69	186	255
			% within offered credit	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%

The association between the two variables of getting company's credit and the continuity of grudge is only statistically significant for males. By calculating Fisher's Exact Test, the relationship between the two variables is significant ($p < .05$) for males. Therefore, it is partial association. When controlling for gender, the relationship between the two variables is no longer statistically significant. However, a partial association remains for male respondents. In conclusion, gender does have an impact on whether offering company's credit makes change to the lasting of grudge or not see (Table 5.102)

Table 5.102: Chi-Square Tests for the association between offered credit and grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	.468 ^c	1	.494	.490	.490
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.422	1	.516		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	8.590 ^d	1	.003	.017	.017
	Continuity Correction ^b	5.146	1	.023		
	Likelihood Ratio	8.188	1	.004		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	7.242 ^a	1	.007	.020	.020
	Continuity Correction ^b	4.765	1	.029		
	Likelihood Ratio	6.227	1	.013		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.35.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .57.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .79.

Phi measures the effect of the association because it is 2x2 table, which is small to moderate effect (Table 5.103)

Table 5.103: Symmetric Measures

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Approx. Sig.
female	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.070	.494
		Cramer's V	.070	.494
	N of Valid Cases		95	
Male	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.232	.003
		Cramer's V	.232	.003
	N of Valid Cases		160	
Total	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.169	.007
		Cramer's V	.169	.007
	N of Valid Cases		255	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Product's repair and grudgeholding lasting— Failing to repair a product or unsatisfactorily repaired may cause grudge more than or as much as the grudge caused by product failure itself. Results showed that repairing a fault in a product does not terminate grudge for both males and females. All females who received product repaired continue holding grudge, whereas 50% of males who received this corrective action got rid of the grudge.

Table 5.104: Repair the product*grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender			Grudgeholding lasting		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	27	65	92
		% repaired the product	29.3%	70.7%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	0	3	3
		% repaired the product	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	27	68	95
		% repaired the product	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	39	115	154
		% repaired the product	25.3%	74.7%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	3	3	6
		% repaired the product	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	42	118	160
		% repaired the product	26.2%	73.8%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	66	180	246
		% repaired the product	26.8%	73.2%	100.0%
	Ticked	Count	3	6	9
		% repaired the product	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Total	Count	69	186	255
		% repaired the product	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%

The association between the two variables of repairing the product and the continuity of grudge is not statistically significant for all respondents. By calculating Fisher's Exact Test, the relationship between the two variables is not significant ($p > .05$) for both males and females. Therefore, gender does not have an impact on the association between the two variables, repairing the product and holding on to grudge.

Table 5.105: Chi-Square Tests for the association between receiving product repaired and grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	1.230 ^c	1	.267		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.210	1	.646		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.045	1	.153		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.556	.362
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	1.816 ^d	1	.178		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.765	1	.382		
	Likelihood Ratio	1.603	1	.206		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.186	.186
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	.186 ^a	1	.666		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.002	1	.961		
	Likelihood Ratio	.178	1	.673		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.706	.458
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.44.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .85.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.58.

Apology and grudgeholding lasting— Apology does not make any significant difference in holding on to grudge by consumers. Females and males who received apology continued their grudge. More than (70%) did not take apologies as remedy to their grievance like in the case of not getting any apology. Whereas, males grudgeholders relieved a bit after apology (45%) did not hold grudge accordingly.

Table 5.106: Apology*grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender			Grudgeholding lasting		Total
			No	Yes	
female	not ticked	Count	23	58	81
		% within apologized	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	4	10	14
		% within apologized	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
	Total	Count	27	68	95
		% within apologized	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
male	not ticked	Count	33	107	140
		% within apologized	23.6%	76.4%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	9	11	20
		% within apologized	45.0%	55.0%	100.0%
	Total	Count	42	118	160
		% within apologized	26.2%	73.8%	100.0%
Total	not ticked	Count	56	165	221
		% within apologized	25.3%	74.7%	100.0%
	ticked	Count	13	21	34
		% within apologized	38.2%	61.8%	100.0%
	Total	Count	69	186	255
		% within apologized	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%

The relationship between the two variables getting an apology and grudgeholding lasting is not statistically significant for both females and males (see Table 4.107)

Table 5.107: Chi-Square Tests for the association between getting an apology and grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	
female	Pearson Chi-Square	.000 ^c	1	.989		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.000	1	.989		
	Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.608
	N of Valid Cases	95				
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	4.151 ^d	1	.057		
	Continuity Correction ^b	3.118	1	.077		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.779	1	.052		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.056	.043
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	2.483 ^a	1	.115		
	Continuity Correction ^b	1.872	1	.171		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.340	1	.126		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.146	.088
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.20.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.98.

d. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.25.

Giving extra attention and grudgeholding lasting— Giving extra attention helped female consumers to get better and dismiss grudge accordingly (Table 5.108)

Table 5.108: Giving extra attention*grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender			Grudgeholding lasting		Total	
			No	Yes		
female	gave extra attention	not ticked	Count	24	67	91
			% extra attention	26.4%	73.6%	100.0%
	Total	Ticked	Count	3	1	4
			% extra attention	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
			Count	27	68	95
			% extra attention	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
male	gave extra attention	not ticked	Count	40	117	157
			% extra attention	25.5%	74.5%	100.0%
	Total	Ticked	Count	2	1	3
			% extra attention	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%
			Count	42	118	160
			% extra attention	26.2%	73.8%	100.0%
Total	gave extra attention	not ticked	Count	64	184	248
			% extra attention	25.8%	74.2%	100.0%
	Total	Ticked	Count	5	2	7
			% extra attention	71.4%	28.6%	100.0%
			Count	69	186	255
			% extra attention	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%

Table 5.109 reveals the significant association between the two variables giving extra attention and grudgeholding lasting for females.

Table 5.109: Chi-Square Tests for the association between getting extra attention and grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	4.453 ^c	1	.035		
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.384	1	.123		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.909	1	.048		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.051	.051
	N of Valid Cases	95				
male	Pearson Chi-Square	2.580 ^d	1	.108		
	Continuity Correction ^b	.891	1	.345		
	Likelihood Ratio	2.189	1	.139		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.169	.169
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	7.179 ^a	1	.007		
	Continuity Correction ^b	5.054	1	.025		
	Likelihood Ratio	6.157	1	.013		
	Fisher's Exact Test				.017	.017
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.89.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.14.

d. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .79.

Replacing the faulted product and grudgeholding lasting— Results revealed that replacing failed or broken products did not help in reducing grudge or eliminate it. More than 60% of females reported that the company replaced the faulted product but did not help to terminate their grudge. However, more than 50% of males got better.

Table 5.110: Replacing the product*grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender			Grudgeholding lasting		Total	
			No	Yes		
female	replace the product	not ticked	Count	25	64	89
			% replace the product	28.1%	71.9%	100.0%
		ticked	Count	2	4	6
			% replace the product	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
	Total		Count	27	68	95
			% replace the product	28.4%	71.6%	100.0%
male	replace the product	not ticked	Count	36	113	149
			% replace the product	24.2%	75.8%	100.0%
		ticked	Count	6	5	11
			% replace the product	54.5%	45.5%	100.0%
	Total		Count	42	118	160
			% replace the product	26.2%	73.8%	100.0%
Total	replace the product	not ticked	Count	61	177	238
			% replace the product	25.6%	74.4%	100.0%
		ticked	Count	8	9	17
			% replace the product	47.1%	52.9%	100.0%
	Total		Count	69	186	255
			% replace the product	27.1%	72.9%	100.0%

Results indicate that the association between the two variables, replacing the products and continuity of grudgeholding is significant for males ($p < .05$). Therefore, it is partial association. When controlling for gender, the relationship between the two variables is no longer statistically significant. However, a partial association remains for male respondents. In conclusion, gender does have an impact on the relationship between the two variables.

Table 5.111: Chi-Square Tests for the association between replacing the product and grudgeholding lasting, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)	
female	Pearson Chi-Square	.076 ^c	1	.783	1.000	.550
	Continuity Correction ^b	.000	1	1.000		
	Likelihood Ratio	.074	1	.786		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	95				
male	Pearson Chi-Square	4.885 ^d	1	.027	.037	.037
	Continuity Correction ^b	3.442	1	.064		
	Likelihood Ratio	4.279	1	.039		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	160				
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	3.691 ^a	1	.055	.085	.055
	Continuity Correction ^b	2.686	1	.101		
	Likelihood Ratio	3.335	1	.068		
	Fisher's Exact Test					
	N of Valid Cases	255				

a. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.60.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

c. 2 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.71.

d. 1 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.89.

When calculating the strength of the association, Phi= -.175. Therefore, it is small to moderate relationship.

Table 5.112: Symmetric Measures

Grudgeholder's gender			Value	Approx. Sig.
female	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.028	.783
		Cramer's V	.028	.783
	N of Valid Cases		95	
male	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.175	.027
		Cramer's V	.175	.027
	N of Valid Cases		160	
Total	Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.120	.055
		Cramer's V	.120	.055
	N of Valid Cases		255	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Thus, an offended customers who held a grudge against a company or organization for some reason tend to continue holding the grudge regardless of the suggested corrective actions, in general. However, males could heal from it more than females when they received some recoveries like refund, product replacement, company or organization credit. Females only get better when they get more attentions. Repairing the product and apologizing did not help to dismiss grudge for both males and females.

Grudgeholding lasting impact on repurchase intentions— The majority of the consumers, (more than 60%) In the case of keep holding on the grudge, insist that they will not buy or deal again. 44.1% of the females said that they definitely will not purchase or patronize with the offender again, 26.5% said will not, 23.5% said may be, 5.9% said will buy again and non-confirmed their return by definitely will.

Most grudgeholding males also did not want to do business again, 38.1% assured their exit by choosing definitely would not, 28.0% said that they will not, 22.0% they might return but not sure, 7.6% will come back to the source of offence even with their grudge and 4.2% assured their returning and patronizing (Table 5.113)

Table 5.113: Grudgeholding lasting impact on purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender			Purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again					Total	
			I definitely won't	I will not	Maybe	I will	I definitely will		
Female	Grudgeholding lasting	No	Count	9	2	9	6	1	27
			% within Grudge-lasting	33.3%	7.4%	33.3%	22.2%	3.7%	100.0%
	Yes	Count	30	18	16	4	0	68	
		% within Grudge-lasting	44.1%	26.5%	23.5%	5.9%	0.0%	100.0%	
	Total	Count	39	20	25	10	1	95	
		% within Grudge-lasting	41.1%	21.1%	26.3%	10.5%	1.1%	100.0%	
male	Grudgeholding lasting	No	Count	8	4	22	7	1	42
			% within Grudge-lasting	19.0%	9.5%	52.4%	16.7%	2.4%	100.0%
	Yes	Count	45	33	26	9	5	118	
		% within Grudge- lasting	38.1%	28.0%	22.0%	7.6%	4.2%	100.0%	
	Total	Count	53	37	48	16	6	160	
		% within Grudge-lasting	33.1%	23.1%	30.0%	10.0%	3.8%	100.0%	
Total	Grudgeholding lasting	No	Count	17	6	31	13	2	69
			% within Grudge-lasting	24.6%	8.7%	44.9%	18.8%	2.9%	100.0%
	Yes	Count	75	51	42	13	5	186	
		% within Grudge-lasting	40.3%	27.4%	22.6%	7.0%	2.7%	100.0%	
	Total	Count	92	57	73	26	7	255	
		% within Grudgeholding lasting	36.1%	22.4%	28.6%	10.2%	2.7%	100.0%	

The majority of grudgeholders of both females and males who were still on holding to grudge were more likely to exit. Likelihood Ratio calculates the significance of the relationship between the two groups when there is violation in the expected counts. For females, the relationship between holding on to grudge and the consumers' future response of whether exit or not is statistically significant (Likelihood Ratio=12.138, df=4, $p<.05$). For males, the relationship is statistically significant as well (Likelihood Ratio=20.336, df=4, $p<.05$). Therefore, there is very strong evidence of the relationship between the two variables, holding on to grudge and exit (Likelihood Ratio=27.388, df=4, $p<.001$). Calculating Spearman's rho shows that the relationship between the two variables is also very strong and negative (Spearman's rho=-.252** and $p=.000$). In other words, holding on to grudge decrease the likelihood of purchasing and patronising again. Hence, the hypothesis H4a is supported in terms of the association between holding on to grudge and exit. That is, H4a: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (such as anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal etcetera) and (grudgeholding lasting)

However, there were no gender differences in the consumers' future attitude in terms of exiting the relationship with the offending company or organization (see Table 5.114)

Table 5.114: Chi-Square Tests for the association between grudgeholding lasting and purchasing or dealing with the company/organization again, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
female	Pearson Chi-Square	12.010 ^b	4	.017
	Likelihood Ratio	12.138	4	.016
	Linear-by-Linear Association	6.714	1	.010
	N of Valid Cases	95		
male	Pearson Chi-Square	20.287 ^c	4	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	20.336	4	.000
	Linear-by-Linear Association	9.159	1	.002
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	27.046 ^a	4	.000
	Likelihood Ratio	27.388	4	.000
	Linear-by-Linear Association	15.511	1	.000
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 1 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.89.

b. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .28.

c. 3 cells (30.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.58.

Current emotions— Majority of grudgeholding consumers regulated their negative emotions after having bad experience to the extent of feeling indifferent whether they receive help or not (38.8% who got help were indifferent, and 40.6% who got no help were indifferent).

Quarter of females released their grudge, while the rest did not. There were 37% females continued the grudge harbouring but felt indifferent as well. Almost 20% got worse than before. However, there were less than 20% got better than when the offence happened (see Figure 5.11)

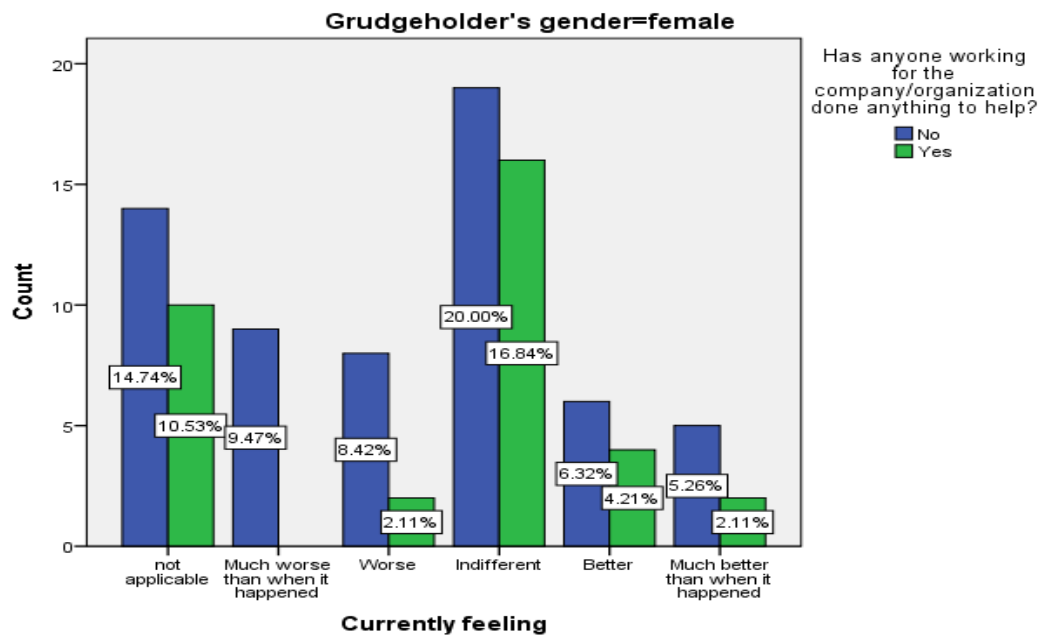


Figure 5.11: Current emotions for females

It is clear from Figure 5.12 that most males were indifferent as well. They hold grudge but still not ready to be better than when they experienced the offence the first time.

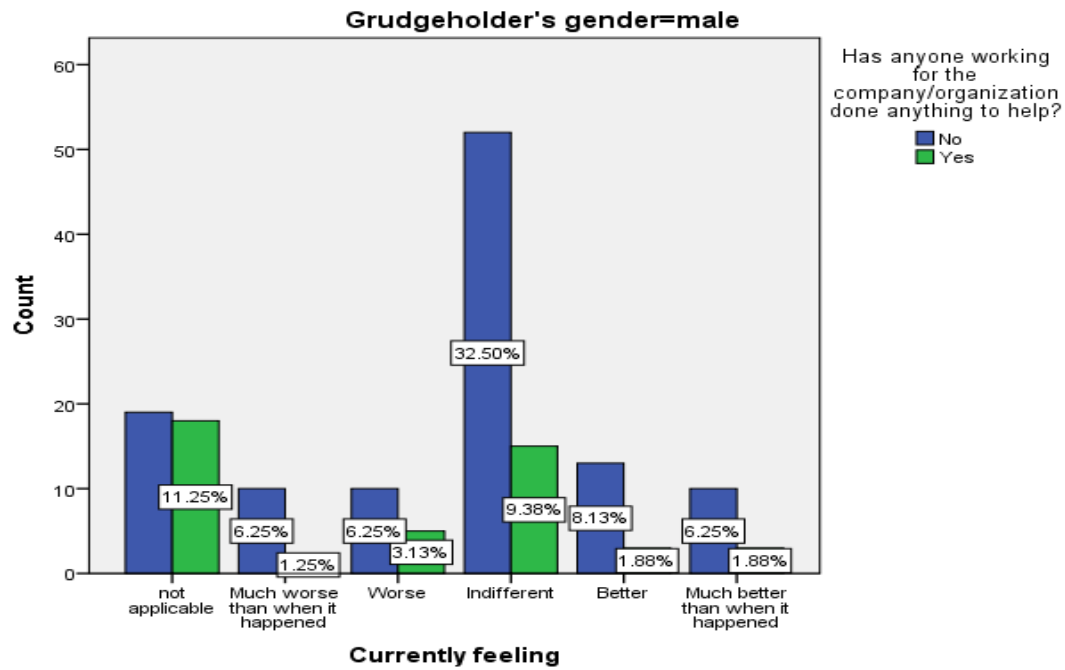


Figure 5.12: Current emotions for males

Table 5.115 reveals the differences between the two groups (females and males) and (help and no help). According to females, there were nearly 28% females felt worse and even much worse than before when they did not receive any help comparing to nearly 6% who received help but still not getting any better. There were 31% did not get help and felt indifferent comparing to 47% indifferent even with help. In addition, there were 18% females did not get any help but they were better and 18% got help and became better. However, 29% reported no grudge when they helped comparing to 23% without grudge even when they did not get help.

Whereas for males, there were nearly 18% did not get help and became worse and 15% get help but felt worse and much worse than before. There were 46% felt indifferent when not being helped comparing to 33% indifferent even with help. Furthermore, there were nearly 20% males not helped but they got better or even much better than before comparing to 14% got better when they were helped. Also, 17% males reported that they did not have grudge even without finding somebody to help comparing to 39% who found help.

Table 5.115: The impact of corrective action on the currently emotion, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender		Currently feeling					Total	
		not applicable	Much worse	Worse	Indifferent	Better		Much better
Female	% no help	23.0%	14.8%	13.1%	31.1%	9.8%	8.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	14.7%	9.5%	8.4%	20.0%	6.3%	5.3%	64.2%
	% with help	29.4%	0.0%	5.9%	47.1%	11.8%	5.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.5%	0.0%	2.1%	16.8%	4.2%	2.1%	35.8%
	Total	25.3%	9.5%	10.5%	36.8%	10.5%	7.4%	100.0%
			25.3%	9.5%	10.5%	36.8%	10.5%	7.4%
Male	% no help	16.7%	8.8%	8.8%	45.6%	11.4%	8.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	11.9%	6.2%	6.2%	32.5%	8.1%	6.2%	71.2%
	% with help	39.1%	4.3%	10.9%	32.6%	6.5%	6.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	11.2%	1.2%	3.1%	9.4%	1.9%	1.9%	28.8%
	Total	23.1%	7.5%	9.4%	41.9%	10.0%	8.1%	100.0%
			23.1%	7.5%	9.4%	41.9%	10.0%	8.1%
Total	% no help	18.9%	10.9%	10.3%	40.6%	10.9%	8.6%	100.0%
	% of Total	12.9%	7.5%	7.1%	27.8%	7.5%	5.9%	68.6%
	% with help	35.0%	2.5%	8.8%	38.8%	8.8%	6.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	11.0%	0.8%	2.7%	12.2%	2.7%	2.0%	31.4%
	Total	23.9%	8.2%	9.8%	40.0%	10.2%	7.8%	100.0%
			23.9%	8.2%	9.8%	40.0%	10.2%	7.8%

According to the results in Table 5.116, Likelihood Ratio calculates the significance of the relationship between the two groups when there is violation in the expected counts. For females, helping and not helping by the source of offence is significantly related to their current emotion whether they getting much worse, worse, indifferent, better, much better, or no grudge at all (Likelihood Ratio=11.2, df=5, $p < .05$). Whereas, the relationship between the two variables is not statistically significant for males (Likelihood Ratio=10, df=5, $p > .05$).

