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EDITORIAL

Consumer complaint behavior and complaint behavior management emerge as one of the most important parameters in providing consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and loyalty. It is possible to elaborate consumer complaint behavior as a function of dissatisfaction that occurs as a result of not matching the expected and perceived performance by consumers. Complaint behavior emerging as a result of dissatisfaction could induce behavioral and non-behavioral outcomes. Successful complaint management creates a long-term competitive advantage by creating consumer value. Especially in today's competitive world, where word-of-mouth communication has become mainstream mainly due to Internet technologies, dissatisfied customers can cause significant damage to businesses of all types.

The research by Şekerkaya et al. aims to explain recovery satisfaction and word-of-mouth communication behavior of consumers who have experienced dissatisfaction after purchasing a good or a service and who transferred this dissatisfaction situation to the business. Another aim of the study is to evaluate the complaint behavior together with the Theory of Planned Behavior in the process. For these purposes, data were collected from consumers over 18 years old, living in Istanbul, Turkey (the largest city in Turkey, with 16 million inhabitants). Study subjects felt dissatisfaction with a good or service they purchased and reported this situation to the business they dealt with. Data collection was carried out with face-to-face interviews. The interviews resulted 459 valid responses which were analyzed by path analysis.

In general, consumer satisfaction or (if a situation of dissatisfaction has occurred) recovery satisfaction is closely related to consumer complacency and therefore plays a critical role in achieving the goals of businesses. Successful complaint management fosters elements such as brand equity, corporate image, and customer loyalty. It is also accepted as a successful defensive strategy as it is an important tool for preventing consumer loss. This study deals with consumer satisfaction (here recovery satisfaction) together with complaint behavior and TPB (Theory of Planned Behavior). In this way, the study presents a holistic and explanatory picture on the axis of satisfaction and complaint behavior. As well, this study focuses on the viral effect created by dissatisfaction and complaint behavior, which are two important elements in the business-consumer relationship. The difference of the study is that it focuses on the viral effect of complaint behavior by considering TPB (Theory of Planned Behavior).

This study contributes to the existing literature on complaint behavior and recovery satisfaction. In addition, the study contributes to the TPB (Theory of Planned Behavior) literature in terms of explaining the theory through complaint behavior. It is also notable to handle complaint behavior together with the viral effect, as the viral effect caused by dissatisfaction could become an important risk for businesses. Recovery satisfaction is a topic that has been dealt with together with many different variables in the literature. This study, on the other hand, deals with the existing effects and relations together with the complaint behavior. As it is known, consumer complaint behavior is very important for every sector of the economy and is a challenging issue that must be managed. Although Şekerkaya et al. have determined the technology sector and the ready-made clothing sector as the sectors where the complaint situation is most common, actually the complaint situation is the subject of every sector. This study follows the past studies of scholars such as Singh (1988), Liu and McClure (2001), Goetzinger (2007), and Maute and Forrester (1993) to understand consumer complaint behavior. As a result of the study, it was found that some sub-dimensions of the complaint behavior have a negative effect on recovery satisfaction and that TPB has different effects on the sub-dimensions of Word-of-Mouth.

In the joint paper by Kilic et al., the authors report findings regarding a study about TV commercial dramas. The effect of sympathy and empathy as mediator variables on consumers' attitudes and emotional responses regarding tourist destinations are investigated. The developed structural equation model was tested using data from a Turkish sample. The study is an extension of previous studies using data collected from an international context. This is significant because additional testing and verification of possible models explaining how sympathy and empathy interact as mediating variables shed light on using TV commercial dramas more effectively to create and/or change tourists' attitudes towards tourism destinations. Thus, the article contributes to our existing understanding by establishing a comprehensive data base in the marketing and advertising literature. It provides further insight into the behavioral foundations of marketing communications, therefore, aspects that may help marketing communicators create more sound and unified messages that impact consumers' attitudes and behavioral tendencies. The readers may find it interesting to see the relationship between sympathy, empathy, verisimilitude, and attitudes toward the advertised brand. For example, it is critical to have perceived verisimilitude to generate influential sympathy or empathy to a vignette drama. Also, a commercial's production value must be high quality and illustrate realistic scenery, thus, environmental settings. A vignette drama commercial for a tourism product must catch attention, evoke curiosity, and involve the viewer for the intended message to get through whether or not the sympathy and empathy responses are highly stimulated.

In the last article by Yau et al., the authors present two different concepts of reciprocity: one from the Orient, which we called *Bao*, and the other from the West, which is called reciprocity initially. The purpose of it is to compare the differences between these two approaches so that managers understand how to apply them properly in the Orient and the West, respectively. To make appropriate comparisons, Yau et al. develop the following five measures:

- Value of exchanges emphasizes the economic fairness of the exchanges between two parties.
- Unit of subject refers to the basic unit involved in the repayment process. The Western sense focuses on bilateral reciprocity exchanges, while its Chinese meaning is more complicated, involving more than two parties.
- Form of repayment is a means to return favors already received.
- Timing of repayment refers to the best time that repayment should be made to return a favor to a benefactor, and
- The entity of repayment refers to the return that should be made directly or indirectly to a benefactor.

Comparison using these measures results in five different outcomes.

First, in the West, exchange value tends to be symmetric. In contrast, in Chinese society, a higher monetary value may be applied. Second, in the West, repayment may be made as soon as possible to avoid the psychological burden. However, the Chinese would tend to repay only when a good time comes. Third, Westerners return a favor in almost the same form. Differently, the Chinese return in a general form, but specific to a situation. Fourth, repayment would be made to the original benefactor in the Western perspective and their family members or relatives in the Chinese perspective. Last, these different outcomes lead to some meaningful marketing implications for marketers in Chinese societies.

First, being one of the four components of relationship marketing orientation proposed by Yau et al. (2000a), *Bao* has served as a lubricant in building a tight relationship in B2B and B2C contexts (Yau et al., 2000b). Second, in designing marketing strategies, making customers reciprocate becomes a crucial task. Managers should have the patience to let customers delay reciprocity to a later date, showing their loyalty. Third, as it may take a long time for members in the marketing system to develop *Bao*, continuous communication with members in the system will speed up the repayment cycle. Last, marketers should skillfully design loyalty programs to let customers' family members enjoy benefits generated from the servicing organizations.