The results indicate that there is a partial association. In conclusion, when controlling for gender the relationship between the two variables receiving help and the current feeling is no longer statistically significant over all. However, a partial association remains for females. In conclusion, the respondents' gender does have an impact on the relationship between the two variables.

Table 5.116: Chi-Square Tests for the association between corrective action and current emotion, by gender

Grudgeholder's gender		Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Female	Pearson Chi-Square	8.198 ^b	5	.146
	Likelihood Ratio	11.209	5	.047
	Linear-by-Linear Association	.184	1	.668
	N of Valid Cases	95		
Male	Pearson Chi-Square	10.470 ^c	5	.063
	Likelihood Ratio	10.047	5	.074
	Linear-by-Linear Association	6.533	1	.011
	N of Valid Cases	160		
Total	Pearson Chi-Square	11.431 ^a	5	.043
	Likelihood Ratio	12.165	5	.033
	Linear-by-Linear Association	3.013	1	.083
	N of Valid Cases	255		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.27.

b. 5 cells (41.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.51.

c. 4 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.45.

Thus, grudgeholders are less likely to purchase from the shop or company responsible for the grudge causing incident in the future, possibly due to the continued presence of the grudge that enhances their negativity of feeling indifferent but not better or much better than when it happened (Table 5.117)

Table 5.117: Current feelings and repurchase intentions of grudgeholders

	Yes	No
Do grudgeholders still hold the grudge?	186 (72.9%)	69 (27.1%)
	Mean	Std. Dev.
Grudgeholders' current feelings regarding the situation	2.28**	1.576
Grudgeholders' interest in purchasing again from the company or store	2.21**	1.123

**Based upon 5 point Likert-type scale: 1 = Much worse than when it happened; 5 = Much better than when it happened.

***Based upon 5 point Likert-type scale: 1 = I definitely will not purchase from them again; 5 = I definitely will purchase from them again.

Products and service recoveries are responsible for identifying the aggrieved consumers intentions whether to do business again or just exit with no return. Table 5.118 reveals a statistically significant relationship between corrective action and stay or exit. Table 5.119 reveals which exact action taken by the companies and organizations did help in alleviating the negative emotions and in motivating the future intentions of purchasing and patronizing again. It seemed that offering the company's credit and giving extra attentions were the most corrective actions to influence consumers emotions. Males preferred the financial benefits whereas females aimed to get extra attention. However, consumers reported their intentions to purchase again when they get refund. Hence, the hypothesis H4b (that is, consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraisal process of the grievance outcome) is supported.

Table 5.118: Impact of Company Intervention on grudgeholders current emotions and repurchase intentions

	Companies or organizations: did help	Companies or organizations: did not help	Sig.
Grudgeholders' current emotion	2.03	2.39	.083
Grudgeholders' intention to repurchase	2.41*	2.12	0.05

*n=255

**Based upon 5 point Likert-type scale: 1 = Much worse than when it happened; 5 = Much better than when it happened.

***Based upon 5 point Likert-type scale: 1 = I definitely will not purchase from them again; 5 = I definitely will purchase from them again

5.119 Impact of specific company solutions initiatives on grudgeholder's current feelings and repurchase Intentions

Intervention initiative	Mean—Grudgeholder current feeling	Sig.	Mean—Grudgeholder Purchase intentions	Sig.
Gave refund	2.24	.013*	2.68	.022*
Did not give refund	2.28		2.16	
Offered credit	.60	.022*	2.80	.202
Did not offer credit	2.31		2.20	
Repaired the product	1.67	.216	2.22	.876
Did not repair the product	2.30		2.21	
Replace the product	1.17	.141	2.71	.052*
Did not replace the product	2.32		2.18	
Apologized	2.29	.998	2.18	.831
Did not apologized	2.28		2.22	
Gave extra attention	1.00	.051**	3.00	.034*
Did not give extra attention	2.31		2.19	

It is clear that emotions trigger not only the problem focused coping but also emotions are responsible to provoke emotion-focused coping such as avoidance or exit. The results showed that consumer grudgeholding emotions which did not get better after six months at least of the offence occurrence, played an important role in decrease the probability of repeat business and in contrast increase the chance of exit and switch to competitors. Besides, the appraised emotions which are categorized under the same valence took a part in deterring the intention of the wronged consumers to keep trying and rectifying the situation. Therefore, the other rout of coping response (emotion-focused) is activated supporting the hypothesis H7b: that is, The continuity of perceived negative emotions triggers the other route of coping (that is, emotion-focused) especially avoidance.

Table 5.120: Impact of current emotions on coping responses such as the intentions of re-purchase and the intentions on more trials to rectify the situation

Grudgeholders' current emotion	Mean—Grudgeholder Purchase intentions	Sig.	Mean—Secondary trial to rectify the situation	Sig.
grudge-free	2.56	.005***	.10	.011**
Much worse	1.76		.38	
Worse	1.84		.32	
Indifferent	2.07		.14	
Better	2.38		.23	
Much better	2.60		.10	
Total	2.21		.17	

*n=255

**Based upon 5 point Likert-type scale: 1 = Much worse than when it happened; 5 = Much better than when it happened.

***Based upon 5 point Likert-type scale: 1 = I definitely will not purchase from them again; 5 = I definitely will purchase from them again

Table 5.121 shows the impact of each emotion on grudgeholding lasting and re-purchase intentions. Consumers who experience anger, disgust and betrayal were among those who continued harbouring grudge. Furthermore, consumers who were angry, cheated and disappointed exit the relationship. Thus, the hypothesis H4a is supported in terms of the relationship between appraising the negative emotion and exit H4a: Consumer grudgeholding behaviour (exit) is positively related to the appraised experience of intense negative emotion (such as anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal, etcetera) and (grudgeholding lasting).

Table 5.121: Impact of emotion categories on grudgeholding lasting and intentions to stay or exit

Emotion categories	Mean— grudgeholding lasting	Sig.	Mean— Purchase intentions	Sig.
angry	.78	.041**	2.05	.004**
Not angry	.66		2.46	
Disgust	.85	.008***	2.11	.371
Not disgust	.68		2.25	
Shocked	.76	.580	2.09	.381
Not shocked	.72		2.24	
Surprised	.70	.609	2.33	.467
Not surprised	.74		2.19	
Afraid	.90	.217	2.30	.801
Not afraid	.72		2.22	
Fearful	1.00	.132	2.83	.171
Not fearful	.72		2.20	
Humiliated	.82	.368	2.41	.448
Not humiliated	.72		2.20	
Cheated	.84	.001***	1.92	.001***
Not cheated	.66		2.40	
Disappointed	.73	.913	2.38	.029*
Not disappointed	.73		2.07	
Indifferent	1.00	.290	2.67	.482
Not different	.73		2.21	

Future coping response following re-appraisal— Results show that the chi-square value is significant ($p < .05$). There are significant differences in the frequency of the consistency in seeking for redress, and the results show that the grudgeholders are largely not interested in rectifying their problems. (Chi-square= 109.36, $df=1$, $p < .05a$. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 127.5.

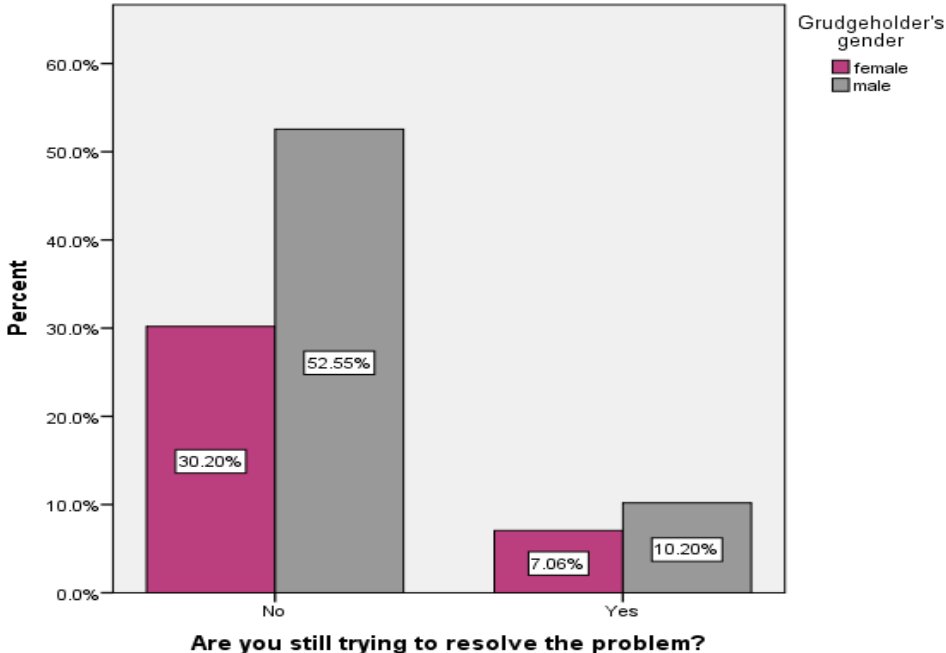


Figure 5.13: Intentions for more coping responses in the future, by gender

There were 82.7% did not show any interest in keep trying for rectifying the situation. More than third did not want to waste their time or efforts. 16% stated that it will not help (see Table 5.122)

Table 5.122: Future coping response following re-appraisal

Are you still trying to resolve the problem?	Yes	No
	17.3%	82.7%
Why did you stop?		
I stopped because it does not worth time or effort	44.7%	
I stopped because it did not think it would help	15.7%	
I stopped because it happened too recently	2.0%	
Please give reason	10.2%	

5.6 Gender Differences

The following results showed that males and females did not differ in their consumer grudgeholding behaviours dramatically, but they differ in their appraisal considerations of the negative shopping experiences. Both males and females who reported their harbouring grudge against a company or an organization decided to take action and complain to the source of aggression to get their justice back. Grudgeholding males and females told at least 2-4 individuals outside the offending company or organization. There were no gender differences in experiencing the negative emotions. Males and females felt angry, cheated, disappointed, disgusted, humiliated. Grudgeholders could not get their negative emotions out. Their grudge lasts even after product and service recovery. They decided to exit and not to seek the resolution again because they think it does not worth time or effort. This supports Hypotheses H9a (that is, there are no gender differences when complaining to the company/organization about bad experience regardless of the experienced emotion), and supported H9b partially (that is, there are no gender differences when telling others about bad experience N-WOM) because there is one difference in terms of expressing anger. Angry females spread word-of-mouth more than angry males. Furthermore, the results supported H10a :There are no gender differences in terms of maintaining or exiting the relationship when facing bad experience, and H10b: Most females and males grudgeholding consumers tend to exit the relationship with no intention to return. (see Table 5.123)

Table 5.123: Gender differences in primary responses

Gender differences in primary responses		Mean	Std.Deviation	Sig.
Complaining	female	.77	.424	.238
	male	.70	.460	
	Total	.73	.447	
Word-of-mouth	female	.77	.424	.995
	male	.77	.423	
	Total	.77	.423	
Word-of-mouth scope	female	2.33	1.759	.410
	male	2.53	2.003	
	Total	2.45	1.915	
Re-purchase intention	female	2.09	1.092	.201
	male	2.28	1.139	
	Total	2.21	1.123	

Results showed that there were no differences between males and females in experiencing the suggested negative emotions (for example, anger, disgusted, humiliated, cheated, disappointed, fear), but there were some differences in terms of expressing specific types of emotions. On one hand, all the suggested negative emotions triggered but not caused complaining behaviours for both gender groups. On the other hand, some negative emotions (anger, disgust, cheated, disappointed) motivated word-of-mouth comparing to other emotions like fear which discourage the grudgeholders from spreading word-of-mouth. The only gender difference in terms of emotion impact on males and females tendency to spread the word is anger influence. Angry females spread word-of-mouth more than angry males. However, males were interested about monetary benefits such as refund, getting the shop credit, and replacing the product. Whereas, females were seeking for getting extra attention. Therefore, The hypothesis H8a: (that is, males and females are different in their appraisal considerations of the negative shopping experiences) is supported and the hypothesis H9b: (that is, there are gender differences when telling others about bad experience N-WOM) is partially supported because males and females similarly tell others about their negative experience, but angry females told others more than angry males. (see Tables 123, 124,125).

Table 5.124: Gender differences in emotions

Gender differences in emotions		Mean	Std.Deviation	Sig.
Anger	female	.63	.485	.375
	male	.58	.496	
	Total	.60	.492	
Disgusted	female	.26	.443	.601
	male	.29	.457	
	Total	.28	.451	
Shocked	female	.18	.385	.325
	male	.23	.423	
	Total	.21	.409	
Surprised	female	.09	.294	.015*
	male	.21	.410	
	Total	.17	.375	
Afraid	female	.03	.176	.630
	male	.04	.205	
	Total	.04	.194	
Fearful	female	.01	.103	.293
	male	.03	.175	
	Total	.02	.152	
Humiliated	female	.08	.279	.389
	male	.06	.231	
	Total	.07	.250	
Cheated	female	.39	.490	.946
	male	.39	.490	
	Total	.39	.489	
Disappointed	female	.46	.501	.839
	male	.45	.499	
	Total	.45	.499	
Indifferent	female	.00	.000	.181
	male	.02	.136	
	Total	.01	.108	
Current emotion	female	2.20	1.595	.541
	male	2.33	1.568	
	Total	2.28	1.576	
Grudgeholding lasting	female	.72	.453	.707
	male	.74	.441	
	Total	.73	.445	

The majority of grudgeholding consumers especially the angry cheated and/or afraid intended to exit the relationship showing no gender differences (Table 5.125). Therefore the hypothesis H10a: (There are gender differences in terms of maintaining or exiting the relationship when facing bad experience) is rejected. Most males and females did not want to keep trying to restore the situation for several some major reasons (such as not worth time or effort and did not think it will help). Results did not show any gender differences regarding their future behaviour of keep trying to get the required outcome. It is concluded that grudgeholders preferred to go through the other route of coping response which means (emotion-focused coping) like in the case of avoidance supporting H7b: (The continuity of perceived negative emotion triggers the other route of coping (that is, emotion-focused) especially avoidance).

Table 5.125: Gender differences in the future behaviours

Gender differences in the future behaviours		Mean	Std.Deviation	Sig.
Re-purchase intention	female	2.09	1.092	.201
	male	2.28	1.139	
	Total	2.21	1.123	
Trials intentions	female	.19	.394	.583
	male	.16	.370	
	Total	.17	.379	
Not worth time or effort	Female	.40	.492	.246
	male	.48	.501	
	Total	.45	.498	
Did not think it will help	Female	.18	.385	.457
	male	.14	.352	
	Total	.16	.364	
Happened too recently	Female	.01	.103	.422
	male	.03	.157	
	Total	.02	.139	

H6b	example, anger, disgust, disappointed, humiliated, surprised, etcetera.) Grudgeholders are inclined to complain about their negative experience.	Supported
H7a	Grudgeholders who perceive the outcome of their coping response (for example, complaining) as useless in venting their negative emotions continue their grudge.	Supported
H7b	The continuity of perceived negative emotion triggers the other route of coping (that is, emotion-focused) especially avoidance.	Supported
H8a	Males and females are different in their appraisal considerations of the negative shopping experiences.	Supported
H8b	Costs affect males' orientation of holding grudge more than females.	Rejected
H9a	There are gender differences when complaining to the company/organization about bad experience regardless of the experienced emotion.	Rejected
H9b	There are gender differences when telling others about bad experience N-WOM.	Supported partially
H10a	There are gender differences in terms of maintaining or exiting the relationship when facing bad experience.	Rejected
H11a	There are gender differences in terms of their current grudgeholding emotions.	Rejected
H11b	There are gender differences in terms of holding on to grudge	Rejected

Chapter 6 : Discussion and conclusion

6.1 Introduction

Everyone has, at some time or other, been hurt deeply by someone close or not. Grudgeholding is the consequence of a resentful experience that is strong enough to justify vengeance. Grudgeholding in business is a serious issue because a small mistake by a service provider, for example, can ignite a foolish, extremely emotional behaviour or set of behaviours which have a destructive effects on the marketing entity. Injustice triggers anger and bitterness in heart, which turns into a grudge that ends usually by spending lots of time thinking to get back of the offenders. Grudgeholding consumers will do anything basically to retrieve their justice and balance. Many people hold grudge that is deep enough to last a lifetime. Holding on to grudge or forgive the offender is a personal issue that is determined through the cognitive-emotive process of consumer grudgeholding represented in chapter three. However, many factors such as age, gender, and culture may impact the whole process of grudgeholding. Therefore, next is the discussion of all findings of the research. The results described in previous chapter were intended to answer some questions like the causes of grudgeholding formation, the psychological process of grudgeholding (that is, cognition, emotion, and response), the important role of emotion in maintaining or dismissing the grudge, and whether young males and females are similar when they experience and express their grudge.

6.2 Discussion

Despite extensive efforts and considerable spending to make customers happy, things do not always go right especially in service delivery. When things go wrong negative emotions, such as anger, disgust, frustration and even rage, are experienced and displayed in response to what so-called the perceived “disequilibrium” (Bagozzi, 1999). Consumers acknowledge the intolerable situation, or what so called “flashpoint” (Aron, 2001) which is ignited by a single event or an accumulation of events or sometimes the recovery process and outcomes per se. When the service fails, recovery attempts by service providers may enhance or enflame these negative emotions (Nguyen and Kennedy, 2002).

The discussion of the results follows the sequential order of the model because it explains consumer grudgeholding from the initiation to the end. Gender differences are addressed throughout the discussion. First, the initiation of grudge is discussed to understand what leads to grudge formation based on the respondents self-reports. Second, discussing the appraisal process followed by the grudgeholders is addressed. Third, the experienced emotions and their association with the actions taken are discussed. Finally, the consequences of the coping responses and whether grudge continues or relinquish are presented.

The model that is inspired by attribution theory, justice theory, expectation confirmation theory, Aron model of consumer grudgeholding and appraisal theory, will tell the whole story of consumption grudgeholding. The proposed model updated Aron's model (2001) by adding the cognition-emotion component which considers the varied strategies of cognitive appraisals, the role of emotion explicitly and the various coping approaches of the grudgeholding consumer respectively. This model is different from Aron's model by not just detailing the grudgeholders' various responses "manifestation" (Aron, 2001), but also by including and describing the most frequently experienced emotions by grudgeholders (for example, anger, disappointment, betrayal, disgust, etcetera). The model designed in this study defines grudgeholders by the way they experience and express the negative emotions of grudge. The cognitive-emotive process model of consumer grudgeholding that is described in this dissertation outlines the discussion through its components :

- Flashpoint and grudgeholding initiation
- Appraisal and assessment (primary and secondary appraisal)
- Emotional response
- Manifestation (grudgeholding coping responses)
- Re-appraisal of the grievance outcome

Flashpoint and grudgeholding initiation

The model described in chapter three explains that a negative marketplace experience ignites the flashpoint of the grudgeholders taking them to a disequilibrium state that initiates the process of cognitive-emotive behaviour. The findings of the research supported the appraisal theory in terms of conducting similar sequential steps by

grudgeholding consumers. Drawing upon the cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, Lazarus, 1991; Smith and Lazarus, 1993), the process of consumer grudgeholding provide two types of appraisal, primary and secondary. Essentially, there are plenty of elements integrate together to form a consumer's grudge (for examples, deteriorating in the quality of products and services, unfair price, offence or harm to the health, self-esteem or well-being) which can be summarised by the outcome of the appraisal process. Some consumers hold grudge because they appraise the event negatively, while others did not hold grudge because they appraise the same event positively. Yet, the results described in this dissertation showed that all respondents who reported their grudge accepted the suggested definition of grudge that indicates to a strong lasting feeling of hostility or dislike against a company or an organization that treated them badly. Therefore, they appraised their experience within market as negative and blamed others but not the self for the responsibility. These findings are similar to those of Bonifield and Cole (2007) and Choi and Mattila (2008) that angry consumers perceive others as responsible for a service failure.

Studying the negative experiences of the research respondents showed that most grudgeholding cases aroused regardless of the price and cost incurred for a product or a service. Consumers held grudge when they get cheap products and services same as when they get expensive products and services. Less expensive products and services are largely responsible for grudge for both females and males. Over half of the grudge was about products and services which costs £50 or less. No wonder why! The respondents of the research were young students who spend mostly on daily cheap products and services.