Erdener Kaynak
Editor-in-Chief

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ARTICLES

Consumer Complaint Behavior and Recovery Satisfaction: An Application of the Theory of Planned Behavior

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ABSTRACT. The purpose of this study is evaluating the situation of consumers who have experienced dissatis-faction after purchasing a good or service, and who have reported this to the company, determining the effect of recovery satisfaction on of word-of-mouth communication (WOM) by including the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) in the process. Data was collected from consumers suitable for the research sample through the survey method, and hypotheses were tested by path analysis. Re-search findings revealed that voice, private, and exit sub-dimensions of complaint behavior have a negative effect on recovery satisfaction. Besides, recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on TPB. On the other hand, TPB has a positive effect on positive valance WOM, WOM content, WOM intensity-negative valance, and abstention, while it has a negative effect on recommendation. In this study, the relationship between consumer complaint behavior and word of mouth communi-cation was investigated by including the Theory of Planned Behavior to the process. Considering this theory in the axis of complaint behavior constitutes the differentiation point of the study.

KEYWORDS. Consumer complaint behavior, recovery satisfaction, word-of-mouth communication, Theory of Planned Behavior.

INTRODUCTION

Complaint behavior is the result of consumer dissatisfaction caused by the mismatch of the expected performance with the perceived performance of different marketing mixes (Anderson, 1973). Post-purchase satisfaction is a critical issue for the companies and is an important research topic in the literature. Since customer satisfaction is closely related to consumer complacency, satisfaction is critical for companies. Research shows that negative word-of-mouth communication is very costly for companies. According to the

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studies on dissatisfaction in the literature, only 6% of dissatisfied consumers reported this situation to the business, while 31% of them tell and influence their relatives, and this communication continues from mouth to mouth (Levy, Weitz, & Beitelspacher, 2011).

Today, brands can stay in constant contact with consumers thanks to the opportunities offered by the web-based technologies. Although this technological developments benefits businesses in many respects, it also makes consumers very powerful with the support of technology and may even adversely affect companies in some respects. Dissatisfaction is one of the main determinants of repeat sales, word-of-mouth communication, and commitment (Bearden & Tell, 1983). When the complaints on the internet are examined, it is seen that consumer complaints are in many different sectors and in very different subjects in this context. For example, the rapid dissemination of consumer complaints on social media platforms after the explosion of the battery produced by one of the world's largest telephone manufacturer brands has produced highly effective and destructive results. As consumers spread their complaint behavior in electronic form, the brand had to recall more than two million phones, and the cost of this recall was a total of $5.3 billion to the company (Forbes, 2015, November 1). As a result of the callback and consumer responses, the brand's stocks lost 7.5% in one day, and the value of the brand declined by $17 billion (Peterson, 2016, September 2). Another example is the crisis caused by the complaints and reactions due to the presence of carcinogenic substances in the content of one of the world's major ready-made sweet brands (Landini & Navach, 2017, January 11). A survey showed that 37 out of 100 consumers completely and 21 out of 100 temporarily stopped buying the brand (Zenna Consultancy, 2019). When researches in consumer complaint behavior in the USA are examined, the automobile sector leads the banking and the real estate sector (Forbes, 2015, November 1).

For successful complaint management, the business must have managerial skills, and consumer's needs and expectations should be determined in the most accurate way. As mentioned in the literature, complaint behavior is affected by different factors such as culture, personality traits, and socio-demographic characteristics. For example, a study addressing the reasons why consumers do not develop complaint behavior, even if they experience dissatisfaction, pointed out that to better understand the complaint behavior, the concept should be observed relatedly to personality traits and the focus should be on the response of companies (Davidow & Dacin, 1997). The success of the complaint management process contributes to brand equity (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekaran, 1998), corporate image (Chou & Kim, 2009; Yılmaz & Ari, 2017), customer loyalty (Homburg & Fürst, 2005; Ogbeide et al., 2017; Cai & Chi, 2018). As a result, it is possible to see the complaint management process as a performance improvement tool (Ogbeide et al., 2017) that contributes to total quality management for companies (Bosch & Enriquez, 2005). It is known that as a result of the change created by Internet technologies in the market and the power of the consumer, the viral effect of dissatisfied consumers can seriously damage the company image and its financial value (Shea, Enghagen, & Khullar, 2005).

In this study, consumer complaint behavior is discussed within the axis of its viral effect. The study focuses on complaint behavior and word-of-mouth communication, which are two important factors in the interaction of businesses with consumers. In this respect, the complaint expressed by consumers, the effect of company's response to the complaint, and word-of-mouth communication are discussed together with the Theory of Planned Behavior. In this context, from the formation of the complaint to the communication after satisfaction, the relationship between complaint behavior, satisfaction, and word-of-mouth communication variables were evaluated through path analysis.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Complaint Behavior

Complaint Management for Companies. Complaint management is beneficial for the companies to create customer value and to obtain long-term competitive advantage. When both the literature and the sectorial studies on complaint management are examined, it can be concluded that the complaint management process is an important issue for the companies. However, not all of them agree on the importance of this issue as they can consider investing in complaint management as a significant cost item (Stauss & Schoeler, 2004). Complaint management is defined in different ways, such as part of total quality management (Bosch & Enriquez, 2005) and as a defensive strategy (Homburg & Fürst, 2007). In contrast to aggressive approaches such as advertising, one of the important and noteworthy issues in complaint behavior is the cost-cutting structure of defensive approaches based on minimizing customer loss and brand change behavior (Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1987). Efficient complaint management brings various benefits to companies.

An efficient complaint management process contributes to brand equity (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekaran, 1998) and corporate image (Chou & Kim 2009; Yılmaz & Ari, 2017). Reinforcing customer loyalty (Homburg & Fürst, 2005; Ogbeide et al., 2017; Cai & Chi, 2018) prevents brand change behavior (Fornell & Warnerfelt, 1987) and brand hate (Küçük, 2019). For these reasons, the complaint management process also allows enterprises to make performance improvements by giving them insight into areas where they can improve themselves (Ogbeide et al., 2017). Complaints are the guiding steps for companies to achieve their goals (Barlow & Moller, 2008). From this perspective, complaint management can be described as a high return on investment field. From a certain perspective, the importance of effective complaint management in gaining market share requires this process to be considered as a marketing mix component such as advertising and pricing (Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1988). Complaint management is an issue directly related to the consumer, so understanding the company-consumer interaction is critical in managing this process.