Some studies shows the complaining about product is more frequent than the one about service especially for those who are upset (Hunt and hunt, 1990). Others argued about complaining in the service context (Blodget et al., 1995; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). Holding grudge can be a result to a product failure, bad service, brand reputation, corporate wrongdoings, violation or irresponsibility (Grappi et al., 2013; Zarantonello et al., 2016) etcetera. This research concentrates on grudge events resulting from purchasing experiences involving a company or an organizations. Yet, it showed that holding grudge makes no difference whether it is a product or a service. The cost does not make any difference according to this research; consumers hold grudge when they spend £1 same as when they spend £500. This supports Aron et al. (2006, 2008) results when he compared younger consumers (25 and younger) with older (25 and older) and found that

both age groups can hold a grudge according to the life they run. Younger consumers are usually characterized as low income winners, so less expensive products or services (such as food, clothing item, or service at restaurant) are largely responsible for causing grudge. The cost of the products and services per se were not responsible for holding grudge by customers and raising their negative emotions like anger disgust, disappointment and betrayal, but rather it is the cognitive-emotive process (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Stephens and Gwinner, 1998; Zourrig et al., 2009) which indicates to the perceived wrongdoing or offence that caused their disequilibrium state. Yet, some examples of the appraised negative experiences are presented in the next step of the model.

Appraisal and assessment (primary and secondary appraisal)

It is not the event itself that causes grudgeholding, but rather the appraisal outcome of the whole process. Lazarus (1991) proposed three goal-related primary appraisal components, which they determine if an individual has emotions and whether the emotions are negative or positive. These components are: (1) Goal relevance (how important is the goal); (2) goal congruence (how the event prevents the individual from achieving the goal); and (3) ego-involvement (how the event affects individual ego-identity). These items moderate the relationship between the cause of the problem and customer negative emotions. First, dissatisfied customers decide if the problem is related to the planned or potential goals. Second, customers evaluate the extent to which their goals are inhibited. Finally, customers assess their level of ego involvement such as touching their moral or religious values, self-respect, beliefs and opinions. The three components of primary appraisal are more likely to result in the event or events being appraised as stressful (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). Furthermore, primary appraisal takes into account other elements (for example, the severity magnitude and frequency of the offence) (Zourrig et al., 2009). Generally, grudgeholders appraise the incidents as negative and offensive when they are goal relevant, goal incongruent and ego involving (Lazarus, 1991b; Stephens and Gwinner, 1998).

The findings are in compatible to what have been discussed in terms of appraising a negative experience in the market (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Folkman et al., 1986; Maltby et al., 2007; Zourrig et al., 2009). Consumers evaluate whether a specific encounter with the environment is harmful, threatening and related to their goals and well-being (that is called primary appraisal). The open-ended questions in the current study provided some

examples of what happened and how grudgeholding consumers appraised their experiences with some companies and organizations negatively. A relevant example of an experience that is appraised as threatening to well-being, what happened with one of the consumers in the study that:

when she ordered food from KFC to discover how bad it is, which made her feel angry, shocked, disgusted, cheated and disappointed. She responded by complaining to the restaurant and even she told more than 13 individuals about her negative experience. She exit with no intention to return but long-lasting grudge that did not heal by apology.

The studied grudgeholders appraised what had happened, had thoughts about how to act on the situation, and finally wanted to find out what would be the best coping response to deal with the event and how to regulate their negative emotions. Further, consumers may negatively evaluate the encounter as an offence and an ego-relevance threatening. They assess the severity and the frequency of the wrongdoing primarily like the following example from the responses below:

She faced a rude and insulting service in Aldi that lead her to take an action and complain but without any listening. So, she exit the relationship with no intention to return but holding on the grudge and telling at more than 5 people about the negative experience.

For the majority of the grudgeholders who incurred anger, a possible explanation for the significant relation between anger and having thoughts about how to act upon the situation lies in between two routs either following the innate aggressive response of anger or its repression and searching for alternative ways to respond to the situation. That is, the relationship between dissatisfaction and behavioural responses would be stronger among the more angry customers (Bougie et al., 2003). The stimulus for carrying out these behaviours is proposed to be due to specific emotions induced when consumers learn about and evaluate irresponsible corporate behaviour (Grappi et al., 2013). Yet, their anger that is directed at an external party triggered their intentions to do something (such as complaining to somebody in charge).

He carried grudge and felt angry and disgusted because of the offence that touched his self-esteem when he bought a jacket from Republic and they did not give him a student discount claiming that his student I.D is not good enough.

In the secondary appraisal, the grievated customers appraise and assess their ability to cope with the problem. Secondary appraisal is a complicated process that considers three elements (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984) one of them gets along with the attribution theory (Weiner, 1972, 1985, 1988, 2001, 2010; Folkes, 1988,1990; Graham, 199, Kelley and Michela, 1980). First type of secondary appraisal addresses the responsibility of the wrongdoing and who to blame. Based on attributional theory, consumers attribute causes for bad and dissatisfying experience based on locus of control, stability, and controllability (Folkes, 1984). Attribution of blame (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992), or attribution of the disconfirmation is characterized by either internally cause (consumer's fault) or externally attributed (someone else is responsible), or situational (no one was responsible) (Weiner, 1986; Boote, 1998). Volitional control over the cause refers to the consumer's perception of whether the retailer can prevent the problem or not. Consumers who perceive that the seller could have prevented the problem, but did not, are more likely to be angry and vengeful toward the offending company seeking for not just apology but refund and compensation as well (Folkes, 1984). It is interesting to note that all the grudgeholding cases appraised their negative experiences as somebody's else mistakes that urges them to do something in response. This findings are in conforming to Lazarus thoughts (1966) which suggests that engaging in coping strategies requires a target. Customers who do not know who to blame for the problem do not progress to coping strategies in the cognitive appraisal process (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). When the customer believes that the service provider has the full controllability, or at appraising the locus of the problem as an external cause service failure triggers customer anger towards the service provider (Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2002). The majority of the respondents to this research claimed that a product or a service provider is responsible for the wrongdoing that caused their grudge such as the following examples:

It was their responsibility that she has to wait for hours in the airport to collect lost luggage, this will be appraised as an external cause service failure.

The second type of the secondary appraisal is that consumers evaluate their coping potential, the extent to which they feel they can solve the problem and the likely success of each coping behaviour (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). The results described in the dissertation indicated that the majority of the grudgeholders tend to complain directly to the source of aggress, are in agreement with those obtained about the propensity of dissatisfied customers to complain (Singh, 1988; Aron et al., 2007; Huppertz, 2014; Bolkan, 2015). A possible explanation for this might be that at the present time, many

consumers know that they have the complete right to raise their concern and complain in the customer-business relationship. Therefore, they take the action route to focus on the problem seeking redress.

Thirdly, consumers prediction about the stability of the problems in the future determines their emotions and coping responses. Yet, if the situation is likely to improve in accordance with the appraisal theory then the intensity of the stressful event may deteriorate and the coping behaviours may not be necessary (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). However, sometimes an offended customer may realize the lack of controllability and accountability of the wrongdoing, which eventually results in give-up blame and fault finding (Tsarenko and Gabbott, 2006). When consumers evaluate the experience as positive or irrelevant to one's well-being, no coping actions are required (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998) because there is no disequilibrium condition. The customer recognises soon that the perpetrator has intent to repair the failure especially if it passes the controllability and accountability appraisal. Yet, this will prompt an emotional state change (that is, relinquishment of negative emotions and elicitation of positive ones) and influence on coping outcome (that is, emotional containment) (Zourrig, 2010). Surprisingly according to the findings in this dissertation, for grudgeholding, it was not the case of lacking the information about the controllability, accountability and stability. It was not the case of whom to blame! It was the case of knowing exactly that they had been offended. Their goals were blocked. Their self-esteem and ego-identity were threatened. Most of their stories indicated that they are grudgeholding victims who sought the problem-focused strategy to diffuse their negative emotions. Contrary to dissatisfied consumers who are sometimes uncertain about the reasons behind their dissatisfaction, grudgeholders appraise the situation negatively with certainty of whom to blame that evoke a set of severe negative emotions such as anger disgust, disappointment, and betrayal, like in the following example of the story of one of the respondents to this study:

She assessed the customer service in Specsavers as extremely poor because they did not even bother to apologize for the big delay in delivering her the required glasses. She complained and got a credit, but this does not deter her from feeling angry and telling at least 4 people about the negative experience. She intended to exit with no return.

Studying grudgeholders various stories guided the research to conclude that most causes are appraised as external failure caused by the product and service providers but not the customers themselves to be blamed. Therefore, grudgeholding does not need to trigger an

information-seeking response of who to blame because grudgeholders perceive and take the victim role from the beginning. Grudgeholders were completely angry at the source of offence (product/service providers) so they justified their claim of grieved justice.

Emotional response

Based on the cognitive appraisal theory, emotive reactions are often suggested as an outcome of cognitive appraisal (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). Negative emotions are considered as outcome of stressful cognitive appraisal (Lazarus, 1993). One of the interesting findings of this research is identifying the most frequent grudgeholding emotions. Anger, betrayal, disappointment and disgust are prominent in the grudgeholders emotional experience. Anger stand up and aggression occurs, as a result of a perceived threat or the belief that one has been intentionally mistreated and offended or even because of some frustration or human resentment. The finding of the research were consistent with the idea that external and situational attribution of the problem triggers the emotions of anger, disgust, betrayal, disappointment rather than the emotions of guilt, ashamed and sadness in result to self-blamed (see Stephens and Ginner, 1998; Watson and Spence, 2007).

Anger is evoked for many grudgeholders because they appraise the event as others' fault product or service providers. The findings of the research in terms of the emotions elicited and who to blame support the findings by Bougie and colleagues (2003) about the implications of anger and dissatisfaction in services. They discussed that the information arising from an information-seeking response may clarify who or what is to blame for the service failure. Therefore, they distinguished other emotions such as anger, disgust and sadness from dissatisfaction. If customers hold the service provider responsible for the service failure, anger may arise. Likewise, guilt and shame may arise if customers hold themselves responsible for the service failure, and sadness may result if customers hold circumstances beyond anyone's control responsible for the service failure (Roseman et al. 1996). In consistent with McCullough et al. (2007) and Lerner and Keltner, (2000, 2001), most angry people respond by retaliatory and confronting behaviours such as complaining to get justice, negative word-of-mouth, and avoidance after trying and failing. The respondents of this study preferred to fight (taking an action) instead of flight.

Grudgeholding consumers reported that they had an unpleasant emotion of anger, disgust, betrayal, disappointment as the most prominent experienced emotions but not afraid or other same-valence emotions. The research found out that the majority of the respondents' stories had a reasonable to a strong grudgeholding condition. Consistent with a research by Bonifield and Cole (2007), the current research found that consumers blame the product and/or service provider for their negative experience. They become angry, disgusted and disappointed, which trigger their intentions to retaliate against the source of the offence. Responsibility or who to blame dimension gives a very strong description of the grudgeholders. Research addressed several emotions to describe the grudgeholders accurately and named anger (other-responsibility) as the most noticeable one to be distinguished from others those characterized by self-responsibility like shame and sadness (Weiner et al., 1982; Lerner and Keltner, 2000). The research identified that experiencing fear in response to an offensive situation is the least occurred in the consumer grudgeholding structure. A possible explanation for these results may be the certainty of others' responsibility that urges the risk-seeking behaviour. In line with those observed earlier that fear's appraisal process is related with the propensity to perceive uncertainty greater risk across new situations that lead to risk aversion opposite to anger that lead to risk seeking (Lerner and Keltner, 2000). There are, however, other possible explanations might be the age group and the culture that instigate the consumers' anger but not fear. Further, culture influences the experienced and expressed emotions (Manstead, 2002; Ford and Mauss, 2015) in terms of intensity and the situational events (Stephan et al., 1996). Folkes (1984) showed that undergraduate student respondents from the US experienced strong anger before taking revenge; whereas Shteynberg (2005) found that Korean students experienced shame more than anger before revenge.

In general, grudgeholding consumers know correctly what had happened; they certainly perceive the incident as others' responsibility of the offence so they do not experience fear and guilt or shame in consequence. Surprisingly, no one has mentioned other emotions under the same valence except the suggested in the study. Emotions such as empathy and sympathy were absent basically because most of them appraised the negative experience as others' fault and raised their concerns and complained accordingly. Yet, their differences in appraising their experiences lead to several categories of emotions under the same valence. Consumers who experience any of the suggested negative emotions (for example, anger, betrayal, disappointed, shock and surprise) were inclined to take an action and complain to the company or organization responsible for grudge. These emotions trigger the actions of redress seeking but they are the cause that is not enough to

activate the action of complaining. Complaining occurs as a result to the cognitive-emotive process.

The results described in this study showed that there is no gender differences in terms of the emotions experienced by both males and females. Most of them incurred anger, betrayal, disgust and disappointment against the offending company/organization. Therefore, the findings of the current study support the social-cultural theory that across cultures and time, gender roles and behaviours have changed (Levy and Loken, 2015) particularly for women (Wood and Eagly, 2012) who progressively entered male-dominated occupations to more and more accepting agentic traits like assertiveness.). In western cultures gender emotion stereotypes have lately become less perspective in nature (Niedenthal et al., 2006). In Timmers' et al studies (2003), participants stated that men should be allowed to express sadness and fear as much as women. However, the increasing role of "emotionalization" of western culture decreases the gender differences in expressing feeling (Niedenthal et al., 2006). The idea of "boys don't cry" seems to become less noticeable and a "new emotion norm is emerging that stresses the importance of expressing one's genuine feeling in social interactions" (p. 160). People in individualistic cultures (for example, the United Kingdom) would express emotions to assure their independent self-conceptions.

However, gender difference slightly appears in terms of expressing some of these negative emotions. For example, one interesting finding is that angry females spread word-of-mouth more than angry males. This support the idea of an earlier study by Day and Livingstone (2003) that women would turn to their partner and friends to a greater extent than men would to cope with stressful situations and would seek emotional support to a greater degree than did men. The findings conform to the stereotypical belief from one side that is women are expressively communal, and contradict it from different side that men are inexpressive agentic. Surprisingly, the research contradicts the previous studies of sex differences which assured the inexpressiveness and agentic nature of males through which males avoid femininity (Archer,1996). Both males and females experience the same emotions but they may display them differently. Males and females respondents of the current study act the same they both complain to the company/organization who caused the offending situation, and they both tell others who do not belong to the company/organization about their bad experience.

However, grudgeholders (males and females) who experienced intense negative emotions such as anger and betrayal reported their future behaviour to exit the relationship with no

intention to repurchase and patronize from the same offending company or organization. Consumers who were afraid intended to exit as well. There were no gender differences in terms of the negative emotions impact on the exit behaviour. It might be the second available solution for both males and females consumers to switch to the competitor after the recovery failure.

Manifestation (grudgeholding coping responses)

The model described in this dissertation posits that the cognitive appraisal process and/or the provoked emotions will lead to one of two coping responses or both of them alternatively. Problem-focused coping deals directly with the negative experience in order to find solution (for example, complaining), while emotion-focused coping concentrates on the mental condition trying to regulate one's emotion (for example, denial) (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). The results indicated that most grudgeholding consumers, who experienced negative emotion from the interaction within market, tend firstly to follow the confronting route of coping responses (that is, problem focused). They raise their grievance and complain to the source of aggression to get their balance back, alleviate their negative emotions such as anger and disgust and retrieve their justice. Hence, the results are in compatible with Aron (2001) and Aron et al (2008). They hardly follow the second route of non-confronting (emotion-focused route) in the beginning. These findings conform the idea that angry people do not like to hand themselves to defeat until they pursue all the available options to gain satisfaction and justice (Watson and Spence, 2007). They are more likely to do so in the next phase of appraisal. However, telling others outside the offending company or organization might hold the meaning of problem-focused coping or the meaning of emotion-focused coping according to the purpose of the action. Consumers may tell family and friends to alleviate and regulate their negative emotions (emotion-focused coping), or they may tell others for different reasons (for example, warning others from facing the same negative experience without any intention to harm the aggressor or spreading negative word of mouth in order to destroy the offender's reputation purposely).

The most obvious finding to emerge from the analysis is that both offended males and females consumers were more likely to express their negative emotions such as anger and betrayal by complaining and spreading negative word-of-mouth. The findings are consistent with prior research on the effect of anger on customers' behavioural intentions

that when anger increases, customers are more likely to complain and to engage in negative word-of-mouth and less likely to repurchase the product or service (Folkes et al. 1987; Nyer 1997b; Díaz and Ruíz, 2002; Dubé and Maute, 1996). Therefore, anger was a significant predictor of switching, complaining, third party, and negative word-of-mouth, over and above the effect of dissatisfaction. These results are likely to be related to the huge alternatives available for consumers created by globalization, technology revolution and fierce competition.

Nowadays males and females are quite equal in their rights and responsibilities especially in developed countries such as United Kingdom. Hence, they are familiar with their equality. This research supported the idea of equal rights for both males and females to raise their voices and complain. These results are consistent with those of Aron et al (2008) in which they found that, over %70 of the grudgeholders are quick to voice their concerns with employees of the store, company, or organization. The findings are explained by culture influences on the person commitment whether it is directed to the individual or to the community which in turn diversify the ego involvement. Cultural differences could affect goal relevance, goal incongruence, and the appraisal component is whether or not an important goal is being affected or endangered (Lazarus, 1991). For example complaint-handling failure for many customers is likely perceived as imposing money and time losses. Hui and Au (2001) found that the effectiveness of the three complaint-handling policies such as voice, compensation, and apology may vary between the two national customer groups; the Chinese customers (allocentrics) perceive higher level of unfairness in complaint-handling process failure than do Canadians consumers (idiocentrics). An individualist may develop a strongly autonomous and independent identity capable of challenging the group comparing to the collectivist (Zourrig et al., 2009).

When consumer's objective is obstructed by the seller, negative emotion often arises and instigates the propensity to retaliate. Complaining to the seller is legalized and accepted by most companies and organizations since it alerts them to problems occurrence. Yet, telling the store about an offending issue can solve the problem completely or at least decrease the avoidance length. On the other hand, telling others about bad experience is one of the destructive actions against business because rumours and words spread quickly and easily. Negative word-of-mouth is affected by the emotional condition of the grudgeholding customer (Hunt and Hunt, 1990). The more upset the customers are, the more propensity of telling others arises. Negative word-of-mouth influences other customers shopping behaviours. Spreading negative word-of-mouth by customers about their bad experience

can create pressure on them to walk the talk and stay consistent with their avoidance behaviour.

Angry females are more likely to communicate with others regarding their negative consumption experiences than angry males. The finding indicates that anger and spreading negative word-of-mouth are related significantly for females. On the other hand, the study is consistent with social-cultural theory to discuss gender differences (see Levy and Loken, 2015). In compatible with social role theory (Eagly, 1987) which expects men to be agentic and women to be communal, and Cross and Madson (1997) studies which argue the case of gender differences based on the idea of interdependence versus independence, the research found that females are more prone to express their negative emotions (specifically anger) verbally. The findings are similar to previous research on depression and cognitive emotion regulation (Zlomke and Hahn, 2010), in that women are more likely to focus on the emotional aspects of stressful situations, discuss their emotional experience with others as a way of emotion regulation. It might be their adapted way to express their anger especially it is not socially accepted for them to show their physical violent responses like males

Other negative emotions (disgust, disappointment, cheated, humiliation, shocked and surprised) seem to trigger the likelihood of word-of-mouth for both males and females but not cause the action. However, there is the emotion of fear which plays the opposite effect. The few afraid grudgeholders were less likely to tell others about their negative experience, they are more likely to disappear from view and flight. Therefore, this finding is consistent with Gelder et al., (2004) and Frijda et al., (1989) findings about emotion and action, in that fear foster flight.

Contrary to the theory of interdependence versus independence that suggests, men are less social being than women and the idea of separateness from others discussed by Cross and Madson, which contradicts the essential nature of powerful men who use power and dominance to control over other people, the research found that both gender groups are prone to communicate and raise their voices. Baumeister and Sommer (1997) advocated that western men and women are similar and equal in interdependence relationships. They stated based on the idea of crucial human need to belong (Baumeister and Leary, 1995), that “women's sociality is oriented toward dyadic close relationships, whereas men's sociality is oriented toward a larger group” (p.38).

Thus, the proposition that, women are more social and interdependent whereas, men are more autonomous and independent does not comply with humanity nature of socialisation- mainly in our time in the western culture- because technology and social media are widely used. Social networking and consumer blogs sites are considered as a powerful tool for word-of-mouth (WOM) because consumers can freely communicate and spread brand-related information and sometimes anonymously in a way of getting revenge without any social and behavioural restrictions.

Furthermore, culture is a good reason to justify consumer behaviour (McCort and Malhotra, 1993; Kacen et al., 2002). Culture impacts how we perceive the events as harmful or beneficial, as fair or not fair. Consumers living in an individualistic culture are more likely to seek individual freedom, self-recognition competition, challenging occupations, pleasure, and independence (Dutta-Bergman and Wells, 2002). Yet, persons from more individualistic (idiocentrics) cultures like the sample of this research are more likely to use problem-focused coping strategies (confrontational) that reflect their desire to impact the external environment to reach their coping objectives in order to restore their self-integrity and respect (Zourrig et al., 2009a, 2009b, 2015). Hence, culture influences customers' cognitive-emotive process like in the case of evaluating the incident as fair or unfair which in turn affects their responses' nature. Whereas the concept of perceived unfairness lies at the heart of an experienced harm or loss (Bechwati and Morrin, 2003; Folkes, 1984; Xia et al., 2004), grudgeholders' responses varied according to each cognitive-emotive process. The society that eliminate anger by practising pity, forgiveness, and negative self-evaluation, will have a lower incidence of anger and violence than a society that find retaliation a good response to restore one's self-esteem (Schimmel,1979).