Complaint management is a process that closely concerns both the business and the consumer. For this reason, enterprises should consider factors interacting with each other in this process such as customer satisfaction, customer retention, complaint culture, and attitude of employees (Johnston, 2001). The tendency of the consumers not to disclose their dissatisfaction, insufficiency in identifying the source or cause of the problem causing the complaint, and companies not encouraging the complaint behavior can be mentioned among the reasons why the complaint assessment could not be done correctly (Goodman & Newsman, 2003).

Another reason why complaint behavior is frequently handled in the literature is its close relationship with profitability. In a study examining the types of complaints, it was concluded that the response to different complaints in different market segments affected different levels of profitability, and the returns of complaint management varied accordingly (Cambra-Fierre et al., 2015). It is a fact shown in the literature that taking courses from complaints has a positive effect on both long and short-term performance (Yılmaz et al., 2016). Complaint behavior is undoubtedly most related to marketing activities among other business functions. For this reason, it is very important to understand complaint behavior in terms of the marketing discipline.

Complaint Management in terms of Marketing Discipline. The first conference on complaint behavior, consumer satisfaction, and dissatisfaction in marketing literature was organized in the 1980s (Singh & Pandya, 1991). Complaint behavior, which is one of the key issues in understanding the consumer, has been the subject of research within the marketing discipline since the 1980s. When the definitions about the complaint behavior are compared with each other, two common points can be mentioned; the first is that complaint behavior is closely related to emotions, and the second is that outputs can be divided into behavioral and non-behavioral outcomes (Singh, 1988). Complaint behavior has been the subject of various studies in the literature.

When the literature is examined, it is possible to say that the models developed for the complaint behavior are in the form of different interpretations of Hirschman (1994), Day (1984) and Richins's (1987) approaches. Day (1984) emphasized that complaint behavior should be viewed from a broader perspective rather than as a function of dissatisfaction. He put forward a conceptual model that includes the attitude towards the complaint, the meaning of consumption, the knowledge experience as a consumer, the perceived cost of the complaint, and the subjective assessment of the success of the complaint.

Classification of Consumer Complaint Behavior. There are several studies in the literature grouping consumer behavior according to the reaction of consumers to the complaint situation. Hirschman's model (1994) showing that complaint behavior is affected by sectorial and personal characteristics (Singh, 1990) is frequently used in understanding the complaint behavior of the consumer. Hirschman examined in-depth the complaint behavior, concluded that consumers' response in case of dissatisfaction could be handled under two headings. The first is direct exit without trying to correct something; the second is to inform the relevant people about the situation and to seek solutions (Hirschman, 1994).

The first is an approach that focuses on the behavioral outcomes of dissatisfaction. Maute and Forrester (1993), starting from Hirschman's approach, dealt with the outputs of complaint behavior as exit, reporting, and commitment. Goetzinger (2007), on the other hand, identified the outcomes of the complaint behavior as reporting the complaint to the enterprise, relatives, third party institutions, and collective reporting. Day and Bodur (1978) underlined that boycotting the brand is also an option for consumers. After determining the behavioral outcomes of the complaint behavior, the issue was dealt within different sectors and in different situations. Hansen, Swan, and Powers (1997), who examined the complaint behavior at the organizational level and in the axis of industrial consumers, have addressed three headings as no action/voice; private action, and third party/public action similar to the consumer level. On the other hand, McQuilken and Robertson (2011), who considered the issue on the consumer axis, found that offering a guarantee affects the expression of the complaint, that the severity of the dissatisfaction is the most important determinant, and that the active demand and guarantee type affect the type of behavior.

The second approach divides consumers into groups according to their behavior in dissatisfaction situations. Dart and Freeman (1994) divided consumers into four groups as passives, reporters to company, irritants, and activists according to the expression of the complaint behavior, while Boden (2003) divided consumers into four groups as aggressives, passives, constructors, and professionals. This grouping may be thought of as the product of a study that tries to gather different consumers in similar clusters tending to show the behavioral outcomes in the first approach.

Antecedents and Outcomes of Consumer Complaint Behavior. In addition to the studies categorizing consumers according to their reactions in case of complaints, there are studies dealing with the antecedents and outcomes of these reactions. Richins (1987), for example, examined three behaviors (complaints, word-of-mouth, brand change) in the case of dissatisfaction, how the consumer perceives the solution of the problem and its relationship with consumer characteristics. As a result, it has been shown that complaints and brand change are related to the type and perception of compensation for the problem, and the intention of word-of-mouth communication is related to consumer social interaction tendency, which is a consumer characteristic.

Singh and Wilkes (1996) showed that there is a significant relationship between the attitude towards the complaint and the private, voice, and third-party complaint behaviors. Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996), in their study demonstrating the behavioral and financial outcomes of service quality, handled behavioral outcomes as loyalty, switch, pay more, external response, and internal response. Therefore, although the subject is related to different premises, it is possible to say that conceptualizations are generally made on the axis of perceptual and behavioral dimensions. In the literature, the relationship between complaint behavior and various variables is discussed in terms of consumers. As the complaint behavior arises because of dissatisfaction, it is observed that the satisfaction variable is considered and associated with complaint behavior. It is very important for consumers to take responsibility for their failure and to take action to compensate for the complaint. Consumers welcome compensation such as product replacement, gift certificates, or vouchers. In the case of an expensive product or if the company's response time is prolonged, consumers make negative evaluations against the company (Conlon & Murray, 1996). Also, it was pointed out that the consumer's regret and frustration were different emotions (Zeelenberg et al., 2000). Regret was more closely related to word-of-mouth communication, business change, and complaint behavior. Levesque and McDougall (1996) also emphasized the importance of managing consumer dissatisfaction on growth and sustainability. Besides, the relationship between complaint behavior and consumer characteristics has been examined in the literature.

Emotions, Personality Characteristics, Sociodemographic Characteristics, and Complaint Behavior. Complaint behavior was also examined in terms of different variables such as emotions, personality traits, and socio-demographic characteristics. Zeelenberg and Pieters (2004), who examined the role of emotions in complaint behavior, identified the outcomes of dissatisfaction as change, no-action, complaining, and word-of-mouth communication. Mattila and Ro (2008) investigated the effect of different emotions (nervous, frustration, regret, anxiety) on consumer's complaint behavior. In this study, it was revealed that consumers who are worried as a result of dissatisfaction tend not to complain. Huang and Chang (2008) revealed that the complaint behavior is affected by personality traits. Another issue that is dealt with alongside complaint behavior is psychographic features.

Sharma et al. (2010) developed a conceptual model that handles complaint behavior according to situational (customer dissatisfaction and engagement) and consumer (responsiveness and self-monitoring) characteristics. The researchers emphasized that complaint behavior was positively related to involvement and reactivity and negatively to self-monitoring. Gursoy, McCleary, and Lepsito (2003) revealed that two clusters emerged according to the complaint behavior: consumers who spoke to consumers and those who reported to the business. These clusters differed according to the frequency of eating out and marital status. Cultural differences are also another investigation area for consumer complaint behavior.

Investigation of Complaint Behavior in Different Cultures. The occurrence of complaint behavior and the responses of consumers to the complaint vary according to the cultures. The elements and values formed by cultures are important in terms of differences in the consumer's approach to complaint. Liu and

McClure (2001) examined complaint behavior in collectivist and individualistic cultures and summarized the outputs of the complaint behavior as reporting to the company, reporting to the close environment, and reporting to third party organizations. In a study conducted on Chinese consumers dealing with dissatisfaction behavior in hotel establishments, it was found that consumers were generally passive in their complaints or conveyed their complaints to their close circles. In this study, it was also concluded that women, young people, and consumers with higher education levels have a higher tendency to complain (Heung & Lam, 2003). Kim, Lee, and Mattila (2014) found that societies with collectivist cultures, such as Asian societies, tend to complain in cases of low commitment and high price, suggesting that they are prone to change the company or engage in word-of-mouth communication activity rather than reporting complaints to the business. Fan, Mattila, and Zhao (2015) examined complaint behavior in different cultures and found that social distance had a regulatory effect on complaint intention. In addition, they found that the presence of foreigners in both American and Chinese consumers triggers complaint behavior. Complaint behavior has also been studied in the developing countries where this study was conducted.

When the relatively highly cited and available sources about complaint behavior in the Turkish literature are examined, it is seen that related studies are generally conducted in the service sector. Yılmaz (2004) stated that the dissatisfaction of the consumers was affected by the socio-demographic characteristics, and the main reason for the dissatisfaction was the negative attitude of the salesmen and the lack of interest after sales. In a study conducted on students, it was found that there was a significant relationship between satisfaction after complaint behavior and intention to buy again and negative word-of-mouth (Gökdeniz, Bozacı & Karakaya, 2011). A study on high-speed train passengers revealed that there is a relationship between the attitude, the perceived value of complaint and the intention to complain (Ayaz & Torlak, 2011). Kılıç and Ok (2012) also showed that post-complaint consumer evaluations differ according to gender, educational background, and marital status. Like the findings mentioned earlier in this study, Albayrak (2013) stated that there is a relationship between demographic characteristics and complaint behavior and that the complaint behavior occurs in employees related issues.

Along with the developments in Internet technologies, complaint behavior has started to be examined in these channels. With a qualitative study, Yılmaz (2016) investigated the reasons for consumers to complain on social media. Another study comparing complaint behavior in online and offline media revealed that consumers were less inclined to complain in online media, and there was a relationship between complaint and intention to buy again in both channels. In analogy to foreign literature, there is a tendency towards the investigation of complaint behavior on the Internet in recent years (Argan & Tokay, 2014; Gürce & Tosun, 2017; Şahin & Alkaya, 2017; Şahin et al., 2018; Genç & Batman, 2018).

Recovery Satisfaction

Satisfaction is an intensively investigated topic in different fields in marketing literature. Consumer satisfaction is an important field for marketing activities since it is accepted as one of the basic determinants of repetitive sales, positive word-of-mouth communication, and loyalty (Bearden & Teel, 1983). Nevertheless, businesses should focus on not making mistakes instead of compensating for the error (McCollough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000). However, as is known, this is not always possible in a market where there is endless change and demand with limited resources.

The studies related to satisfaction are mostly in the service industries. Andreassen and Lindestad (1997) emphasized that corporate image and satisfaction are important in creating consumer loyalty, retaining and attracting consumers in the service sector. In another study drawing attention to the relational dimension in the compensation of dissatisfaction from service, the compensation effort is divided into two types: operational and relation oriented. In this study, it was emphasized that the process can be handled in cooperation with the employees and on the axis of relational marketing (Brown et al., 1996).

Recovery Satisfaction and Perceived Justice. The relationship between perceived justice and satisfaction is another subject that has been frequently studied in the literature. Hocutt, Chakraborty and Mowen (1997) discussed the relationship between satisfaction and perceived justice on the axis of complaint behavior and stated that consumer satisfaction is affected by the reason of dissatisfaction and perceived justice, and after a successful complaint management, consumer satisfaction may be higher than the situation where the complaint does not occur. According to another perspective, perceived justice affects consumers' satisfaction through cognitive and emotional evaluations (Schoefer, 2008).

When the literature is examined, it is seen that recovery satisfaction affects sub-dimensions of perceived justice differently. For example, Hess and Ambrose (2010) showed that distributional, transactional, and interpersonal justice is effective on satisfaction after the complaint, whereas informational justice is effective on re-purchase intention, trust in the enterprise, and negative word-of-mouth. In another study, it was stated that all three dimensions of perception of justice affect satisfaction, and among them, the perception of justice related to the process is the most effective and the only dimension that affects emotions (Rio-Lanza, Vazquez-Casielles, & Diaz-Martin, 2013). Kim, Kim, and Kim (2009) showed that all three dimensions of the perception of justice affect trust, word-of-mouth, and revisiting intention through recovery satisfaction. Andreassen (2000) found that recovery satisfaction is related to perceived performance, incompatibility with expectations, and perceived justice. Gohary, Hamzelu, and Alizadeh (2016) stated that perceived justice affects recovery satisfaction, and involvement has a mediating role in this process. Özkan-Tektaş and Başgöze (2017) stated that perceived distributive, procedural, and interactional justice has a mediating role on satisfaction and feelings about compensation. This study revealed also that the reputation of the enterprise is engaged in the process.