The findings are compatible with some studies of the cultural effects on individuals' behaviours that all accept the fact that the process of revenge, including its eliciting events, consequent cognitions, and emotions may vary considerably across cultures (An et al., 2000; Mattila and Patterson, 2004; Zourrig et al., 2009a, 2009b, 2015; Zourrig, 2010). Most of the respondents tend to adopt the problem solving strategy by complaining to the source of offence that ignited their flashpoint to restore their equilibrium. It is widely acceptable and available option. Furthermore, in cross-cultural studies of conflict resolution, collectivists are more likely to prefer non-confrontational tactics to deal with interpersonal conflicts, whereas individualists generally incline to use confrontational tactics over non-confrontational ones (Ohbuchi and Takahashi, 1994; Takaku, 2000). The research found that firstly grudgeholders followed the fight route (problem-focused coping)

through the most frequent coping responses (complaining and word-of-mouth) instead of flight (exit) for redress seeking. Secondly, they switched to the flight route (emotional-focused coping) after they appraised the outcome of their grievance as unsatisfactory and the achievement of their goals is impossible. Hence, by moving to the next stage of the discussion, re-appraisal, the research tells the rest of the consumer grudgeholding's story.

Re-appraisal of grievance outcome

Aggrieved consumers move toward the next phase of appraisal, (so-named re-appraisal) after choosing the perceived proper route of coping responses (such as, focusing on the problem and expressing their negative emotions through complaining to the source of the offence). They re-appraise their grievance outcome and responds as it embodied in the cognitive-emotive process represented in chapter three. Research by Folkman (1986) clarified the functional relations among appraisal and coping variables and the consequences of stressful encounters. The secondary appraisal does not stop on choosing the perceived coping response to the situation, but it continues to identify whether the received responses of their complaints are satisfactory and equitable to minimize or eliminate their negative emotions responsible for grudge. Yet, equity theory takes its turn in the model to tell if the victims get their justice back and in a station of readiness to dismiss or sustain grudge. It is important to assess the availability and the possibility of the success of various coping strategies in order to retrieve the normal situation (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998).

The appraised outcome may elicit new grudge, (secondary grudge), more grudge, or no grudge. Secondary grudgeholding may be more dangerous than the primary especially when it takes the form of frustration and powerlessness. Yet, grudgeholding provokes bitter silences, avoidance, back-stabbing, negative word-of-mouth, and other passive-aggressive behaviours or retaliations (Bunker and Ball, 2009). They may pursue their redress seeking and take the action route again (such as other plans to take actions, complaining to external agency, spreading rumours to destroy the offender's reputations or even violent crimes). They may wait till they have the opportunity to get back (Bougie et al., 2003). They may restore their justice, dignity, self-esteem and balance, that may lead them to forgiveness or just indifferent feeling. They may regulate their emotions trying to get over the hurt and displaying positive emotions instead such as empathy, sympathy and

forgiveness. They may leave and exit the relationship to the competitors (see Stephens and Gwinner, 1998; Zourrig et al., 2009).

The results described in this study indicate that the majority of the grudgeholding consumers reported receiving no help at all and very few who get response to their complaints appraise the recovery as unsatisfactory and do not help to dismiss their negative emotions completely but holding on to grudge instead. In fact, many grudgeholders reported some improvements in their current emotions specifically the indifference feeling but not the feeling of getting better and much better. What is surprising is the findings those emerged from the analysis about gender differences in terms of appraising the grievance outcomes. Some corrective actions were effective to improve the males repurchase intentions more than females such as giving refund, offering shop or the company credit, and replacing the product. Whereas, females intention to do business again is improved significantly by giving extra attention. These findings is compatible with previous research (for example, Alreck and Settle, 2002; Mitchell and Walsh, 2004; Kruger and Byker, 2009) that women consider shopping pleasurable and one of the relaxing social activities so they shop to love. While, men shop to win, pursue low prices, and aim to defeat retailers (Campbell, 1997; Otnes and McGrath, 2001; Bakewell and Mitchell 2006). Thus, males' intention to repurchase improved when some financial returns offered. Whereas, females consumptions intentions improved when they get extra attention. In this regard, the marketers' responses (refund, apology, offer the store credit, replace or repair the product, pay extra attention, others) did not succeed to restore the angry grudgeholders' equilibrium state completely and dismiss their grudge, but they improved their future intentions to re-purchase slightly.

Apology per se did not help grudgeholders to alleviate their anger and to improve their re-purchase intentions opposing Folkes (1984) findings that when apologies are given, they reduce blame and punishment and increase liking and forgiveness. There are several possible explanations for this result. For example, the grudgeholders did not perceive apologizing as truthful and genuine and therefore would not help in solving the conflict (see Takaku et al., 2001). Apology should be accompanied by some financial compensation to be effective for some customers especially males. Consistently with Hareli and Eisikovits (2006), it is proved that the effectiveness of an apology in achieving the resolution of a conflict depends not only on verbal and non-verbal components included in the apologetic message but also on the revealed emotions when giving apology. Others discuss that the

recovery response should be unique by three different components: empathy, intensity, and timing (Roehm and Brady, 2007; Roschk and Kaiser, 2013).

Offended customers may not want a refund, replaced or repaired product or even free gift but mainly having an opportunity to diffuse their negative emotions as a way to free themselves of extreme anger (Spencer, 2003). This may explain why many customers especially females, who have been offered a product or/and service recovery, remained unhappy grudgeholders and rarely felt much better than when the bad experience happened at the first time. A possible interference is that their emotional responses, following the recovery efforts, have been ignored by service providers (Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005). In this regard, the grudgeholding releasing process should go beyond recovery efforts in a sense that it should insure the relinquishment of aggress and open the door for resolution and even forgiveness. Wirtz and Mattila (2004) indicate that recovery outcomes (for example, compensation), procedures (for example, speed of recovery) and interactional treatment (for example, apology) have a combined influence on post-recovery satisfaction.

Customers re-appraise their initial coping responses' outcomes. It might be satisfactorily to the extent of holding no more grudge and forgiving or forgetting. Otherwise, they run different phase of evaluation and rumination (Berkowitz, 1990; Miller et al., 2003). Researchers have proposed that rumination occurs when people perceive that they failed to achieve an important goal. Accordingly, it is argued that ruminative thoughts trigger the intention to redouble one's efforts to pursue the goal. Hence, when one ruminates about a transgression, the ruminative cognitions may signify the disequilibrium of the psychological state which is threatened by the transgression and need to be fully restored to its normality. Ruminative cognitions therefore may arise to empower people in their pursuits of safety and status. They may respond by fight or flight again (retaliation motivations or avoidance). The interesting findings of the research indicated that most grudgeholders reported that they do not have any intention to pursue their goals and seek any redress again for several reasons such as (it does not help, not worth time and effort). However, this does not indicate that they stopped the rumination of a grieved voice.

As time passes, these customers may remain unwilling to forget the incident, which caused them lots of interactive negative emotions leading them to exit and transfer their patronage to other companies and organizations. It seems that short time (minimum six month) of harbouring the grudge does not help in healing all wounds according to the traditional saying. Some customers, who had experienced a highly negative emotion, tend to be more

ruminative to the transgression that caused them lots of pain and anger. The relations of rumination with avoidance and revenge motivation were mediated by anger toward the offender (McCullough et al., 2007). Therefore, the appraised negative emotion resulting from facing a disgrace and humiliating experience make it very hard to forget the offence which might motivate the desire to sustain their avoidance instead. Most kinds of fault recoveries did not help to dismiss grudge especially apology and product repair. Customers intended avoidance regardless of the post complaints recoveries. Their patronage seems definitely lost, a situation that has extreme consequences on the estimations of customer lifetime value (Hogan et al., 2002). Whether the respondent of this study run any rumination or not about the whole experience, things may change dramatically for younger customers who do not have the experience of older customers. It might be also a matter of time to get over the negative emotion since their grudge is recent at least six month.

There are many factors define the grudgeholders' perceived future behaviour. Negatively affected consumers preferred to exit rather than complaining again for redress seeking after receiving failed recovery. The results described in the study indicated that most of the grudgeholders do not want to spend time and effort again to restore the situation even though they are still holding grudge because they know that it does not help. This finding is compatible with Gregoire et al. (2009) who asserted that a desire for revenge decreases over time as its related emotions (like anger), negative cognitions (such as rumination and betrayal), and retaliatory behaviours become too costly to maintain. Whereas, the desire for avoidance increase because customers have lots of alternatives of the replaceable commercial relationships (Aggarwal, 2004). For the respondents to this study, it seems that the exit choice is cheaper and easier than seeking redress again. The findings are associated with Singh and Wilkes (1996) discussion that higher levels of complaint success likelihood are related to higher levels of complaint behaviour. Besides, it is consistent with Ping (1993) findings that switching costs are negatively associated with actual switching. Switching costs and complaint success likelihood are possibly related to anger (Bougie et al., 2003).

Grudgeholding is a long-lasting feeling in consistent with Aron (2001). The consumers who incurred intense negative emotions such as anger, betrayal, humiliation, disgust and disappointment, struggle to dismiss their grudge. Previous research proved the lasting of grudge which may takes 4 to 20 years to mature, but if the customer is not upset enough the grudge will disappear more quickly (Hunt and Hunt, 1990). Consistent with prior

literature (McCullough et al., 2003, 2007; Grégoire et al., 2009), the research found that, angry, betrayed and humiliated customers are more likely to sustain holding their grudge in terms of carrying negative emotions and avoidance intentions. This result is important because it indicates that customers hold a grudge through their growing intention to avoid interacting with the perpetrators entirely. Furthermore, the results indicated that perceived emotions after redress seeking acted as a full mediator between service recovery attributes (for examples, compensation and apology) and behavioural intentions or future attitude (repurchase intent, complaining and negative word-of-mouth).

General justification of the findings

It is clear that a conflict occurred between two parties, grudgeholders (victims) and companies/organizations (perpetrators) who have different perspectives and are inclined to interpret the same events differently. The victims tend to see the act as severely harmful causing them lots of negative emotions (for example, anger, disgust, shocked, fear, disappointment, helplessness). These emotions, in turn drive them to act (that is, complain inside and outside the company/organization) in order to restore the situation. These findings match what observed in earlier studies (for example, Hirschman, 1970; Hunt and Hunt, 1990; Francis and Davis, 1990, Otto, et al., 2004; Aron, 2001; Aron et al, 2007, 2008). Customers who have high level of relationship quality are more likely to feel disappointed, betrayed and to take transgression seriously if they are the victims of a service failure episode, especially if they asked for help and they let down (Grégoire et al., 2009). Yet, the majority of the grudgeholders were angry and tended to fight instead of flight. They complained and pursue their grieved justice. This findings support the view that angry people systematically perceive less risk and make risk-seeking choices (Lerner and Keltner, 2001; Gambetti and Giusberti, 2016). Yet, the intention for seeking redress is appraised impossible to succeed. Therefore on average, the intention to avoid the aggressors tends to increase. Hence, the research suggests that most grudgeholders tend to change their coping response from problem-focused to emotion-focused after the first recovery failure.

There are several possible explanations of the grudgeholding consumers' behaviour studied in this dissertation, discussed through independence versus interdependence characteristics, self-construals, in addition to intention and attitude. Independence self-construal predicts the use of direct coping (or problem-focused coping) comparing to

interdependence (Cross, 1995). This is compatible with idiocentrics versus allocentrics characteristics too. Consistently, Zourrig et al (2015) posited unlike allocentrics customers, idiocentrics are more likely to adopt a problem-focused strategy rather than an emotion focused strategy especially that they assess the encounter more negatively than do allocentrics, who have a greater willingness to give-up blame and adopt compromising styles of coping over confrontational. Furthermore, Hardie et al. (2006) noted that individuals from independent Western cultures prefer problem-focused coping, while people from interdependent Eastern cultures are said to prefer emotion-focused coping. As idiocentrics are more sensitive than allocentrics to their own rights and invest more efforts in protecting them (for example, they discuss with the aggressor the recovery options). Whereas, allocentrics focus more on social norms and duties in leading their social behaviour when assessing harmful encounters so they may seek avoidance to let their negative emotions go instead of confronting (Shteynberg, 2005, Zourrig et al., 2009).

Moreover, in compatible with Shteynberg (2005) idea about self-construals, that govern the revenge process and Markus and Kitayama (1991) who confirmed how self-construals are strongly shaped by culture; the current research attributed cultural effects on self-construals to direct every stage of the grudge behaviour from doing nothing to taking revenge, from what is seen as a harmful act, to the attribution of blame, and finally to the emotions that stimulate revenge intentions. For example, blame ascription depends on one's cultural values (An, 2001; Zourrig et al., 2015). When individualists experience any failures they blame more others like the service provider (external blame) than themselves. Whereas, collectivist customers are more likely to take the blame personally (self-blame) and less likely to blame the service providers (Watkins and Liu, 1996).

There are, however, other possible explanations to the finding of the research building on theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour in terms of attitude and its mediating effect in predicting people behaviours (Ajzen, 1985; Madden et al., 1992; Albarracin et al., 2001). People form different types of attitudes. One consumer might be brand-loyal, deeply held positive attitude which is really difficult to weaken like in the case of one respondent who reported that he cannot boycott Apple because “they have cool stuff” , while another consumer might have a mildly positive attitude toward a product, but he can abandon it easily as soon as something better appeared (Solomon, 2013). According to the theory, intention to perform a certain behaviour precedes the actual behaviour; and these intentions are determined by attitudes to behaviours and subjective norms. Therefore,

consumers behaviours change by any modifications in the following (their attitude, social pressure, and/or intentions).

Contrary to expectations, this study did not find much of significant gender differences. Additionally, there are some studies that found no significant gender difference in the relationship of commitment, communication and conflict handling on customer loyalty (Ndubisi, 2006), and on perceived relationship quality (Ndubisi, 2009). A possible explanation for these results is that, society makes the difference between men and women. Men and women have made slow but stable exodus from the gender stereotypes. Many women challenged their societies and worked against the oddity. They defied anything that can block their way to get their rights and be equal to men; even their strong emotional stress. They moved from infrastructural roles of sixties and rising to managerial roles and accountabilities (Cebuc and Potecea, 2009). The role of women worldwide is undergoing a dramatic change. Many factors played an effective role in changing of the sex-role stereotype like culture, social class and education. Women and men in the most civilized countries are having the same rights and duties. Their behaviours varies greatly depending on situations, cultures, and historical periods (Wood and Eagly, 2012). This might play the critical role in minimizing gender gap. Therefore, the consumer grudgeholding findings can only be generalized to a specific population of young British students. Since, elder grudgeholding consumers may think, feel, and behave differently due to experiential and situational factors, non-British may think, feel, and behave differently due to cultural differences; and non-students may think, feel, and behave differently.

In summary, the young consumers who had experiences of grudgeholding toward companies/organizations that treated them offensively, were in an emotional disequilibrium that made them more likely to do anything to restore their balance and alleviate their negative emotions (especially anger and betrayal). They focused on the problem to achieve and protect their self-esteem, well-being, dignity, and goals because they were more individualistic, self-centred, confident consumers. Therefore, they raised their voices and claimed justice back by complaining to the source of offence. Besides, they voiced their negative experiences to others with some gender differences in terms of expressing the negative emotions that angry females spread word-of-mouth more than angry males. Yet, grudgeholding continued because the aggrieved consumers appraised the marketing response negatively. They preferred to describe their current emotions as indifferent rather than better or much better. However, males' intentions to purchase again improved slightly

when they got some financial compensations (for example, refund, shop or company's credit, and replace the product). While females' intentions improved when they got extra attention, which in turn indicates to the conformity with agentic men who shop to win and communal women who shop to love. Most of the grudgeholders evaluated the whole experience and found that complaining again will not help besides they do not want to spend more time and effort for not getting the required results. Therefore, their grudge persisted since that their equilibrium conditions were unrestored.

6.3 Conclusion

6.3.1 Research Contributions

Theoretical contributions

Many theories studied consumer behaviour. Some concentrate on consumer's future behaviour. Therefore, they studied attitude to predict consumer behaviour (for example, functional theory of attitudes, the ABC model of attitudes, Self-perception theory, the Fishbein model, the theory of reasoned action, and theory of planned behaviour). Other theories are recognized in studying and explaining post-consumption behaviours, especially satisfaction or dissatisfaction like expectation disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1977) which seeks to explain post-purchase or post-adoption satisfaction as a function of expectations, perceived performance, and disconfirmation of beliefs. In addition, equity theory (Adams, 1965) which suggests that the inputs and outcomes have fundamental equity interpretations that directly translates into satisfaction judgement (Oliver, 2010).

One of the fundamental norms about the link between attitudes and behaviour is that of consistency. This means that we often or usually expect the behaviour of a person to be consistent with the attitudes that they hold. Yet, it is not the reality. Therefore, it is a challenge to predict people behaviours based on their attitudes since that the cognitive and affective components of behaviour do not always match with behaviour. Theories, which build their models based on the attitude notion such as theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour, are criticized for focusing relatively more on the prediction, rather than on the explanation and understanding, of goal-striving (Meyer et al, 1985; Taylor et al., 2001). Besides, the behaviour in question should be under "volitional control", if the person can decide in a complete will to perform or not the behaviour, to give intentions their effect on actions. Sometimes, actions are not in compatible with intentions and beliefs like when somebody smokes even though s/he is familiar with its harmful consequences. Thus, these theories can help to predict the grudge behaviour in the future, but it will not help in understanding and explaining grudgeholding consumer behaviour, especially that they ignored the emotion factor that is covered clearly in the appraisal theory.

Unlike traditional models, this research investigates consumer grudgeholding behaviour in a holistic psychoanalytical view. The research designs a model that helps not just to understand the intended future behaviour of the grudgeholders (their current and future

coping responses), but also it seeks an explanation to their cognitive-emotive behaviours. The model is different from Aron model (2001) by taking into account studying consumers' emotions and their impact on the grudgeholders' behaviours. Aron in his model talked about the flashpoint that ignited grudgeholding experience, attitude formation, appraisal, manifestation and perpetuation. The point is, that Aron did not get deep into the emotion component to study its type and influence on the grudgeholders' behaviours. Besides, the appraisal process needs to be addressed fully when discussing emotions because each type of appraisal is responsible for evoking specific sort of emotions and behaviours. For example, anger and disgust are evoked by situations that are believed to be controlled by others, therefore they induce the confronting behaviours such as complaining. While, regret and sadness are evoked when appraising the situation as self-responsibility in which somebody would prefer to avoid confrontation and flight instead. Thus, the research contributes mainly to the existing literature by providing a model that considers the previous gaps and aims to understand consumer grudgeholding behaviour based on three characteristics (cognition, emotion, and coping response) derived from appraisal theories.

Hence, the contributions of this research can be demonstrated in the following five points: First, the cognitive-emotive process model described in this research (chapter three) is unique by integrating several streams of customer satisfaction, dissatisfaction and complaining behaviour research with psychology. It merges the confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm, attribution theory, equity theory, Hirschman's theory of exit, voice, and loyalty (1970), Aron's model (2001) and Lazarus theory of appraisal (1950-2002). These various streams of research actually complement each other and provide a strong theoretical framework to guide future research. To date, however, it is the only model that integrated appraisal theories of emotion into modelling the process of grudgeholding with respects to explaining and predicting the phenomenon of consumer grudgeholding. The model designed in this study defines grudgeholders by the way they experience and express the negative emotions of grudge. The model is different from Aron's model by not just presenting the grudgeholders' various responses "manifestation" (Aron, 2001), but also by including and describing the major experienced emotions by grudgeholders (for example, anger, disappointment, betrayal, disgust, humiliation, etcetera).

Second, the research provided an inclusive definition of consumer grudgeholding. That is, consumer grudgeholding is the interplay between three process components namely, cognitive appraisal (primary and secondary), emotions and coping behaviour(problem and

emotion focused-coping). This research defined consumer grudgeholding under the light of a psychological process. Cognitive appraisal (primary and secondary) is the crucial component in the evaluation and assessment of the stressful encounter (for example, threat and harm), which may result in a psychological disequilibrium. Stressful and negative appraisal are suggested to trigger one or mix of negative emotions (for example, anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal, etcetera), which impact the conducted strategy of coping response (emotion and/or problem focused-coping) as directly or in combination with the perceived appraisal.

The third contribution to knowledge is treating consumer grudgeholding behaviour as dynamic process by recognizing that most grudgeholders' behaviours (for example, complaining, negative word-of-mouth, exit) are largely dependent on the appraised outcome of the marketer response "redress seeking" or "perceived justice" as recommended by Blodgett and Granbois (1992, p.93) which helps to gain much greater insight into why consumers engage in different types of coping responses and sometimes several phases of cognitive-emotive appraisal and re-appraisal.