Recovery Satisfaction and Word-of-Mouth Communication. Recovery satisfaction and perceived justice is also handled together with word-of-mouth communication in the literature. Maxham and Netemayer (2002), for example, have demonstrated that there is a relationship between distributional, transactional, and interactional justice and satisfaction, word-of-mouth, and purchase intention. In another study, it was found that a high level of effort in service compensation had a positive effect on satisfaction, purchase intention, and positive word-of-mouth communication (Maxham III, 2001). Jung and Soeck (2017) found a relationship between perceived justice, satisfaction, and word-of-mouth, and that perceived justice varies according to the form of compensation. In another study, it was revealed that consumers' perception of justice changes according to the type of compensation, and there is a relationship between perceived justice, satisfaction, and intention of word-of-mouth communication (Jung & Seock, 2017).

Satisfaction was also studied with word-of-mouth communication, independently from perceived justice. For example, Davidow (2003) has developed a model demonstrating customer complaint behavior outcomes. According to this model, a company's response to complaint affects satisfaction, and accordingly, satisfaction affects word-of-mouth communication and repurchase intention. Boshoff (2005) developed the RECOVSAT scale, emphasizing that consumer's recovery satisfaction response should be multidimensional. This scale consists of communication, authority, feedback, agreement, explanation, and countable elements dimensions. The researchers emphasized the importance of this scale as a tool to measure secondary outcomes such as commitment, trust, and word-of-mouth communication. In another study, various factors affecting satisfaction were considered as overall satisfaction level, and it was concluded that overall satisfaction affects repurchase intention and word-of-mouth communication (Spreng, Harrell, & Mackoy, 1995).

Recovery Satisfaction, Trust and Commitment. Another axis related to satisfaction is described in the literature on trust and commitment. In a study examining the relationship between complaint management and brand equity, it was emphasized that consumers' recovery satisfaction positively affects trust and loyalty (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekaran, 1998). In a study dealing with consumer trust following recovery satisfaction, it was found that trust in the enterprise, recovery satisfaction, and perceived value affect repurchase and word-of-mount intentions (Santos & Fernandes, 2008).

Kim, Kim, and Kim (2009) found that all three dimensions of perceived justice affect trust, word-of-mouth, and revisiting intention through recovery satisfaction. In another study, it was found that interactional and procedural justice affect recovery satisfaction, and overall satisfaction mediates the relationship between recovery satisfaction and commitment (Chang & Chang, 2010). Wen and Chi (2013) found that perceived justice and consumption emotions directly and indirectly affect trust, repurchase, and word-of-mouth intentions.

The Effect of Internet Technologies on Recovery Satisfaction. Along with the developments in Internet technologies, online shopping experiences have begun to be studied in this field. Word-of-mouth communication is one of the most studied subjects in the studies on this research area. As a result of a study dealing with the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intention with scenario technique, it was concluded that procedural justice affects positive satisfaction and positive emotions (Kuo & Wu, 2012). Harris (2003), on the other hand, discussed perceived justice, recovery satisfaction, repurchase intention, and word-of-mouth communication activities in online channels, and found that like traditional media, perceived justice affects recovery satisfaction (Cho et al., 2002). Another study revealed that the severity of negativity, interactional justice, transactional justice, and perceived cost of change are associated with customer loyalty (Wang et al., 2011).

Other Related Research Areas to Recovery Satisfaction. In addition, consumer satisfaction has been studied with various other issues such as cultural differences, social impact, and opportunistic behavior. The cultural element is also effective in satisfaction studies. Schoefer (2010) examined whether recovery satisfaction changes according to different cultures, and found that culture affects the emotional and cognitive dimensions of satisfaction. Ro and Wong (2012) examined the management of opportunistic complaints by businesses. Opportunistic complaints are those that are not really based on dissatisfaction.

The Theory of Planned Behavior

The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) has been used in many studies in marketing literature. TPB is an understanding aimed at explaining the behavior of individuals. Considering that the consumer is at the center of the contemporary marketing approach, determining the individual's behavioral intentions is crucial for marketing research. According to TPB, a three-dimensional process guides an individual's behavioral intention. The first dimension is the attitude towards behavior, which refers to a person's positive or negative assessment concerning their behavior. According to TPB, a person's behavior plays an important role in perceiving them as positive or negative. The second dimension is the subjective norm. The subjective norm is a social factor that expresses perceived social pressure to realize or not realize a behavior. Developing societies are generally collectivist societies. It can be said that there is more social pressure on individuals in collectivist societies. The third dimension is the perceived behavioral control. The perceived behavioral control includes an individual's assessments of difficulty in realizing their behavior and the situations that prevent them from performing it (Ajzen, 1991). From this point of view, it was mentioned that TPB predicts the intention towards behavior with a three-factor structure: attitude towards behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Mathieson, 1991).

TPB has long been a question of great interest in a wide range of fields. Godin and Kok (1996) used the theory to review health practices and explain health-related behaviors. One of the studies dealing with the issue in relation to consumption, Conner, Warren, and Mark (1999) concluded that TPB explains alcohol consumption behavior. According to the findings of this study, it was concluded that there is a direct relationship between past behaviors and behavioral intention, and it was concluded that behaviors considered as negative affect behavior intention less than past behaviors. Bansal and Taylor (2002) explained customers' service provider changing behavior by the TPB. According to the findings, perceived behavioral control and subjective norms are effective on changing service provider.

In parallel with the developments in the Internet technologies, TPB has been the subject of studies in digital channels as well as traditional channels. Shih and Fang (2004) described intention to adopt Internet banking through TPB. With the increase in online shopping transactions in recent years, George (2004) has put forward a study to explain consumer behavior on the Internet with TPB. In this study, it was found that beliefs about purchasing products from the Internet had a positive effect on perceived behavioral control, and this situation had a positive effect on purchasing behavior. The study also found that beliefs about the reliability of online purchasing had a positive effect on purchasing behavior.