Fourthly, the research made notable advances to the appraisal theory as it extends it to different cultural contexts that is consumer grudgeholding within young Britons. Surprising findings were presented to assure that customers' cultural values might trigger different cognitive and emotional responses as well as coping styles. The current research discuss that although fight or flight exists in different cultures, the psychological form of the appraisal theory (that is, cognitive, emotional and coping responses) that shape these behaviours are not universal in aligning with Zourrig et al (2015) in their study of the cross cultural behaviours within customers. Therefore, the contents of the consumer grudgeholding model changes in accordance with different factors such as culture.

Fifthly, the current findings add to a growing body of literature on consumer grudgeholding within the young age group the following:

- Young consumers hold grudge when they face an offensive experience that is caused by others (shops, companies, or organizations), or appraised to be so.
- Young consumers' grudges stem from a negative experience surrounding quite cheap items in consistent with Aron et al. (2007)
- There are two collaborating types of appraisal in consumer grudgeholding experience primary (for examples, goal relevance, goal congruence, ego

involvement, offence severity and magnitude) and secondary (for examples, blame attributions, coping potential, controllability, accountability, and stability).

- The most recognized emotions in the grudgeholding experiences are those emotions that share the same negative valence in order (anger, disappointment, feeling betrayed and cheated, disgusted, shocked, surprised and feeling of fear).
- Grudgeholding consumers are more likely to complain to the offending companies and organizations and to spread their negative experience (negative word-of-mouth). They are more likely to take an action like complaining (that is, problem focused coping) than not take any action, but exit the relationship (emotion-focused coping)
- Grudgeholding consumers intend not to seek redress again according to the perceived expected failure and to the high value of time and effort required to spend.

The last theoretical contribution of this study is the interesting findings about gender gap in terms of holding the grudge. Surprisingly, a minimal gender gap is recognized as explained before. Young males and females are quite similar to each other in the following points: Appraising the event as negative and others' fault, experiencing the same emotions of grudge like anger, disappointment, and disgust, the tendency to complain and spread the word, the intention not to purchase or patronize again but exit instead and never seek redress again. The findings are opposite to some stereotypical beliefs and previous studies. Females experience and express their emotions (the powerful one like anger), unlike the traditional belief that women are more emotional and are encouraged to be more emotionally expressive especially the powerless emotions than men who are directed to express their powerful emotions as a part of their masculine behaviour (Briton and Hall, 1995; Niedenthal et al., 2006; Brody and Hall, 2008). However, the findings of this study enhances some gender differences in consistent with some literatures. For example, angry females tend to tell others about their negative experiences more than angry males. Yet, this finding supports the literature by Niedenthal et al. (2006) that males and females experience the same emotions but they express them differently. Females are not more emotional than males but they are more expressive. Yet, this explains the dilemma of women spread the word more than men. Another example is that the confirmation of the idea of that men shop to win and women shop to love (Campbell, 1997; Otnes and McGrath, 2001; Alreck and Settle, 2002; Mitchell and Walsh, 2004; Bakewell and Mitchell 2006; Kruger and Byker, 2009), which is supported when males' intentions to purchase is

improved by receiving financial compensations while females' intentions improved when they got extra attentions.

Practical contributions

It is very important to understand and measure customer's cognition and emotion very well in order to avoid wrong understanding of customer's evaluations and responses. Knowledge of the impact of the emotions experienced by customers during or after negative events (such as product or service failure and recovery) can help managers to retain and attract customers. This research gives managers insights into how to train personnel to identify and respond effectively to customer emotions triggered by some failures and to ensure recoveries to alleviate negative emotions. Therefore, service providers should be trained to decode emotional cues through recognizing when customers are angry, disgusted, disappointed, and so forth. Also, recovery efforts should be something extraordinary and fit each emotional state of the customers. Recovery efforts should include a variety of provider responses (immediate, effective, sincere, honest, and delighting), to improve customer's perceptions, alleviate their negative emotions, and restore their equilibrium state.

Business should be alert for the grudgeholding phenomenon. Some researchers warn of turning the love into hatred and anger (Gregoire and Fisher, 2006, 2008; Gregoire et al., 2009; Nyer, 1997). When grudge occurs and consumer's negative emotions (anger, disgust, disappointment, betrayal and others) arise, quick and effective recovery attempts by the offending company or organisation are fundamental to let their grudges go and keep them happy, delight and loyal instead. The retailer's response may enhance or intensify customer emotions whether positive or negative. Anger, for example is a commonly expressed emotion when a service fails (Ekman et al., 1983; Levenson et al., 1990; Scherer, 1984). Knowing how to handle consumer's anger during the recovery process is crucial, as an inappropriate response may only make matters worse (Sparks and McColl-Kennedy, 2001; Beverland et al, 2010) and may create secondary grudge. Different responses to the customers' conflict are necessary since there are different types of negative emotions in terms of their variety, lasting, and intensity.

From a practical point, the findings of this study can be helpful in preparing business to better understand their customers' needs and emotion for both males and females. This is

particularly important for business which aims at keeping existing and attracting new customers. According to the highly importance of consumption emotions, marketers have to go beyond measuring customer satisfaction toward measuring the other consumption emotions, the positive (examples, delight, happiness, excitement, etcetera) and the negative (examples, anger, shame, pride, sadness, etcetera) in order to influence customer behaviours such as word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions. If brand managers are truly serious about gaining ground with consumers in the ongoing battle for market share, it may be time for them to get in touch with consumers' feelings" (Gifford, 1997, p. 10). This finding emphasizes the urge to re-establish emotional bonds with an offended customer as a path in regaining a trustworthy relationship. Accordingly, any redress efforts should help customers to recover from the negative emotions caused by transgressing service failures (Smith and Bolton, 2002).

The findings have interesting implications for the business community. Since negative consumer reactions (for example, negative word-of-mouth) can be extremely harmful for companies. A firm's first priority, beyond of course avoiding the committing of actual harmful acts, should prevent any type of consumers' perception of irresponsible behaviour. Therefore, firms should continuously monitor consumer evaluations of the company's behaviour. Firms discovering that consumers judge one or more of their activities as controversial or negative can plan effective communication strategies to provide convincing explanations. They should try to avoid negative moral emotions in consumers and consequent negative responses, thus preserving company image and reputation. For example, managers should give high attention to those consumers who might get back to attack as a consequence to their rumination of the unresolved offence. "Rumination may cause a re-experiencing of the cognitive, affective, motivational, and physiological consequences of the transgression as if it were occurring once again, although probably at a lesser magnitude" (McCullough et al., 2007, p. 491). Respondents of the research tend to express their negative emotions outwardly and are more likely to engage in revenge coping, adopting an emotional support strategy of telling others. Therefore, it is more effective to reduce the confrontational nature of the conflict causing grudgeholding through training service employees to use specific strategies adapted to particular cultural-situational encounters and to each specific age and gender category, in order to manage successfully the confrontational nature of a conflict and to encourage forgiveness specifically in markets recognized by their cultural diversity.

Holding a grudge may lead into that the future offensive behaviour will not be tolerated and could activate retaliation or revenge. People who respond to being offended with obvious, sustained anger should be perceived by the offender as a more dangerous target for future offenses than victims who hide their displeasure. Offended people who communicate forgiveness may be perceived as easy marks because of their outwardly willingness to absorb abuse and replace their hostility by empathy and sympathy. Therefore, business should avoid getting their customers angry and do the best to encourage them to forgive. Customers' enduring a failure can be adhered by more satisfactory experiences (Rojas et al., 2013, p.227). Therefore, by understanding the emotions intervening between consumer appraisals of the offending experience and post-purchase behaviours, managers can decrease the incidence of retaliatory behaviours and increase the frequency of conciliatory behaviours instead. For example, they can employ experts in the psychology of consumers who know how to tackle negative emotions and enhance positive emotions instead.

Consumer perceptions of transgression enter into the formation of their negative attitudes toward the company/organization, and therefore potentially contribute to retaliatory actions that degrade company's image and reputation. Findings in the present investigation show that grudgeholding can be maintained instead of letting go as a consequence of a recovery failure. Yet, the long lasting grudge can lead to more negative emotions such as anger and disappointment accompanied by unexpected potential reactions and, therefore, can negatively affect the relationship between the company and its publics. It is essential that service recovery efforts are vigorous and effective. As angry consumers are emotionally heavily involved in the service, they are often more satisfied or dissatisfied with service recovery efforts than with the service failure itself. In consequence, failed service recoveries are a major source of switching (Smith and Bolton 2002) and an expected secondary grudge.

Angry grudgeholders can retaliate in any way to restore their perceived justice. They do not find it satisfying to complain to the source of the aggression, they tend to retaliate by destroying the company's/ organization's fame through negative word-of-mouth. Angry people perceive less risk and go through risky ways (Lerner and Keltner, 2001). The results of this research show that anger is a significant predictor of switching, complaint behaviour, negative word-of-mouth, and third-party complaining. Our findings support the intuitive notion that product and service providers should try to keep customers from getting angry. However, the intangible and inseparable nature of services will inevitably bring about anger at one time or another, despite the best intentions of the service

providers. In such circumstances, managing the emotions of angry customers and the behaviour that is instigated by them becomes crucial. Whereas most dissatisfied customers generally do not bother to complain, angry grudgeholders who attribute the wrongdoing to others (service provider) exhibit a list of different responses in order to alleviate their anger and getting back. Thus, anger needs more attention by researchers, marketers and practitioners.

Therefore, companies and organizations can adopt same techniques of attribution theory and distance themselves from blame by using “blame displacement strategy” (Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2002, p. 1673). Yet, they can identify the cause of the problem through listening and explaining to the customer that the locus of the cause is not necessarily the service provider. Redirect the blame to another target other than the service provider might help to ease the customer’s anger. For example, the service may not be provided because there has been an external unexpected reason like late delivery from the supplier, software failure, communication failure, a virus in the computer system, a strike, etcetera. The other option is to redirect the blame to situational forces (such as bad weather, traffic, or accident). Training service staff to recognize and cope with anger in customers saves money, time and fame. Service organizations may benefit from identifying angry customers’ responses, since this may be an essential first step in improving their performance, as it provides them with the opportunity to respond directly. Developing skills to cope with angry customers’ responses may help service staff to remain in control of themselves and the situation especially when angry customers express their feelings in negative, (verbally) aggressive ways. Managerial literature about dealing with angry customers highlights the importance of acknowledging what the angry customer is saying and feeling, before acting on what the customer is complaining about and resolving the problem (Riley, 2002).

It is clear from the research’s findings that most companies and organizations did not respond to the consumers’ grievance and complaints, and the few responses did not perceive to be satisfactory and could not downsize the negative emotions. Therefore, it is recommended for companies/organizations to follow some important issues in order to prevent primary and very likely secondary grudgeholding. Trust and keeping promise is an important key in maintaining and enhancing any relationship. Commitment is one of the essential variables of building strong relationships. Commitment is useful for measuring the likelihood of customer loyalty and for predicting future purchase rates (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Communication is another way of keeping and maintaining customers.

Communications occur when there is an interactive dialogue between the company and its customers in all stages of purchasing (Anderson and Narus, 1990), it is important for providing trustful information and fulfilling promises (Bacon, 2004; Ndubisi and Chan, 2005; Ndubisi, 2009). Perhaps the best way to show responsiveness to customer complaints is by quick and well-mannered handling of legitimate dissatisfaction, showing empathy and attention to the problem, trying to disconnect the possible negative event from social implications, and making great effort to re-establish equilibrium and goodwill. Listening, showing good excuse and apology are positively related to the decline of customer anger (Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2002). Business should build a mutual and robust relationship with customers through understanding their needs to deliver them good value (Ndubisi, 2003). Such responsiveness may retain loyal customers, avert negative word-of-mouth and may even create positive reviews.

Not only satisfaction is required for business success, but also “intimacy”, “interaction”, “loyalty”, and “partnership” is all necessary requirements for successful, marketer-customer relationship (Mullin, 1997, p.22). The absence of loyal customers should be of concern to marketers; not just because they can provide solid base of future profitability, but also because they are not easy to be attracted by competitors (Mitchell and Walsh, 2004). On the other hand, the frequent exit plays bad role in deteriorating business in the competitive circumstances. The business must expect all the worst; not only the loss of revenue but also, the dangerous loss of information regarding the cause of the defection (Aron et al, 2007). Retaining loyal customers is a big challenge for the marketers, but the benefits get larger with the motivation of favourable word-of-mouth. Customers can take the role of the salespeople and be one kind of free promotion tools by spreading positive and favourable word-of-mouth to everyone about the company and its products and services (Kumar et al., 2007). Therefore, the research recommends marketers to attract customers of positive mouthing and make sure that no negative information might reach others.

Furthermore, cognitive and emotional differences between males and females require different strategies for building and maintaining healthy relationships with both gender groups. Retailers should find strategic ways to help men to achieve specific outcomes, and to feel like winners on their own terms in the marketplace as long as they shop to win. Because men tend to enjoy bargaining, it seems advisable that retailers allow their male customers to emerge from any negotiations feeling like winners (Otnes and McGrath, 2001). Because many of the various goal-related outcomes desired by men relate to their

self-respect and sense of power, managers should find ways to enhance men's adaptation and interaction with merchandise.

It is believed that a company can satisfy its customers and build a successful relationship through outstanding behavioural differentiation. Bacon (2004, p.40) said that: "You differentiate yourself from your competitors through acts of commission and omission through the things you do and the things you don't do. One method of achieving the extraordinary differentiation is applying Total Quality Management. This research suggests more attention to the quality issue because many grudgeholders' issues are due to decline in the quality of products or services. Quality plays crucial role in attracting and saving customers." Quality in a product or service is not what the supplier puts in. It is what the customer gets out and is willing to pay for (Drucker, 1985, p.206). Therefore, applying a special kind of quality systems in a company like TQM strengthens its customer satisfaction and its financial performance (Agus et al. 2004). TQM is defined as an organization-wide philosophy requiring all employees at every level of an organization to focus their efforts to help improve all activities of the organization (Mehra et al., 2001). Since that customer satisfaction is one of TQM aspects, it also is one of crucial pillars in every company's future growth that lead to reap fantastic rewards (Mehra and Ranganathan, 2008). When companies supply their customers with high quality performance of products and services, it will be much easier and less harmful when the customers face a bad experience (Anderson and Sullivan 1993; Boulding, et al., 1993)

A firm can reduce cost and retain customers by building a good relationship with customers. The research advises companies and organizations to avoid putting their customers and clients in a grudgeholding situation due to its negative consequences, and to do their best in removing it as soon as they feel it. They have to turn their grudgeholding customers into delighted loyal instead. However, some level of dissatisfaction and even grudgeholding is inevitable in the marketplace. Even with reliable quality control, there will be some failings and some dissatisfied or grudgeholding customers. Therefore, a marketing institution can take a number of quick, trustworthy and effective steps to decrease the impact of dissatisfaction and grudgeholding that occur and lessen the incidence of negative word-of-mouth and customers' avoidance.

6.3.2 Limitations and Future Research

The present study has certain limitations and raises questions that warrant further research. Anger is one of the most frequent emotion in grudgeholding experience, and physical violence is one of its direct responses. The research lacks any information about committing any criminal revenge. A research design that includes safeguards against causing mental or physical harm to participants and that's makes data integrity a first priority should be valued highly (Blumberg et al., 2014, p. 13). Yet, for ethical reasons, the researcher avoided asking the respondents about if they had commit any violent behaviours as responses to harbouring grudge against a company/ organization. This research faced some difficulties to venturing and asking some questions such as: Have you responded by stealing, shoplifting, damaging some products, and/or harming somebody vocally or physically? Careful consideration should be given in cases of possible physical or psychological harm, invasion of privacy and/or loss of dignity (Blumberg et al., 2014). However, next research needs to find a safe way to study other violent responses of the consumer grudgeholding. It needs to study how anger is related to physical violence such as confronting and hurting (the business of) the service provider. Furthermore, boycotting and/or protesting due to socially responsible consumer traits (for example, altruism, ethics and opinion leadership), which are evoked by corporate wrongdoings, irresponsibility and violation is an interesting future study when it integrates with consumer grudge.

The inability of drawing conclusions from a study of a limited population and applying them universally is one of the limitations. The value of the research usually increases with the generalizability of the findings (Blumberg, et al. 2014). This study is conducted in a particular setting with a particular sample namely, British students. It may be that the findings would be less relevant to other settings, such as less consumer-oriented cultures. Therefore, it is good idea to repeat this research in different populations to spot the differences between male consumers and female consumers in holding grudge within other cultures. These patterns may vary by culture. People may experience the same emotions worldwide, but they may not be able to express them due to their cultural restrictions. Culture influences how we believe, how we feel, and how we behave. For example, cross cultural studies on emotions (Stephan et al., 1996) showed that collectivistic cultures discourage the manifestation of negative emotions due to the disruption of interpersonal relations. While individualistic cultures encourage the manifestation of negative emotions that enrich in some way the individual's sense of

distinctiveness and independence. It seems that culture plays an important role in influencing people appraisal strategies because some customers from a given culture are intensely driven to get revenge, while customers from other culture do not feel the same degree of pain to revenge. For example, customer rage survey (CRS) showed that Hispanic-American customers experience greater rage at how companies handled their complaints and were three times more likely than Anglos-Americans to seek revenge against firms (BusinessWire, 2007). Culture affects the manner in which we frame, blame, and attempt to tame conflicts (LeBaron, 1992). However, cultural values are not stable over time, and are expected to change due to the global influences. Therefore, it is recommended to study different populations of customers and to repeat the same study in different periods. Cross-sectional and a longitudinal study comparisons are required for future research to test the generalizability of our results and, more generally, to address the extent to which appraisal propensities are universal properties of emotion. Moreover, studying cross-cultural differences in the process of revenge enhances marketers's knowledge on how to tackle the different coping responses of raged customers, especially in a context of globalization, where companies and organizations serve international markets (Zourrig et al., 2009)

Using students as participants may be one of the limitations of the consumer grudgeholding study. By investigating effect sizes derived from meta-analyses study by Peterson (2001), it was crucial not to draw unwarranted inferences or generalities from any research results using college student subjects to a nonstudent. The responses of college student subjects were less variable and a little homogeneous than those of nonstudent subjects (Peterson, 2001). Yet, it is recommended to replicate the research results based on college students with nonstudent subjects prior to the generation of universal principles (Netemeyer et al., 1995, Peterson, 2001). Although this sample was convenient for the purposes of this study, the findings should be considered carefully as previous studies showed that vengeance and forgiveness are associated with age, and education level (Cota-McKinley et al., 2001).

Furthermore, young individuals may have premature consumption experiences and different appraisal features than other customers who are from older age groups. The use of students as participants may also have led to an age-related phenomenology of anger and/or age-related responses to anger. It appears that older people report lower anger and that age and life course differences in work and family status, social and personal circumstances influence the relationship between age and anger (Schieman, 1999) or age

and grudgeholding (Aron, 2007) as people may become less vengeful with age (Cota-McKinley et al., 2001). Further research should include other groups of respondents, such as older shoppers. Therefore, concerns regarding the generalizability of the findings to other demographic characteristics, service experiences and/or events are justified. Future research is needed to validate our findings across a wider sample base of non-student subject and different age groups.

This study investigated grudgeholding problem from the visions of just one side (the grudgeholding consumers who accepted to put themselves in the victim role). The research neglected the views of the other party of the relationship (the companies/organizations which are described as perpetrators, offenders with no representatives for them). A study by Stillwell and Baumeister (1997) found that victim and perpetrator roles contain biases in how people perceive and interpret events contrary to the traditional thought that the victims are free from the biases that misleads the perpetrators' accounts. The perpetrators tried to mitigate the issue to get themselves away from the responsibility, while the victims concentrated on the details that show the severity of the offence. This limitation can be solved by a future research to investigate a real conflict between two parties (perpetrator and offender) by questioning them both. Precisely, giving the companies/ organizations turn to present their ideas in what is called consumer grudgeholding as long as they are part of the problem. Investigating the role of companies/organizations on how to deal with grudgeholding cases should be addressed.

In the current study, language-based method is used to measure negative moral emotions. The self-report method used is subject to biases that could change the results of the study especially when the individuals may not be able to identify or clearly remember their emotions. It would be desirable as recommended by Grappi et al. (2013) to measure emotions through a variety of methods in future research (for example, facial expressions, autonomic or somatic nervous system responses, fMRI techniques). This would provide a basis for construct validity and generalizability. Besides, measuring other emotions such as (anxiety, distress, sympathy, etcetra.) should enable management to make better predictions about customer behaviour and eventually about profitability. Furthermore, positive moods result in a more optimistic, positive judgement and negative moods result in a more pessimistic, negative one (Keltner et al., 1993). Future research should address the influence of different moods on the appraisal and emotion displaying. A measure of socio-economic status was not included in the assessment, which limits results regarding confounding impact on exposure to negative life events and coping abilities. Researchers

might find in psychology some answers to the grudgeholding feeling and reactions. As an example to how someone can control anger: finding influential methods for controlling undesirable emotions and behaviours is to generate other emotions to contradict them (Schimmel,1979). Research in this area will be interesting and beneficial for business to get some techniques in how to deal with angry grudgeholders.

Not forgetting the problems with using social survey research to investigate behaviour which are summarized by (Bryman and bell, 2007, p. 282):

- Problem of meaning. People may vary in their interpretations of key terms in a question.
- Problem of omission. When answering the question, respondents may inadvertently omit key terms in the question.
- Problem of memory. They may misremember aspects of the occurrence of certain forms of behaviour.
- Social desirability effect. They may exhibit a tendency towards replying in ways that are meant to be consistent with their perceptions of the desirability of certain kinds of answer.
- Question threat. Some questions may appear threatening and result in a failure to provide an honest reply.
- Interviewer characteristics. Aspects of the interviewer may influence the answers provided.
- Gap between stated and actual behaviour. How people say they are likely to behave and how they actually behave may be inconsistent.

Addressing the cognitive process in the grudgeholding phenomenon is limited to what have been reported by the respondents. Further research should run in-depth interviews to know more about grudgeholders' appraisal primary (goal relevance, goal congruance, ego-involvement) and secondary (controlability, accountability, stability).

Benefits of forgiveness have been well documented in psychology. Expressing forgiveness typically discourages and deters future offenses (Worthington and Scherer, 2004, Wallace et al., 2008). When people forgive, they thwart their motivations to avoid or seek revenge so that the possibility of the relations with their transgressors is increased (McCullough, 2001). Many studies considered forgiveness in their recommendations due to its psychological and physical benefits for victims, whereas grudgeholding does not (Witvliet

et al., 2001; Worthington and Scherer, 2004). For example, forgiveness helps victims recover from emotional pain (Coyle and Enright, 1998; McCullough et al., 1997), increases positive affect and self-esteem (Al-Mabuk et al., 1995; Karremans et al., 2003), and reduces anger, grief, anxiety, and depression (Coyle and Enright, 1997; Freedman and Enright, 1996). Forgiveness can thus be used as an emotion-focused coping strategy or a way of emotion regulation to reduce a stressful reaction to a transgression (Worthington and Scherer, 2004).

Although expressing forgiveness is advisable for the victim's own health, it is also possible that communicating forgiveness could bring unwanted consequences. One potential problem with expressing forgiveness is that the offender may not appreciate being forgiven. Ellard (1999) found that some aggressors disgrace their victims when they expressed forgiveness. Sometimes, forgiveness is not the right solution for people who receive forgiveness for actions they consider meaningless may resent or feel humiliated by the implication that their behaviour was aggressive (Exline and Baumeister, 2000). It may worsen the situation for the victim as well if the transgressor is unhappy about being forgiven.

Furthermore, some researchers considered forgiveness as an opposite to grudgeholding (Baumeister et al., 1998), while others argued that revenge and forgiveness may not be alternatives. Brown (2003) argued that failing to forgive does not necessitate retaliation seeking, and not seeking revenge does not necessitate the presence of forgiveness. All the previous debate gives an inspiration to run further study about forgiveness versus grudgeholding and its duplicate impact on customers and business.

Research has presented that people who are more agreeable (with traits such as altruism, empathy, care, and generosity), more emotionally stable (moody with low vulnerability), more spiritual or religious, and generously attribute and appraise the aggression with the least of rumination about the transgression have a stronger nature to forgive than do their less agreeable, less emotionally stable, and less spiritually and religiously inclined counterparts (McCullough, 2001). Further studies should concentrate on how virtues and human values (Grappi et al., 2013) (self-regarded virtues as humility, patience, prudence, wisdom; and other-regarding virtues justice, beneficence, peace, equality, and cooperation) perform self-regulatory role in grudgeholding responses like transforming the felt emotional arousal into efforts to punish the offenders or forgive them. Furthermore, next research should study the effects of religion on consumer grudgeholding since it is

believed that religion tries to comfort us by suggesting that our sorrows can make us better.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Consumer Grudgeholding Survey Adapted from Aron et al (2007)

Dear consumer

This questionnaire is part of a research project to understand consumers' attitudes and emotions when they hold a grudge against a company or organization. Your responses are important in enabling me to obtain as full an understanding as possible of this topical issue. However, your decision to take part is entirely voluntary.

A grudge is "A strong lasting feeling of hostility or dislike for a company or organization that you feel has treated you badly"

Keeping this definition in mind, can you think of a purchase experience involving a company or an organization against which you have held, or currently hold, a grudge? Please answer these questions to the best of your ability. The survey will only take about (5) minutes to complete. Any information you supply will be anonymous, confidential and being carried out for academic purposes only.

Feel free to ask for the summary of the research's findings.

Thank you for your time and co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

Boushra Ghanam

Doctoral Researcher

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Please answer these questions to the best of your ability. The survey will only take about (5) minutes to complete. Any information you supply will be ANONYMOUS and CONFIDENTIAL.

A grudge is “A strong, lasting feeling of hostility or dislike for a company or organization that you feel has treated you badly.”(1)

Keeping this definition in mind, can you think of a purchase experience involving a company or an organization against which you have held, or currently hold, a grudge?

1. Circle your age group please: 18-20 21-25 26-30 31-35 36-40 41-45 45 and over

2. Circle your gender: Female Male

3. Were you born / brought up in UK? Yes No

4. Have you ever held, or do you currently hold, a grudge against a company or an organization? Yes No

a. If no, stop now.

b. If yes, what was the name of the company or organization?

5. What did you purchase? Or what was the service you got?

6. How much did the product or service in question (5) cost? (Circle only one.)

nothing unknown £1-12 £13-25 £26-50 £51-100 £101-250 £251-500

7. How did you feel at the time the grudgeholding event occurred? (Circle all that apply)

angry disgusted shocked surprised afraid fearful humiliated cheated disappointed indifferent

8. Have you told anyone at the company or organization about the incident? Yes No

9. Have you told anyone else who does not work at the company or organization about the incident?

If no, go on to question (10)

If yes, how many people did you tell? (circle the answer)

1

2 – 4

5 – 7

8 – 10

11 – 13

more than 13

10. Has anyone working for the company done anything to try to resolve the situation?

Yes

No

If no, please go on to question (11)

If yes, what did they do? (Circle all that apply.)

gave a refund

offered store or company credit

repaired the product

apologized

gave you extra attention

replaced the product

something else

11. Do you still hold the grudge?

If no, please go on to question (12)

Yes

No

If yes, how do you currently feel about the situation? Circle the words that best reflect your current feelings.

much worse than when it happened

worse

indifferent

better

much better than when it happened

12. How do you feel about purchasing or dealing with that company or organization again? (Circle the answer)

I definitely won't

I won't

Maybe I will, maybe I won't

I will

I definitely will

13. Are you still trying to resolve the situation?

Yes

No

If no, why did you stop?

not worth time or effort

did not think it would help

happened too recently

please give reason

If yes, what would you suggest the company or organization do now in order to resolve the situation?

(1) Questionnaire is produced by Aron, Judson, Aurand, and Gordon (2007) Consumer Grudgeholding: Does Age Make a Difference? *American Journal of Business* Spring 2007, 22(1)

Appendix B: Original Questionnaire of Aron et al (2007)

Consumer Grudgeholding Survey

Please answer these questions to the best of your ability. The survey will only take about (5) minutes to complete. Any information you supply will be ANONYMOUS and CONFIDENTIAL.

For the purposes of this study, a grudge is defined according to (Aron, Judson, Aurand, and Gordon, 2007): "A strong, lasting feeling of hostility or dislike for a company or organization that you feel has treated you badly."

Keeping this definition in mind, can you think of a purchase experience involving a company or an organization against which you have held, or currently hold, a grudge?

1. Have you ever held, or do you currently hold, a grudge against a store, company or an organization? Yes
a. If no, stop now. b. If yes, what was the name of the company or organization? No

2. What did you purchase? _____

-

3. How much did the product or service that was in question cost? (Tick only one.)

\$1-12 \$13-25 \$26-50 \$ 51-100 \$101-250 \$251-500 \$501-1,000 over \$1,000

4. How did you feel at the time the grudgeholding event occurred? (Please tick one emotion.)

Angry, Disgusted, Shocked, Surprised, Afraid, Fearful, Humiliated, Cheated, Disappointed,

Other: _____

5. Have you told anyone at the shop, company or organization about the incident? Yes NO

6. Have you told anyone else who does not work at the company or organization about the incident? Yes
No

If no, go on to question (7)

If yes, how many people did you tell? (Tick the answer)

1, (2 – 4), (5 – 7), (8 – 10), (11 – 13), (More than 13)

7. Has anyone working for the company or organization done anything to try to correct the situation?

Yes No

If no, please go on to question (8)

If yes, what did they do? (Tick all that apply.)

gave a refund

offered store or company credit

repaired the product

apologize

gave you extra attention

replaced the product

Other: _____

8. Do you still hold the grudge?

Yes No

If no, please go on to question (9)

If yes, how do you currently feel about the situation?

Circle the number that best reflects your current feelings.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7 -----
Much worse than when it happened						Much better than when it happened

9. How do you feel about purchasing at the shop or from the company again?

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7 -----
I definitely will not purchase from them again.						I definitely will purchase from them again.

10. Had you purchased from the company before the grudge-causing event?

Yes

No, but my family/friends had

No

11. Age

12. Gender: Male Female

Thank you for completing the survey.

Questionnaire is produced by (Aron, Judson, Aurand, and Gordon, 2007) Consumer Grudgeholding: Does Age Make a Difference? American Journal of business spring 2007; 22; 1.

Appendix C : The Reasons of Brand/Shop Avoidance (Huefner and Hunt, 1992, 1994)

Product quality	Includes poor quality, the product didn't work, was contaminated, tasted bad or wrong, made me sick, etcetera.
Repair	Includes refusal to repair, slow, incorrectly done, poor quality, etcetera.
Return	Includes wouldn't allow return, allowed it grudgingly, or replaced but still didn't work.
Atmosphere	Includes dirty, dark, dingy, crowded, poor layout, wrong kind of people shop there, etcetera.
Personnel	Includes rudeness, incompetence, aggressiveness, unfriendliness, untruthfulness, embarrassed me, or tried to sell me items I didn't need.
Service	Includes slow and poor.
Price/ Payment	Includes costs too much, no saving, no price tags, charged higher than agreed, check problems, etcetera.
Self-caused	Includes problems caused primarily by the consumer.
Misc	Includes environmental concerns, distance from store, store refused to do business, foreign manufacturer, and untruthful or stupid ads.

Appendix D: Other Grudgeholding Coping Responses

False Loyalty

Brand loyalty is identified by the strength of the relationship between an customer's relative attitude toward one or more of the entities (brand, product, service, store, vendor) and repeat patronage (Dick and Basu, 1994). Repeat purchase behaviour is detailed when talking about brand loyalty. Different researchers have found that consumers who are not completely satisfied with a brand are less likely to repurchase the brand than satisfied customers, so there is a positive relationship between brand loyalty and satisfaction (Newman and Werbel, 1973; Massari and Passiante, 2006). Research has found that loyal customers are vital to business continued existence since it is more expensive the attraction of new customers than the retaining of the old ones (Ndubisi, 2004; Semeijn et al., 2005). Loyalty is very essential component in organization life. Loyalty can generate many revenues, reduce operating cost per customer, and provide free advertising from loyal customers by broadcasting positive feedbacks (Salgaonkar and Mekoth, 2004 p.16).

The opposite of consumer grudgeholding is consumer allegiance (Hunt and Hunt, 1990), which means the continuous positive attraction. Hunt and hunt explained allegiance by the good experience of patronising that get bigger and bigger for a long term to the extent of commitment. Loyalty is described in contrast to avoidance as long as there are some brands and shops consumers use repeatedly and purposively (Huefner and Hunt, 1992). Customer loyalty does not just mean the continued patronage of the same provider, but it includes commitment and faithfulness as well (Kau and Loh, 2006). However, the "psychological attachment" of the loyal customers urge them to give the shop, company or organization a "second chance" to recover and correct any deterioration, though they are less likely to engage in negative word-of-mouth (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992, p. 96). Loyal customers choose to stay with the provider as a continued relationship or not, or they may increase the number of their buying, the frequency of it, or both (Rowley and Dawes, 2000). They also described loyalty as advocacy because loyal customers can play an important role in defending and recommending the company/organization to others.

Many of the loyalists will join in actions to change, but some may refuse to exit and suffer in silence (Hirschman, 1970). People stay in relationships either because they want to; and/or because they have to (Johnson, 1982). Yet, there are different kinds of loyalty: "Loyalty, latent loyalty, spurious loyalty and no loyalty (for example, Dick and Basu, 1994,

Rowley and Dawes, 2000). Hence, consumers who stay with a company or an organization without exiting do not mean that they are loyal. Yet, they represent false loyalty, which indicates running away as soon as finding an opportunity. Some consumers feel restricted by a relationship that constrain them from leaving. Loyalty is devotion, constancy, faithfulness, and allegiance (Huefner and Hunt, 1994). There are some barriers which generate false loyalty and prevent customers from leaving. Colwell and Hogarth-Scott (2004) explained how that the expensive services of contractual obligations be as a barrier in front of the customers. Most customers stay with the marketer who is monopolist because they have little or no choice (Aron, 2001). There are other factors than the absence of competition that bound the customer to a specific marketer (for example, registered trade mark technology, high switching costs, and promotional affinity programs). Yet, false loyalty turns to be one of the hostage relationship forms (Colwell and Scott, 2004).

Spurious or false loyalty is the kind of loyalty when consumers stay because they have to but they wait for a chance to leave. False loyalty or spurious loyalty has been recognized as one of grudgeholders' behaviours (Jones and Sasser, 1995; Aron, 2001). Spurious loyals are defined as repeat purchaser with low relative attitude and no affective commitment to the brand or shop (Rowley and Dawes, 2000). The dissatisfied customers who stay in a business relationship only waiting the opportunity of fleeing and avoiding the relationship as soon as possible represent the false loyalty category (Aron et al., 2007). Aron (2001) stated that sometimes grudgeholding does not necessarily terminate the future relationships between a consumer and the object of grudge, instead they stay with the marketer not because they are loyal but for no other options and that what has been called false loyalty. He added that marketers should be really vigilant to the case when the customer is potentially silent, "silent avoidance". A customer who is dissatisfied and may be grudgeholder but silent "voiceless one" is bad news for the marketer according to Aron (2001, p. 117).

False loyalty can be included in the content of some hidden and fearful feeling that is expressed of silent and temporary grudgeholding. Besides, business with spurious loyalty among customers is more dangerous than business without any loyalty, because everything related to planning, accounting, forecasting of production and sales ability, and revenues for example, might be false and lack accuracy. False loyalty is an important subject that needs further research.

Retaliation, revenge and vengeance

Some failure in the customer-organization relationship might push customer to react more negatively if it is severe (Bendapundi and Berry, 1997). It is likely as human beings to have the “impulse” to punish transgressors; the impulse that is embodied in righteous indignation and hostile behavioural tendencies” (Finkel, 2002, p.975). Retaliation can be a result to betrayal. Betrayals disrupt moral responsibilities which create kind of “interpersonal debt” as a result (Finkel, 2002, p.975), but obligating to rules and not punishing the offender or taking revenge can be adaptive. After the bad experience with the perpetrator, it is more likely for the victim not to forget the negative affect which can be developed into negative patterns of perceptions and even negative tendencies for taking revenge of the transgressor (Finkel, 2002).

Retaliation can take different kinds of responses by grudgeholding customers. Aron et al (2007) presented some examples of the retaliation responses such as theft, spreading destructive rumours about the company’s products or employees, engaging in abnormal buy-return activities, filing lawsuits, staying in shops beyond closing times causing the offending company to incur additional expenses in terms of labour or inconvenience, and destroying and damaging the company’s products.

Some retaliation behaviours were identified by Huefner and Hunt (2000, p.65-67, Huefner, et al, 2002 p.115) through 185 consumer retaliation stories as follows: (1) Create cost /loss is a special kind of consumer effort to make the shop involved in extra works which cost it extra money,(For example, placing false orders, spoiling products, etcetera.(2) Vandalism is a state of damage or destruction of anything related to the offended company in order to “get back” at the business.(3) Stealing is taking something from shop without paying for it in order to “get back” at the business.(4) Trashing is a kind of making a mess in shop by dumping products on the floor, or making a mess in a restaurant.(5) Negative word-of-mouth is mouthing everywhere about a dissatisfaction experience in order to take revenge by hurting the offending company.(6) personal attack involves in using physical aggression against marketer or manager, abusive language, or negative feedback to supervisors.

Most consumers who face dissatisfaction experience and distrust relationship with shops have some emotional responses of unwarranted distrust such as anger, humiliation, indignation, disbelief, surprise, guilt, embarrassment, frustration, outrage, fear, panic, helplessness, and distress (FitzPatrick, et al., 2004 p.123-124). Dolen and colleagues (2001) discussed how negative feelings contribute to dissatisfaction, and how that more

intense emotions have greater effect on dissatisfaction than less intense emotions. So, such kinds of emotions may guide a grudgeholding customer to retaliation. A lot of criminal actions are because of such feelings turning to grudgeholding. This is why marketers should be aware from driving their customers to be vindictive grudgeholders. In short, retaliation can happen by itself as a one single behaviour or in a combination with exit and/or voice but it comes with strong emotional feeling. The key factor to remove the need to retaliate is to take away the bad emotion. The research indicates to a variety of grudgeholding responses ranged from mild to severe and criminal in the literature, concentrates on three of them (exit, N-WOM and complaining, recommending a deep and detailed study to other responses specifically (the vindictive and crime-based actions).

Appendix E: Complaints' Triggers in Literature

Complaints' drivers	Research
Personality, self-construal and efficacy, self-threat, and psychological variables, Machiavellianism, perceived control, and risk-taking	Richins, 1983; Johnston, 1998; Rogers and Williams, 1990, Bodey and Grace, 2007; Wei et al., 2012; Dunn and Dahl, 2012.
Attitude towards complaining	Richins, 1980, 1982; Bearden and Teel, 1983; Blodgett and Granbois, 1992; Kim et al., 2003; Fox, 2008; Augusto et al., 2009
the intensity of the dissatisfaction degree and the seriousness of the problem besides the product's importance	Richins, 1983; Day, 1984; Blodgett and Granbois, 1992; Singh and Wilkes, 1996; Fox, 2008; Huppertz, 2014
prior experience in complaining	Bagozzi and Warshaw, 1990; Singh and Wilkes, 1996; Hernandez and Fugate, 2004, Kähr et al., 2016
the perceived cost or benefit of the complaints and the perceived likelihood of the success, cost/threat analysis	Day and Landon, 1976; Richins 1983, 1985, 1987; Andreasen, 1988; Singh, 1990; Blodgett and Granbois, 1992; Kolodinsky, 1993; Bolkan, 2015
locus of control	Bearden and Mason, 1984; Foxman et al., 1990
attribution of blame	Krishnan and Valle, 1979; Richins, 1983
Time	Hirschmn, 1970; Blodgett et al., 1995; Snellman and Vihtkari, 2003
Alienation	Bearden and Mason, 1984; Kim et al., 2003
Demographics	Day et al., 1981; Morganosky and Buckley, 1987; Singh, 1990 Stephens and Gwinner, 1998

Appendix F: Gender Differences in Theory

Social-cultural theory

Human thought and behaviour differ in an organized fashion from place to place, and these differences are typically termed cultural difference (Cosmides and Tooby, 1992). Inborn and inherent physical capabilities (for example, size, strength, and pregnancy) urged males and female to adhere to different roles which in turn prompted and enhanced the cultural beliefs and orientations that have perpetuated over time (Levy and Loken, 2015). According to biosocial constructionist model by Wood and Eagly (2012), two factors determine gender differences: physical differences between genders and socio-cultural influences. There are some associated with masculinity like: active, adventurous, aggressive autocratic, coarse, courageous, daring, dominant, enterprising, forceful independent, progressive, robust, rude, severe, stern, strong, tough (Franklin, 1988, p. 46).

The gender division of labour plays an important role in the formation of cultural beliefs. Levy and Loken (2015, p. 131) have talked about socializations boys and girls by imitations of others and through learning by reinforcement. For example, parents' and peers' behaviours imitations; punishing "weak" emotions in boys), whereas encouraging powerless emotions in girls. Besides, the magnitude of gender differences varied across cultures (Okin, 1994; Costa et al., 2001 Li and Kirkup, 2007). Yet, an important function of gender roles or cultural beliefs about men and women is to direct behaviour through social rewards and punishments for compliant or not compliant to the cultural roles (Levy and Loken, 2015).

Traditionally, women were encouraged to be more socialized while men were encouraged to be independent (Spence and Helmreich, 1979). Consequently, men and women differ in the way of describing themselves (Clancy and Dollinger, 1993; Bybee et al., 1990). A study by Cista et al. (200, p.322) found the differences between males and females are largely consistent with gender stereotypes: "Women reported themselves to be higher in neuroticism, agreeableness, warmth, and openness to feelings, whereas men were higher in assertiveness and openness to ideas".