Another issue where Planned Behavior Theory is dealt with in the literature is word-of-mouth, which is one of the important factors affecting the buying behavior of consumers. Cheng, Land, and Hsu (2005) found that there is a positive relationship between the components of TPB and negative word-of-mouth communication. According to the findings of this study, TPB has a positive relationship with the intention of negative word-of-mouth communication and past behaviors influence the intention of negative word-of-mouth communication. The research also pointed out that consumers' experiences with the product or service affect future purchase intention.

Cheng and Lam (2008) revealed that the intention to complain is affected by the relationship between the customer and the seller, and that the personal behavior shown to the customer has no effect on the consumer complaint. Pelling and White (2009) indicated TPB has a significant effect on consumers' intention to use social media. Jalilvand and Saiei (2012) found that electronic word-of-mouth affects subjective norms, perceived behavioral control and travel intention. Additionally, the study found that travel experience has an impact on electronic word-of-mouth and TPB.

Word-of-Mouth and Electronic Word-of-Mouth Communications

With the introduction of the Internet into our lives, significant changes in consumer behavior have occurred. These changes in consumer behavior have led to the need for reinterpreting the important concepts and theories used in marketing. One of these concepts is word-of-mouth communication, which is one of the important topics for marketing literature. The word-of-mouth communication is defined as the transfer of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of a consumer to family, workmates, and friends (Söderlund, 1998). The main motivation behind the consumer's desire to tell others about the product or service he/she has experienced is this behavior's tension reducing function (Dichter, 1966). The motives that push the consumer into word-of-mouth are divided into internal motives and external motives. Yoo, Sanders, and Moon (2013) concluded that intrinsic motives are more important in electronic word-of-mouth than extrinsic motives. In the research, efforts to help customers are given as examples of intrinsic motives and monetary incentives are shown as examples of exogenous motives. Word-of-mouth communication is crucial for purchasing decisions since it affects potential customers and consumers' product review and evaluation (Herr, Kardes, & Kim, 1991).

Since the Internet has become a part of daily life since the 2000s, the concept of electronic word-of-mouth has become evident alongside traditional word-of-mouth communication. The electronic word-of-mouth communication is defined as positive or negative comments made by consumers about a product, service, or business over the Internet (Henning-Thurau, Gwinnter, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004). Electronic word of mouth is the version of traditional word-of-mouth communication that arises from internet environment where it extends its domain of influence. When the relation of electronic word-of-mouth communication with complaint behaviors is examined, it is seen that complaint behavior is the main determinant of negative word-of-mouth communication (Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993).

When the literature is examined, there are studies concluding that consumers' complaints and evaluations about products after purchase are quite effective on sales. Chevalier and Mayzlin (2006) found that positive evaluations written on the Internet had a positive effect on sales. When the effects of negative and positive word-of-mouth on purchase intention was compared, it was found that positive word-of-mouth is more effective on purchase intention (East, Hammond, & Lomax, 2008). As a result of the negative evaluations made by the consumers, it was pointed out that the service improvements made by the business increase consumer satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth communication (Duan, Gu, & Whinston, 2008). When the evaluations of consumers in general was taken into consideration, it was concluded that consumer evaluations affect sales (Ye, Law, Gu, & Chen, 2011). The electronic word-of-mouth communication has an impact on brand perceptions as well as intention to purchase. The word-of-mouth is one of the most critical and important antecedents affecting brand image (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012).

With electronic word-of-mouth communication, the crises in social media platforms have become more punchy and difficult to manage compared to crises in traditional environments (Pace, Balboni, & Gistri, 2017). Crises in social media are damaging the brand by intensifying word-of-mouth communication and causing people to be affected negatively by each other. Negative word-of-mouth communication between consumers mediates factors that affect the consumer's intention to purchase, such as insecurity and dissatisfaction. This reduces brand trust and customer satisfaction (Moon, Costello, & Koo, 2017). The model of this study is formed by combining the variables related to the expression of the different types of complaint reactions in different studies based on the studies in the literature. In this study, the TPB, which was previously discussed together with the word-of-mouth communication, will be evaluated together with the complaint behavior. The complaint behavior and the word-of-mouth communication are subjects formerly discussed together as mentioned. In addition to the previous studies, TPB was also included in the process in this study. The variables that are determined within the scope of the research are included in the methodology section.

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS

The main purpose of this study is to examine the complaint behavior from the consumer perspective. In this context, recovery satisfaction of the consumers who reported their dissatisfaction with a product or service to the company is evaluated. In addition, the effect of this situation on consumers' word of mouth communication behavior was investigated by including TPB. The importance of complaint behavior management for companies was constitutive in determining the research model. Addressing complaint behavior from consumers' point of view is an important tool for companies to improve their performance (Ogbeide et al., 2017) and to better conduct the total quality management process (Bosch and Enriquez, 2005). When considered from this point of view, this study is thought to make significant contributions to the consumer complaint literature.

Research Model

A detailed literature review was conducted to determine the variables included in the study. To measure consumer complaint behavior, research belonging to Singh (1988); Liu and McClure (2001); Goetzgener (2007); and Maute and Forrester (1993) are used. The structure formed by combining these studies consists of 19 variables. These 19 variables explain consumer complaint behavior in six subdimensions: voice complaint, private complaint, third party complaint, collective complaint, exit, (exit) and loyalty. The studies of Morgan and Hunt (1994); Wong and Sohal (2002); and Kim, Kim, and Kim (2009) are used to measure the assessment of recovery satisfaction following the occurrence of the complaint and reporting to the company. This scale consists of one dimension and 4 variables. For the intention of traditional and electronic word-of-mouth, communication scales formed by Srinivasan et al. (2002) and Goyette et al. (2010) are used. The structure measuring this dimension was included in the study with 5 sub-dimensions and 23 variables: WOM, intensity, positive valence, negative valence, and content. Yang (2013) and Cheng, Lam and Hsu's (2006) studies on the effect of TPB on viral attitudes and word-of-mouth were used to examine the TPB. The scale used for TPB consists of 3 sub-dimensions and 8 variables. Research variables consisting of the consumer complaint behavior, recovery satisfaction, the TPB, and the intention of traditional and electronic word-of-mouth communication intention are shown graphically in Figure 1.