Beliefs are part of the societies' culture, and these beliefs play very crucial role in making sex difference. These beliefs have strong effects on people interactions, which can be activated by special situation (Deaux and Major, 1987). Sex difference is shifted toward gender-stereotypic beliefs (Archer, 1996). Some prefer to talk about sex differences from

the historical point of view of the gender stereotypes referring to the societal position of women and men; whether they are homemakers or full-time paid employees (Eagly, 1987). Levy and Loken (2015, p. 131) stated a very good example on how we form our beliefs about males and females: “If women are observed to care for children, then women are believed correspondingly to be nurturing, kind, and possess other communal traits like emotional intelligence. If men are observed in strength-intensive tasks, they are believed to be assertive and dominant and have skills in leadership, math, and mechanics”.

Research suggests that the gender of both the parent and child influences the way in which different emotions are socialized. Using self-report measure to study gender differences in socialization of discrete negative emotions by Garside and Dougan (2002), results shows that parents reportedly modified the way in which they socialized sadness and fear based on the gender of their child. For example, fathers reportedly rewarded girls and punished boys for expressing sadness and fear. Many argued that men are punished for pursuing female occupations (for example, ballet) or for communal traits such as agreeableness or being a “nice guy” (Judge et al 2012; Eagly and Karau, 2002)

However, in socio-cultural perspective, men and women self-regulate their behaviour to accompany gender roles using their experienced emotions as feedback (Levy and Loken, 2015). As a result, males and females with strong (versus weak) gender identities experience higher self-esteem and positive affect when they succeed in meeting the gender standards during social interactions (Witt and Wood, 2010). Yet, across cultures and time, gender roles and behaviours have changed (Levy and Loken, 2015) particularly for women (Wood and Eagly, 2012) who progressively entered male-dominated occupations to more and more accepting agentic traits like assertiveness. Hence, culture influences our thinking, feeling and behaviours through enhancement or prohibition.

Evolutionary theory

Evolutionary theory indicates to the adaptive programs and mechanisms that our early ancestors developed to increase the probability of solving the recurrent problems in response to their environmental challenges (Eckes and Trautner, 2000; Levy and Loken, 2015). Evolutionary psychologists posits that animals inherit brain and bodies designed to behave in ways that are adaptive to the demands of their environment (Eckes, and Trautner, 2000). For example, it is assumed that many features of cognition and behaviour were designed to solve problems incurred while living in social groups (Cosmides and

Tooby, 1992). Yet, they added this theory gives an explanation for people behaviour through those evolving programmes.

Evolutionary theorist view gender differences as rooted in genetic variations that developed by time through natural selection (Buss, 1995). Males and females used to do different duties in human prehistory like men go for hunting and women stay to care for children. For this reason they needed different characteristics to tackle different problems. For example, men developed better mental rotation skills to be able to identify objects when hunting. Whereas, women needed different traits such as empathy and warmth to improve parenting (Mitchell and Walsh, 2004). The evolutionary researchers argued that some gender differences like aggressiveness and risk taking tendency might be due to mating concerns (Li et al., 2012).

Based on this theory, some researchers suggested that “modern shopping behaviours are an adaptation of our species’ ancestral hunting and gathering skills” (Kruger and Byker, 2009). For instance, the women’s propensity for enjoying shopping has been explained by Kruger and Byker, “most shopping activities have a greater similarity to women’s traditional activities of foraging and gathering than they do to men’s traditional activity of hunting” (2009, p. 339). Similar to other perspectives, the evolutionary view acknowledges that factors beyond biology such as culture can also affect human development (Kenrick and Luce, 2000). Hence, the theory of evolution and the social-cultural theory integrate together to explain gender similarities and differences.

Hormonal and brain processes

This theory provided evidence to the previous ones that enhance their credibility by showing the gender differences in terms of differing hormones and brain processes for males and females (Levy and Loken, 2015, p. 131). Gender differences in behaviour and cognition can be due to biological factors according to this theory. The advocates of this theory consider the distinction between social and biological differences is false, hence the term sex difference and gender difference cannot be separated but can be used to describe characteristic that differ on the average for males and females. All our behaviours are controlled by our brain so it is biologically based (Hines, 2003). Research has examined how the genders’ brain hemispheres operate (Tian et al., 2011; Gong et al., 2011; Tomasi and Volkow, 2012). Male and female human brains show differences in the network topology of brain connectivity across the entire brain (Gong et al., 2011).

Some studies indicated that the differences between males and females are due to gonadal hormones; which make females superior in tasks requiring alertness, rapid shifts of attention, perceptual speed and accuracy. The effects of such hormones, oestrogens and androgens on the sympathetic central nervous system might be a cause for the differences between males and females (Broverman et al., 1968). Some have found that gender differences favouring males on some cognitive abilities (for example, mental rotations, math and word problem solving). Others favour females on some activities (for example, verbal fluency, vocabulary, math calculations and perceptual or processing speed) (Hines, 2003). Hence, hormonal factors can be responsible for emotional volatility in women (Oakley, 1972). Research shows that testosterone (T), an androgen typically present at higher levels in males than females, plays a major role in producing gender differences (Meyers-Levy, and Loken, 2015).

Hormonal and brain process differences are clinically proved. In an examination to the brain's functional networks, Tian and colleagues (2011) found that males (females) incline to be more locally efficient in their right (left) hemisphere networks. Other studies using neuroimaging and other techniques concludes that gender differences also exist in the connectivity between brain areas (Gong et al., 2011). Therefore, it is ignorance to reject such reality of the role of hormonal and brain process in gender differences.

Appendix G: Gender Differences in Literature

Context	Reference	Gender differences
Use of message cue and judgments	Meyers-Levy and Sternthal (1991)	Women have a lower threshold for elaborating cues and make greater use of cues
Price and promotion response. Advertisement perception	Mazumdar and Papatla (1995) Elliott and speck (1998); Gilligan (1982)	Women use coupons more than Men. Men pay higher prices than women. Males are reported to perceive less add on TV and in magazines, to involve in less detailed of commercial messages
Impulse purchases and shopping behaviour	Dittmar et al. (1995) Teller and Thomson (2012); Hart et al., (2007)	Men and women buy different products on impulse. Men often shop on a need-driven basis, women shop for intrinsic pleasure
Attitudes toward Internet, catalog, and store shopping	Alreck and Settle (2002)	Women have more positive attitudes toward shopping. Men prefer Internet; women prefer catalog and stores
Mood effects in advertising	Martin (2003)	Women and men are influenced differently by specific mood and affective tone
Information process and decision making	Cleveland et al. (2003) Meyers-Levy (1988); Meyers-Levy and Sternthal (1991); Kim et al. (2007); Costa et al (2001)	Women seek more information and less assistance from salespeople than men. Females are more exhaustive and elaborative in external information search "comprehensive processors" while men are "selective, analytical and logical processors"
Perceived risk /of buying online. Financial decision making and risk taking	Garbarino and Strahilevitz (2004) Powell and Ansic (1997); Weber et al., (2002)	Women have higher perceived risk and demonstrate a higher reduction of risk with site recommendations. females are less able financial managers and less risk seeking. Women appeared to be more risk-averse in all financial, health/safety, recreational, ethical, domains except social risk.
Online versus store buying motivations and the effects of receiving a site recommendation	Dittmar et al. (2004) Garbarino and Strahilevitz (2004); Kim et al. (2011)	A shift to online environments has a more dramatic impact on women's attitudes. Women perceive a higher level of risk in online purchasing than do men and a stronger increase in willingness to buy online after recommendation by a friend. Women also are more likely to read review for the purpose of convenience, quality and risk reduction
Post-purchase behaviour	Wilson (2004)	Women have Higher Loyalty and Word-of-mouth
Purchase likelihood during shopping	Lucas (1998)	Higher for women than men
Relationships Self-compassion with mental health and well-being	(Cross and Madson, 1997). Yarnell et al (2015)	Women describe themselves in terms of relatedness to others, whereas men viewed themselves as independent from others. Results revealed that males had slightly higher levels of self-compassion than females
Top attributes in 50+ group	Anonymous (1995)	Women: quality, sales, reasonable prices. men: selection, best price, location
Emotional expression	Grossman and Wood, 1993; Fischer, et al., 2004	Females express emotions more intensely and with greater frequency than males. Men express more powerful emotions(for example, anger) whereas women report more powerless emotions (For example, sadness, fear)

Appendix H: Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Consumer satisfaction becomes the goal for firms since they moved their orientation from production to the era of marketing. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are often linked to the process of consuming products and services. Now, customer retention and loyalty are the ultimate goals for many companies and organizations. Day (1982) put a range for consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction with referring to a neutral point in between distinguishing them from cognitive responses, brand affect, and behavioural responses by emotional response manifested in feelings. However dissatisfaction is the threshold that the research passes to get the main topic of this research, consumer grudgeholding.

Satisfaction is “pleasurable fulfilment” Oliver (2010, p.8). “Satisfaction is comprised of three basic components, a response pertaining to a particular focus determined at a particular time” (Giese and Cote, 2000, p.1); the response refers to cognitive or affective, the focus is the product or service provided, and the time component is usually during or after consumption. Satisfaction is represented in early research by the outcome of a comparison between expectations of performance and real performance (Oliver 1980; Westbrook, 1987). Satisfaction and dissatisfaction is determined by confirmation and disconfirmation scale. Confirmation or disconfirmation is the result of comparing between perceptions and expectations (Salegna and Goodwin, 2005; Kotler, 2010). Bloemer and Schroder (2002) explained that when expectations exactly meet perceptions then it is confirmation which leads to satisfaction. Disconfirmation occurs when there is a difference between perceptions and expectations. They argued that disconfirmation can be positive or negative. Positive disconfirmation occurs when shop performance exceeds prior expectations and leads to satisfaction again, whereas negative disconfirmation occurs when expectations exceed performance leading to dissatisfaction. When customers get more than their expectations, they will be happy and return, but a feeling of disappointment and dissonance occurs when they get less than expected (Hoffmann and Ketteler, 2015; Walsh, 2016; Butt, 2016). Hence, meeting expectations or not identifies whether a consumer is satisfied or not or even extremely satisfied (delighted) or extremely dissatisfied. Being extremely dissatisfied may result in having/being a grudgeholder.

Consumers’ expectations about brands, products and services are formed from their previous experiences, which contribute in the positive/negative confirmation/disconfirmation effect which in turn affect the nature and the degree of feeling satisfied, indifferent or dissatisfied (Hunt, 1993; Oliver, 2010). Consumer dissatisfaction

interpretations is experienced-based norms which explain disconfirmation as the consequence of the comparing current and past purchase, either of the same brand or a different brand in the same product class (Woodruff et al., 1983). It is comparison to expectation standards such as ideal, minimum tolerable and deserved (Miller, 1977). Disconfirmation is a comparison to promises made by the seller that may result from incongruence between seller's promises and the perceived quality of the purchase (Woodruff et al., 1991). When customers expect something from the marketer (for example, price, and quality of product/service) and they receive something else (under their expectation), most consumers would react negatively toward the seller with disconfirmation turns to frustration (Otto et al, 2004, Hernandez and Fugate, 2004). When the service or product performance is below acceptable standards, customers suffer from the disappointment called a product-harm crisis (Dawar and Pillutla, 2000).

Parallel opposite behavioural responses to satisfaction and dissatisfaction

Satisfied	Dissatisfied
Do nothing	Do nothing
Positive comment to individual (compliment)	Negative comment to individual (complain)
Positive comment to manager/owner (compliment)	Negative comment to manager/owner (complain)
Short- term return (repurchase)	Short term avoidance (buy elsewhere/ other brand)
Long term return (brand/store loyalty)	Long term avoidance (grudgeholding)
Word-of-mouth- positive (alert others)	Word-of-mouth- negative (negative- warn others)
Word-of-mouth- benefit (aid/assist/help seller)	Word-of-mouth- damage (harm seller)
Substantial helping (do nice things, pick up)	Substantial hurting (retaliation)
Compliment to outside agency	Complain to outside agency(BBB, FTC)

From "Consumer Retaliation: Confirmation and Extension" (p.114). Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behaviour. Huefner, Parry, Payne, Otto, Huff, Swenson, and Hunt (2002).

Why Consumer Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction is Important in Marketing

Achieving customer satisfaction is very important for a company because its sales depend on two basic factors: new customers and retained ones which is more expensive to attract new customers than to retain others, and the best way to retain customers is to keep them satisfied (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). Customer satisfaction is very important in boosting profitability and improving marketer's share, so it is the factor of a company's long existence (Nasir, 2004; Kau and Loh, 2006), since it is the main reason of profitability, favourable and positive feedbacks, recommendation, complimenting, repurchase intentions and consumer loyalty (Dick and Basu, 1994; Heskett, et al. 1994; Sivadas and Baker-Prewitt, 2000; Carpenter and Fairhurst, 2005; Oliver, 2010), which in turn increases profits (Anderson and Sullivan, 1990; Reichheld and Sasser, 1990; Salgaonkar and Mekoth, 2004). Companies that treat their customers honestly by reducing their dissonance and saving their time may get their rewards from them soon (Dutra, et al., 2004). They are inclined to spread their delightful experience everywhere (Aron, 2006).

Experts advise companies and organizations to strive for totally satisfied or delighted customers because that "totally satisfied customers were six times more likely to be repeat purchase, compared to merely satisfied customers" (Jones and Sasser, 1995). Satisfied customers affect business significantly because they buy a product and use the service again, talk favourably and positively to others about the product and service, and pay less attention to competing brands expressing their faithfulness and loyalty (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). This explains why some marketers go beyond satisfaction to delight customers who are the resources of profitability amid a fierce competition (Bruhn and Grund, 2000; Mehra and Ranganathan, 2008).

However, consumers can develop biases for or against brands based on prior information without experiences (Oliver, 2010) like when they react to a negative or a positive reviews from their social interactions (for example, positive or negative word-of-mouth). The previous experience or/and the knowledge identify whether the consumer has an intention to repurchase the product or use the service again. Customer satisfaction as Meyer and Schwager (2007) discussed, requires series of customer experiences whether positive or not, to help in minimizing the gap between customers' expectations and their subsequent experiences to the zero level. Hence, the direction and intensity of the satisfaction/dissatisfaction identifies the consumer response, which ranges from ignoring the consumption event to seeking redress or taking action or not (Day, 1982).

Results of service failure are very serious (Hoffman and Bateson, 1997). Customers might suffer from loss of time and money in addition to the negative thoughts and feeling, like

anger and dissatisfaction (Aron, 2006). Customer might say as a kind of speech of dissatisfaction “there must be some way to get my money back or otherwise hide my shame” (Aron, 2006 p.5). Some companies prefer to earn short-term profits so they deceive their customers, over promising them, ripping their money off and leading the way to destroy customer value and equity (Peppers and Rogers, 2005). The process of cheating and defrauding customers; is like stealing from the future to fund the present (Peppers and Rogers, 2005, p.50).

Customer’s satisfaction is still a difficult challenge to many companies. Meyer and Schwager (2007) stated that, “Customer satisfaction is more a slogan than an attainable goal” (p.126). The challenge comes from lack of understanding to the consumers’ mentality and emotions. Companies and organizations know a lot about things relating to customers like purchase behaviours, habits, income, class, etcetera. Meanwhile, they have little information about thoughts, emotions and states of minds that customers’ interactions with products, services, and brand induce. According to the saying “love becomes hate effect”, some customers who used to be in good relationship with the firm change to be customers who want revenge as a result of betrayal and service failure with lots of anger and even hatred (Nyer, 1997; Gregoire and Fisher, 2006, 2008; Gregoire et al., 2009;). The research described in this dissertation looks at the case of the consumer who is not just dissatisfied but instead is a grudgeholder.

The Triggers of Consumer Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Responses

Research on buyer behaviour shows that many factors affect customers’ decision making and shopping behaviour such as price, quality, product, place, etcetera (Bitner, 1992; Lovelock et al., 2014; Sharma and Lo, 2016). Consumers find many elements when they judge quality of purchasing goods such as, style, feel, colour, price, brand name, and package, but few cues are available for them to judge, when they purchase service like the service cost and the facilities which surround the service (Zeithaml, 1981). Customers examine two kinds of quality “search quality that is determined before purchasing” and “experience quality that is not determined after purchasing” to make their decision for future buying (Nelson, 1974; Hsieh and Hiang, 2004; He et al., 2014). Moreover, customers who face indifference and carelessness from individuals in charge are less likely to return and more likely to spread a negative impression everywhere. On the other hand, the opposite will happen if customers receive nice and friendly treatment (Bacon, 2004).

Consumer purchase is influenced by different categories such as cultural, social, personal and psychological characteristics (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010). They stated that a marketer cannot control such factors, but they should consider them. For example, from the social factors that affect buyer behaviour are there reference groups and family. Those categories play a specific role to make customer buy or not, to affect customer's product and brand choices, and to influence the feeling and attitudes of them as customers toward shops, firms, and other providers of products and services. Age and gender are other factors which affect customer buying behaviour (Aron et al., 2007; Tsarenko and Strizhakova, 2015) since that such factors may play a crucial role in shaping customer's satisfaction, dissatisfaction, complaining to internal groups or external ones and holding grudge for short period or for the whole life

Dissatisfaction is not enough for a consumer to respond and act toward the source of dissatisfaction (Andreasen and Best, 1977; Day, 1984; Singh, 1990; Boote, 1998). Not every dissatisfied consumer will take an action to rectify the situation. Some consumers stay silent or are non-complainers (Voorhees et al., 2006). Generally, taking action or not to solve any problem is influenced by many factors (for example, psychological, personal, demographic, situational or/and environmental factors, etcetera). However, several studies on the effect of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction on customers' behavioural reactions to service failure indicate that service encounter dissatisfaction is a significant predictor of negative word-of-mouth, complaint behaviour, third-party complaining, and switching (for example, Maute and Forrester, 1993; Richins, 1987; Singh, 1988). Dubé and Maute (1996) found that dissatisfaction is related to behavioural intentions whereas Díaz and Ruíz (2002) found that dissatisfaction is unrelated to behavioural intentions while controlling for anger.

Boote (1998, p.146-147) summarised the triggers of how and why consumers react to dissatisfaction into eight categories "situational triggers" (for example, product/service importance /cost/ type, level of involvement, dissatisfaction intensity, perceived costs); "attributional" triggers (for example, perceptions of controllability and stability); "demographics" factors which trigger complain (for example, age, gender, income, educational level, and rural/urban location); "psychographics" (for example, assertiveness/level of confidence and aggression, attitude, past experience of complaining, personal value and locus of control); "company/consumer relationship" (for example, degree of loyalty felt by the dissatisfied consumer to the company and the degree of communication); "marketplace/consumer relationship" which identify the effects of

consumer voice after dissatisfaction; “cultural factors” like the effect of nationality on the propensity to complain; “social factors” which mean to which degree a consumer can be influenced by others.

A study by Bougie et al. (2003) showed that dissatisfaction is an outcome-dependent emotion that urge dissatisfied customers to assess the negative experience. Accordingly, customers may blame the service provider, themselves, or uncontrollable circumstances responsible for the product or/and service failure. Day (1984) explained how dissatisfaction is an emotional state that motivates consumers to complain; and the high levels of dissatisfaction encourage people to complain with regard to varied situational and personal factors. In addition, customers are usually less likely to tell others about the negative event when it is their fault. In contrast, when a product or service failure is the service provider’s responsibility, customers are more likely to engage in complaint behaviour and negative word-of-mouth (Folkes, 1988; Richins, 1983; Wirtz and Mattila, 2004.). Dissatisfaction is necessary, but not sufficient to cause complaining behaviour (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992).

However, what actions to take or not to take in order to solve the problem of the dissatisfaction are explained in Day’s model (1982) from a cognitive point of view. The dissatisfied consumer assesses the nature, extent and responsibility of injuries, which triggered the feeling of dissatisfaction to identify the alternatives of responses. Yet, the consumer estimates the economic and psychological costs and benefits of pursuing each feasible action. Judgement or appraisal comes along and after choosing alternatives of responses. The consumer needs to evaluate both the success of choosing alternatives of actions and the experiences related to be able to update the feeling of satisfaction/dissatisfaction and repurchase intentions (Day, 1982).

Appendix I: Attitude theories

Functional theory of attitudes

It is to explain how attitudes assist social behaviour. Attitudes exist because they are crucial for achieving some functions for the person (Solomon, 2013). According to the theory, consumers form similar attitudes in the future when they face the same issues. There are some attitude functions of this theory which are discussed by Solomon as follows: ‘Utilitarian function’ allows one to make sense of the world and interact with it in

useful ways, and it is explained through reward and punishment doctrines, Value-expressive function is related to what the attitude object says about the person from central values and self-concepts, ego-defensive function is explained by attitudes which are created as a way of protection from external threat or internal feeling of the self-esteem, and knowledge function is applied when there is ambiguity and cognitive dissonance. Self / ego expressive is explained by the attitudes we express to help communicate who we are and may make us feel good because we have asserted our identity.

Theory of reasoned action

This theory suggests that behavioural intentions, which are the immediate antecedents to behaviour, are a function of salient information or beliefs about the likelihood that performing a particular behaviour will lead to a specific outcome (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Madden et al., 1992). The main elements of this theory are intention then behaviour. Intentions are defined by Ajzen as the motivational factors that influence behaviour. The immediate antecedent of any behaviour is the intention to achieve the behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986). They added that the stronger the intention, the greater the likelihood of performing the behaviour.