Research Hypothesis

The following hypotheses are based on insights from the preceding literature review.

H1a: The private response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.

H1b: The collective response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.

H1c: The third-party response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.

H1d: The exit response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.

H1e: The voice response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.

H1f: The loyalty response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.

H1g: The recovery satisfaction is effective on the Theory of Planned Behavior.

H1h: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the positive valance WOM.

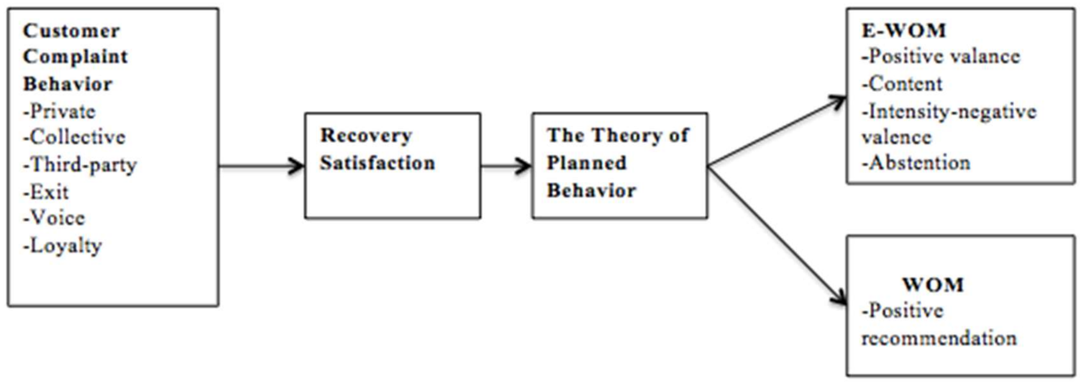
H1ı: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the WOM content.

H1j: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the WOM intensity – negative valence.

H1k: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the positive recommendation.

H1l: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the abstention.

Figure 1. Research Model and Variables



METHODOLGY

Questionnaire Design

As a result of in-depth interviews conducted in two stages, variables were arranged in terms of expressions and simplified. Consequently, a final questionnaire consisting of 54 variables was created. The questionnaire consists of 63 questions with the addition of the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Sampling Procedure

Research population consisted of consumers over 18 years old living within the boundaries of Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality who experienced dissatisfaction with the goods or services they have purchased in the last five years and in response to his situation, reported this as a complaint to the related institutions. When the statistical databases are examined, it is not possible to reach the number of consumers who express their reactions as a result of the complaint behavior. For this reason, simple random sampling was used in the study. Therefore, face-to-face surveys have been conducted in different districts on the European and Anatolian side of Istanbul. A questionnaire was applied to the consumers who were convenient with the scope of our research (those who have reported dissatisfaction in the last five years). After reviewing the questionnaires, 495 valid questionnaires were analyzed.

DATA ANALYSIS

The research sample consists of 495 participants, with 221 (44.6%) female and 274 (55.4%) male respondents. In the sample, 68.9% of the respondents are single and 31.1% are married; 39.6 % of the respondents have an income of 1500 TL and less, while this is followed by 30.3% with an income between 1501-3000 TL. It was seen that 52.3% of participants were high school graduates, and 22.8% were undergraduates. 55.8% of the participants are in the 18-25 age range, and 14.9% are in the 26-33 age range. Additionally, 44.8% of the respondents are students, and 23% are private-sector employees.

Based on the income level, education level, and age range of the sample, it can be said that most of the respondent group consists of students. According to the questionnaire, the technology sector is determined as the sector where consumers complain the most with 29.5%, followed by the clothing sector with 22.6% and other sectors with 11.5%.

Exploratory Factor and Reliability Analysis

Table 2 represents Cronbach Alpha values reflecting factor loads, total variance explained and reliability coefficients of variables.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Gender		**%**	**Marital Status**		**%**
Female	221	44.6	Single	341	68.9
Male	274	55.4	Married	154	31.1
Monthly Income (1 $ = 6 TL)		**%**	**Age**		**%**
1500 TL and less	196	39.6	18-25	276	55.8
1501-3000TL	150	30.3	26-33	74	14.9
3001-4500TL	84	17.0	34-41	59	11.9
4501-6000TL	31	6.3	42-49	47	9.5
6001TL-7500TL	5	1.0	50-57	32	6.5
7501-9000TL	15	3.0	Over 58	7	1.4
Over 9000 TL	14	2.8			
Occupation		**%**	**Education**		**%**
Private sector employees	114	23.0	Primary Education	36	7.3
Civil Servant	40	8.1	High School	259	52.3
Self Employed	21	4.2	Associate Degree	58	11.7
Tradesman	24	4.8	Undergraduate	113	22.8
Laborer	7	1.4	Graduate	29	5.9
Retired	11	2.2			
Housewife	28	5.7			
Student	222	44.8			
Unemployed	11	2.2			
Other	4	1.0			

A 19-variable consumer complaint behavior scale adapted to Turkish consumers as a result of in-depth interviews was gathered under six factors. This factor structure is consistent with the literature, with 6 sub-dimensions: private, collective, third party, exit, voice, and loyalty. The exploratory factor analysis revealed that recovery satisfaction consists of one dimension and four variables, and TPB consists of one dimension and eight variables. According to the factor analysis for online and offline word-of-mouth communication, the scale consisting of 23 variables was reduced to 21 variables collected under five factors compatible with the literature as positive valence, content, intensity and negative valence, positive recommendation, and abstention. As it can be seen from the validity analysis, the total variance explained of all scales is over 65%. The scale's explanatory level can be considered as high. (Malhotra, 2010).

Path Analysis Results

When the correlation matrix was evaluated, it was found that there was not a correlation level (> 0.85) causing multiple correlation problem (Hair et al., 2010), and it was concluded that the use of path analysis is appropriate.