Attitude is a sign to the behaviour. This study is meant to understand grudgeholders' behaviours and to predict their attitude toward resolving the offending experience after the first trial and marketer's response. Attitude as defined by Oxford English Dictionary is a settled way of feeling or thinking about something. Attitude is a psychological propensity that is expressed by evaluating a particular event with some degree of like or dislike (Eagly and Chaiken, 2007, p.598). Attitude is formed by evaluating objects whether cognitive, affective or behaviour and measure them like the emotion measures as happy-sad, good-bad, favourable-unfavourable, and so on (Bagozzi et al., 2002). However, attitude according to some is measured by good-bad reactions rather than emotional states in what is called "evaluative judgement" (Cohen and Areni, 1991). Others have proposed that attitudes have two distinct and correlated components: affective and cognitive (Bagozzi et al., 1999)

Ajzen and Fishbein, who developed this theory (1973, 1975, 1977, and 1980) explained that attitude will predict action when the action is perceived as normative and when the measure of attitude is specific to the action. The theory of reasoned action has received considerable attention within the field of consumer behaviour because it plays very important role in predicting consumer intentions and behaviour (Vijayasathya, 2004;

Bagozzi et al., 2014), besides its helping to set the basis for identifying where and how to target consumers' behavioural change attempts (Sheppard et al., 1988). Even though the theory of reasoned action has been applied broadly to choice selection, decisions and actions in several areas like health and marketing (for example, Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980; Fisher et al., 2013; Espada et al., 2015, Ong et al., 2014), it has been criticized for focusing relatively more on the prediction, than on the explanation and understanding, of goal-striving (Meyer et al, 1985; Taylor et al., 2001, p. 470).

This theory can help to predict the grudge behaviour in the future since it is a model for the prediction of behavioural intention, but it will not help in understanding and explaining grudgeholding consumers' behaviours. It studies attitude and attitude has a close relationship with intention. However, it gives a glimpse on their future behaviour.

Theory of planned behaviour

Many factors affect the human behaviour and make it very difficult and complicated to be explained. Social attitude and personality trait play an important role in predicting and explaining human behaviour (Ajzen, 1988, 1991). The theory of reasoned action has been revised and extended by Ajzen, and it has the same chief element which is the individual's intention to perform a given behaviour.

Ajzen (1991) introduced additional predictors of the model of intentions and behaviours, which is perceived behavioural control. Besides, sometimes people have the intention to do the action, but in reality they lack the confidence and the control over the action (Miller, 2005). People perceive the ease or difficulty of performing the intended behaviour. The main reason for introducing perceived behavioural control is its assumed ability to capture information about potential barriers to behaviour as perceived by a decision maker (Taylor et al., 2001). It has been approved that people's behaviour is influenced strongly by their confidence in their ability to perform it (Ajzen, 1991).

According to the theory of planned behaviour, perceived behavioural control with behavioural intentions altogether can predict behavioural achievement. "Intentions to perform behaviours of different kinds can be predicted with high accuracy from attitudes toward the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control; and these intentions, together with perceptions of behavioural control, account for considerable variance in actual behaviour" (Ajzen, 1991, p.179).

The model of planned behaviour suggests that human behaviour is a function of intention to do specific behaviour, yet direct and indirect effects have been addressed to form intention (Sideridis, et al., 1998). The direct influence (1) individuals belief strength toward the behaviour, (2) the prediction of the outcome occurrence, and (3) the individual's willingness to comply to the request and desire. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) divided the beliefs antecedent to behavioural intentions into behavioural and normative beliefs. "The behavioural beliefs are assumed to be the underlying influence on an individual's attitude toward performing the behaviour, whereas, the normative beliefs influence the individual's subjective norm about performing the behaviour" (p. 3). However, the behaviour in question should be under "volitional control", if the person can decide in a complete will to perform or not the behaviour, to give intentions their effect on actions. The behaviour achievement according to Ajzen's (1991) theory needs a joint between motivation (intention) and ability (behavioural control).

The ABC model of attitudes

An attitude in the ABC model has three elements: affect, behaviour, and cognition. According to Solomon (2013) affect describes the feeling about the attitude object. Behaviour refers to the consumer's intention to take an action about. Cognition is what a consumer consider is true about an object. Hence, the ABC model concentrates on the interconnections among thinking, feeling, and doing. In this model, attitude researchers developed the concept of hierarchy of effects; which argues the order of the three components: knowing, feeling, or doing.

Thus, three sequences were designed (Solomon, 2013) as follows: The standard learning Hierarchy: It suggests that for a consumer to take a product decision, they should follow a problem-solving decision; Think→feel→do.

The low-involvement Hierarchy: It explains how the consumer learns after a good or bad experience especially when they have limited knowledge that leads them to act first then evaluate; Do→feel→think.

The experiential Hierarchy: it assumes that consumers act depending on their emotions; Feel→think→do.

Hirschman's Theory of Exit, Voice and Loyalty

Hirschman's (1970) theory of exit, voice and loyalty can widely be applied to variety of organization, whether a business, a nation or any other form of human grouping, have essentially two possible responses when they perceive that the organization is demonstrating a decrease in quality or benefit to the member: they can exit (withdraw from the relationship); or, they can voice (attempt to repair or improve the relationship through communication of the complaint, grievance or proposal for change).

In the consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction context for example, Hirschman used his model to describe two alternative routes the customers follow in the case of quality deterioration of the product or service provided: either exit which means the termination of relationship such as leaving the organization or/and stop buying its products; or voice which lead the process of complaining, to the management, or to other parties such as any authority or anyone who cares to listen.

The conditions for exit and /or voice were discussed by Hirschman. Voice (that is. redress seeking) depends on the value of voicing the complaint times the probability of its success in addition to the willingness to do so. Exit is often a second option after voice failure according to its negative relation with the ability and willingness of voice option (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992). This theory was pioneer to present consumers' responses to dissatisfaction experience via exit and/or voice. Moreover, it suggests that both exit and voice can be used to measure a failure in an organization. Exit, itself only, provides the warning sign of decline; whereas, voice provides reasons for the decline in the sense of feedback and criticism.

Hirschman's model of exit, voice and loyalty only tells us a little about the whole story of dissatisfaction but not the story of grudgeholding. First of all, It gives the consumer two options; either exit or voice. In reality, a consumer may exit and complain at the same time. Second, it has been predicted for defining loyalty as the opposite of exit. For example, staying with a dominant company does not mean that somebody is honestly loyal. Lastly, there is always an urge to discuss the phenomenon of dissatisfaction and grudgeholding with a focal consideration to the emotive and cognitive components.

The theoretical Model of Complaining

Assuming that, dissatisfaction is a sufficient but not a necessary cause to complaining, Kowalski (1996) suggested that complaining behaviour involves two distinct processes which require distinguishing between experiencing dissatisfaction "dissatisfaction

threshold” and expressing dissatisfaction “complaining threshold”. Kowalski added that in order to assess the level of dissatisfaction, consumer needs to compare the perceived present situation with their personal standards which is underlined by a state of “self-focused”. The comparison between the current events and behaviours with an individual’s standards for these events or behaviours identify if the individuals experience satisfaction and positive affect or dissatisfaction and negative affect. Hence, the occurrence of these two processes will lead to either action (complaining) or inaction (no complaining) (Reynolds and Harris, 2005).

Not all dissatisfied consumers complain. Day (1984) argued that dissatisfaction is motivational in nature which might cause people to consider complaining especially with high level of dissatisfaction, but it is not the cause of complaining behaviour. Dissatisfied consumers run cognitive assessment of the costs and benefits to decide on whether to ignore the experience or choose one or more complaint actions based on situational and personal factors (for examples, the significance of the consumption event, consumer’s knowledge and experience, difficulty of seeking redress/complaining, chances of complaining success, attitude toward complaining and poor health or physical disabilities) (Day, 1984). Dissatisfaction is “best thought of as a necessary, but not sufficient condition of complaining behaviour”...”complaining requires some contributing factors (for example, situational and personal factors, Blodgett and Granbois, 1992).

Blodgett and Granbois (1992, p. 97-98) classified consumer complaining behaviour into four dependent variables:

1. Redress seeking (or voice) - complaints directed toward the retailer; asking for a refund, an exchange, for the product to be repaired, or for an apology.
2. Negative word-of-mouth - generally defined as telling others about one’s dissatisfaction; that is, complaints about the retailer and/or the product to friends and/or relatives (who are not living in the consumer’s household)
3. Exit (or re-patronage intentions) - a vow or intention, to never again patronize the offending retailer.
4. Third party complaints – includes complaining to public/private third parties.

Consumers are not restricted to one type of complaining behaviour. They might seek redress from the retailer and tell friends, or seek redress with no intention to shop their

again, or even engage in all of these complaining behaviour (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992). Day and Landon (1977) distinguished in their model between “take no action” and “take some action”. If any action is taken, it is subdivided into “private actions” (such as decisions to boycott seller or manufacturer, warnings to families, friends and relatives) and “public actions” (such as seeking redress from the seller, complaints to consumer affairs agencies or legal action). Singh (1988) extended Day and Landon (1977) hierarchical model to the following three dimensions: private response (for example, negative word-of-mouth); voice response (for example, seeking redress from the seller); and third-party response (for example, taking legal action or complaining to an external third party).

Day (1984) in his model of the complaining/noncomplaining decision process found that the emotional state generated by dissatisfaction explains subsequent complaining/noncomplaining behaviour, but variety of personal (for example, poor health or physical disabilities, the consumer’s knowledge and experience in complaining and the alternatives, and attitude toward business and the act of complaining), and situational (for example, the amount of money involved, the importance of the product in the consumer’s social life, the amount of effort and time in contacting the seller) factors capture the decision making process. Day explained other factors (that is, considering the costs and the values of complaining and chances for success in complaining) with which the dissatisfied consumer has to decide whether to ignore his/her dissatisfaction and do nothing or decide to take one or more actions of various complaints.

Tronvoll (2012) reviewed the previous models and developed a new dynamic one. He suggested that the customer can engage in several types of complaining behaviour, or may not engage in any complaining behaviour. Complaining behaviour is dependent on the outline of the resource identification (e.g. competence, time, finance, complaint channels, information about how to complain, etc.) and context which consists of all conditions surrounding the customer in the complaint process, from the initial negative incident onwards. This includes the physical environment, market situations, company related issues, etc. Tronvoll’s (2012) complaining model is great for being dynamic and covering variety of responses such as (formal complaint-legal action and redress seeking), private communities (family and friends), open communities (social media and, blogging), third parties (consumer protection agencies), body language, action complaint (reduce/fade relationship, exit/switching, boycott service, brand, or company, create cost/loss trashing, stealing, damage, protest , personal attack, etcetera.)

Oliver (1997) assured that to understand customers' consumption experience, emotion and cognition should work alongside in producing satisfaction. Smith and Bolton (2002) believed that customer satisfaction with a specific service failure and the subsequent recovery is influenced by their emotions after following a series of cognitive antecedents of satisfaction like performance, disconfirmation and justice. Therefore, the research described in this dissertation does not count on any model that does not consider consumer's emotion as priority. Consumers are emotional too. Therefore, the research finds in the appraisal theory the required needs.

Appendix J: Paradigm

A paradigm is defined as "a cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research has to be done and how results have to be interpreted (Bryman 1988, p. 4). The term "paradigm" has been introduced by Kuhn (1970, p.10) and relates to the evolution of "normal science" and means a basic direction to theory and research. "Men whose research is based on shared paradigms are committed to the same rules and standards for scientific practice" (Kuhn, 1970, p.11).

Every researcher has to follow a specific paradigm in conducting the research. The paradigm according to Hussey and Hussey (1997) is something you determine through your research project including basic beliefs about the world, research design, collecting and analysing data, and even the way of writing the thesis. Two main research paradigms are the most common; positivist and phenomenological or different terms are used by others; quantitative and qualitative (Hussey and Hussey, 1994). The positivist paradigm has been referred by Creswell (1994) as quantitative and the phenomenological as qualitative. Thus, the most popular research philosophies are positivism and interpretivism (also called phenomenology). Moreover, between these two positions, other research philosophies exist like realism (Blumberg, et al., 2014).

Examples of such paradigms are positivism, symbolic interactionism, ethnomethodology and phenomenology (Sarantakos, 2005). Burrell and Morgan (1979) identified four distinct sociological paradigms: functionalist, interpretative, radical humanist and radical structural. The four paradigms signified the four different visions of social world based on different meta-theoretical assumptions regarding the nature of science and of society (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The basic set of beliefs of each paradigm is outlined through four

philosophical assumptions: positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Table 4.1 illustrates the four philosophical assumptions and its corresponding ontological, epistemological, and methodological paradigm.

Basic beliefs of alternative inquiry paradigms

Item	Positivism	Post-positivism	Critical theory	Constructivism
Ontology	Naïve realism - "real" reality but apprehendable	Critical realism – "real" reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable	Historical realism – virtually reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, and gender values; crystallised over time	Relativism – local and specific constructed realities
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist; findings true	Modified dualist/objectivist; critical tradition/community ; findings probably	Transactional/subjectivist; value – mediated findings	Transactional/subjectivist; created findings
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative	Modified experimental/manipulative; critical multiplism; falsification of hypotheses; may include quantitative methods	Dialogic/dialectical	Hermeneutical/dialectical

Source: Guba and Lincoln, (1994, p.109)

Positivism

It is the principal framework for the study of organisations originates from the sociology of regulation and provides an objectivist point of view in dealing with the social issues. Positivism fundamental concepts can be outlined back to the philosophers of the enlightenment but it was the French philosopher Comte who suggested that, the principles of natural science could be applied to the study of human behaviour. Positive knowledge is based on natural phenomena and their properties and relations as verified by the empirical sciences. Comte's positivism, then, came out of this belief that human society could be

studied scientifically. The theory of positivism holds that there is only real truth in scientific knowledge. However, sensory experiences, gathered by humans about the world, are included in this category. Things like intuition are not considered scientifically derived and, therefore, not valid truths. “Comte’s main contribution to positivist philosophy falls into five parts: his rigorous adoption of the scientific method; his law of the three states or stages of intellectual development; his classification of the sciences; his conception of the incomplete philosophy of each of these sciences anterior to sociology; and his synthesis of a positivist social philosophy in a unified form. He sought a system of philosophy that could form a basis for political organization appropriate to modern industrial society” (Barnes, 2014).

Positivists consider only the observable and measurable phenomena as valid knowledge (Hussey and Hussey, 1994). The positivists as the realist researchers believe that the knowledge we get from research can be accurate to the reality itself (Fisher and Buglear, 2010). The realists and positivists look for relationships between variables, and where possible cause and effect chain exists (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Fisher and Buglear, 2010). The positivist researcher is concerned with the way of measuring concepts which requires usually big samples comparing to the phenomenologist who examine small samples, use different research methods, and look for a pattern (Hussey and Hussey, 1994). The sociological positivism tries to use the natural science models and methods in their study of human matters (for example, Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Neuman, 2006). They are considered as objective and view the phenomena of their research as objects (Collis and Hussey, 2003).

Positivism takes into account that no-one is perfect human being so that several beliefs of how to convince others existed. The way of getting yourself as a researcher out of self-delusion, myth, false and stereotyping is to be sceptical (Jankowicz, 2004). Furthermore, Positivism is a research philosophy adopted from the natural science; its three basic principles are (Blumberg, et al., 2014, p.16):

1. The social world exists externally and is viewed objectively.
2. Research is value-free.
3. The researcher is independent, taking the role of an objective analyst.

In practice, as representing facts using numbers facilitates comparisons, constructs are often operationalized in quantitative terms (Blumberg, et al., 2014). According to

positivism, knowledge develops by investigating the social reality through observing objective facts. Positivism assumes that social reality is independent of human perception, existing regardless of our awareness of it. This approach holds that there are facts about the social world that can be collected and analysed independently of the people, from which the facts were obtained (May, 1997). Theory development starts with hypothesizing fundamental laws and deducing what kind of observations support or reject the theoretical predictions of the hypotheses.

Positivist social science is “an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity” (Neuman, 2006, p. 82). Some would use experiments to verify the hypotheses, while others maintain that the hypotheses can never be true. However, they both would agree on the fact that the knowledge grows and accumulates to the degree of eliminating the false hypotheses.

Statistics can show the association between variables and when changes in one can make a difference in another, also they give a clue if the association is true and that it is not caused by chance or by the hidden interference of other variables (Fisher and Buglear, 2010). Positivism upholds that knowledge should be based on real facts, not abstractions, thus knowledge is based on observations and experiment in contrast to the phenomenological paradigm that explores the essence of things (Robson, 2002). The research process starts with identifying causalities forming the base of fundamental laws. Then research is conducted to test whether observations of the world indeed fit the derived fundamental laws and to assess to what extent detected causalities can be generalized (Blumberg, et al., 2014, p.16)

According to the positivist approach, it is proposed that the best way of getting the truth when doing research is to use scientific method, which is known as the hypothetic-deductive method that is made up of the following sequence (Jankowicz, 2004): first, a formally expressed general statement which attempts to test theory; second, the purpose of the theory is to generate hypotheses that can be tested and allows explanations of laws to be measured (deductive principal); third, a careful operationalisation of constructs; fourth, measurement of constructs; fifth, hypotheses testing and finally, confirmation of the theory (Jankowicz, 2004). Positivism is considered as link between the theory and the research and attempts to test theory in order to increase predictive understanding of phenomena.

A summary of the criticism of positivism approach is that: "Science is based on "taken for granted" assumptions, and thus, like other social practice, must be understood within a specific context (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p. 255). Traced to their source all activities which stem as science can be traced to central assumptions relating to everyday life and can in no way be regarded as producing knowledge with an "objective", value-free status, as is sometimes claimed. What applies for scientific can be shown to be founded upon a set of unstated agreements, beliefs and assumptions, just as every day, common-knowledge is. The difference between them lies largely in the nature of rules and the community which recognises and subscribes to them. The knowledge in both cases is not so much "objective" as shared". For the anti-positivist, the social world is essentially relativistic and it is explained by the individuals who are part of the study and one has to understand from inside rather than outside (Burrell and Morgan,1979).

Post-positivism

Post-positivism is a present approach of social research and tries to overcome the criticism that is made of it. While positivists concentrate on the independence between the researcher and the researched person, post-positivists accept that theories, hypotheses, background knowledge and values affect what is examined (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994). They believe in the existence of reality but they acknowledge the limitations the research. Post-positivism is the same as positivism, pursue objectivity by recognizing the possible effects of biases (Robson, 2002). Post-positivism responds to the problematic criticism of positivism and adopts the critical realism as an ontological position (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). This philosophical approach assumes the existence of reality with the acceptance of differences between objects in different contexts. It stands in a critical position from reality to facilitate comprehending it as closely as possible; thus, it can introduce changes to transform the status quo (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The methods used should fit the subjects and can include qualitative methods (Saunders et al., 2012).

Critical theory

It is described as the sociology of regulation, and it is to analyse and understand the nature of the social world at the basis of subjective experience. It looks at the social world as similar as to an evolving social process which is created by the individuals' subjectivity and consciousness. However, interpretive sociologists look at the world of human affairs as cohesive, ordered, and integrated without the problems of conflict and contradiction to be involved in their theoretical framework (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). Understanding the

organization in a real sense must be based on the individuals' experience (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The critical theory proposes an alternative way to positivism. It shares the view that reality requires a different research approach to reflect the distinctiveness between people. This approach aims to understand human actions based on an attributional explanation of the cause-effect relationships, within the limits of social action being involved rather than including external forces. Unlike the positivism philosophy, this explains human behaviour based on theory (Bryman and Bell, 2011). There is an interactive relationship between the researcher and the studied subjects. This approach adopts the qualitative method in conducting the research, by going in-depth with the studied subjects through dialectical dialogue to understand the subjective meanings behind the phenomenon (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Constructivism

The fourth philosophy is that of constructivism that represents the nature of knowing. This moves away from the ontological realism position towards the ontological relativism. This approach shares the subjectivism principal with the critical theory. However, the relationship between the researcher and the subjects is linked interactively to the findings. Unlike the critical theory linked with the values of the researcher, methods of conducting the research tend to be dialectical and hermeneutical (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

However, the argument was always in choosing between the positivist and interpretivist approach, or between the quantitative and qualitative methods. Baker and Foy (2008) suggest that: "This distinction rests basically on one's personal philosophy concerning the conduct of research with positivists emphasising an inductive or hypothetico-deductive procedure to establish and explain patterns of behaviour while interpretivists seek to establish the motivations and actions that lead to these patterns of behaviour" (Baker and Foy, 2008).

The research aim, following the positivism assumption, is to study a social phenomenon (consumer grudgeholding) in search of regularities and causal relationships assuming the independency of social actors. It is objective and adopts the deductivist principal, by depending on an existing theory to develop a tested hypothesis. Therefore, the researcher acquires knowledge by gathering facts that lead to further development of the theory (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012).