Table 2. Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Test

Factors	Factor Loadings
Consumer Complaint Behavior (Total variance explained: %69,460; Cronbach Alpha: 0,749)	
Private	
Participate in spreading negative word-of-mouth about your experience to people you know.	0,722
Personally speak to your friends, relatives, or acquaintances about your experience.	0,718
Personally warn friends, relatives, or acquaintances.	0,707
I've spoken everywhere about my complaint to spill out.	0,675
Complain publicly without expecting anything in return.	0,640
Attemtp to convince your friends, relatives, or acquanintances not to use that product/service.	0,583
Collective	
Post your complaint on the Internet for other consumers to see.	0,863
Use a product/service review website to voice your complaint publicly to other consumers.	0,793
Complain publicly to warn other consumers about your experience.	0,692
Third Party	
Take some sort of legal action against the seller of manufacturer.	0,846
Complain to a consumer agency about your experience.	0,880
Complain to an outside agency.	0,666
Contact a thirt-party about your dissatisfying experience.	0,599
Exit	
I choose another company next time.	0,873
I never choose the product of the same business next time.	0,847
Voice	
Take action to complain directly to the seller or manufacturer.	0,845
Ensure the seller/manufacturer gets your complaint	0,829
Loyalty	
Wait and hope that things improve at the business.	0,892
Just try to forget what happened.	0,827
Recovery satisfaction (Total variance explained: %81,704; Cronbach Alpha: 0,925)	
This business's response to the service failure was better than expected.	0,928
I am satisfied with the manner in which the service failure was resolved.	0,912
Overall, I am satisfied with the service I received.	0,900
I now have a more positive attitude toward this business.	0,875
The Theory of Planned Behavior (Total variance explained: %73,977; Cronbach Alpha: 0,948)	
Passing along electronic messages to my friends or relatives is entirely within my control.	0,910
I feel free to pass along electronic messages to my frineds or relatives if I like to.	0,900
Generally, I think it is good to pass along electronic messages to friends or relatives.	0,884
Most people who are important me think it is good to pass along electronic messages to friends or relatives.	0,878

Most people who are important to me would pass along electronic messages to frineds or relatives.	0,843
It is easy to pass along electronic messages to friends or relatives.	0,826
Passing along electronic messages to my friends or relatives is entirely within my control.	0,825
My attitude toward passing along electronic messages is positive.	0,808
Electronic Word-of-Mouth (WOM) (Total variance explained: %69,978; Cronbach Alpha: 0,912)	
Positive valance WOM	
I recommended this company on social media.	0,820
I am proud to say to others that I am this company's customer on social media.	0,807
I spoke of this company's good sides on social media.	0,754
I strongly recommend people buy products from this company on social media.	0,748
I mostly say positive things to other on social media.	0,698
I strongly recommend this company on social media.	0,656
I spoke of this company is user friendly on social media.	0,536
WOM content	
I spoke of the quality of the products on social media.	0,794
I spoke of ease of transactions on social media.	0,779
I spoke of the variety of the products on social media.	0,772
I spoke of the prices of products on social media.	0,753
I spoke of the rapid delivery on social media.	0,727
I spoke of this company is relying on social media.	0,665
WOM Intensity – Negative Valence	
I spoke of this company much more frequently than about any other companies on social media.	0,792
I spoke of this company much more frequently than about companies of any other type on social media.	0,786
I spoke of this company to many individuals on social media.	0,759
I mostly said negative things to others on social media.	0,736
I often negative shared about the company on social media.	0,696
Positive Recommendation	
I said positive things to people about this business.	0,810
When people asked me my ideas, I recommended this company.	0,717
Abstention	
I did not encourage my friends to shop from this business.	,783
I hesitated to tell my friends about this business.	,732

According to the results of the path analysis in Table 3, voice, private and exit sub-dimensions of complaint behavior have a negative effect on recovery satisfaction. Additionally, recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on TPB. On the other hand, TPB has a positive effect on positive valance WOM, WOM content, WOM intensity-negative valance and abstention, while it has a negative effect on recommendation.

CONCLUSIONS

Within the scope of this research, complaint behavior was investigated within the scope of recovery satisfaction and traditional and electronic word-of-mouth communication. For the purpose of the research, data were collected from the consumers who were not satisfied with the goods or services they have purchased and reported this dissatisfaction to the company in the last five years. According to the frequency analysis of related questions, the technology sector faces the complaint situation most frequently, the technology sector is followed by the ready-made clothing sector. However, as outlined in the introduction, complaint behavior is an extensive problem present in almost every sector.

According to the result of the study, the sub-dimensions of complaint behavior, which are to voice, private, and exit complaint behaviors, are effective on recovery satisfaction. The effect of private complaints on satisfaction can be interpreted as the willingness and efforts of the companies to compensate.

Table 3. Path Analysis Results

Effects	Path Analysis Results
H_{1a}: The private response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.	-0,32
H_{1b}: The collective is effective on the recovery satisfaction.	-0,02
H_{1c}: The third-party response is effective on the recovery satisfaction.	-0,04
H_{1d}: The exit is effective on the recovery satisfaction.	-0,29
H_{1e}: The voice response is effective on recovery satisfaction.	0,14
H_{1f}: The loyalty is effective on the recovery satisfaction.	-0,02
H_{1g}: The recovery satisfaction is effective on the Theory of Planned Behavior.	-0,11
H_{1h}: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the positive valance WOM	0,18
$H_{1ı}$: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the WOM content	0,21
H1j: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the WOM intensity – negative valence	0,57
H1k: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the positive recommendation	-0,15
H1l: The Theory of Planned Behavior is effective on the abstention	0.12

The other two dimensions affecting recovery satisfaction are dimensions related to the number of existing and new customers of the company. Exit behavior will reduce the number of a company's customers, while private behavior will prevent potential customers from becoming real ones. Therefore, research findings support that complaint behavior is one of the critical factors in achieving profitability targets of businesses. However, expression of complaint behavior on the internet, receiving external/social support about the complaint and not taking action have no effect on recovery satisfaction.

Another finding of the study reveals that recovery satisfaction affects TPB negatively. In other words, as the satisfaction level of compensation increases, the tendency of consumers to share their complaints experiences decreases. In fact, this finding is in line with the view that consumers who are dissatisfied are more willing and active in conveying their dissatisfaction (Levy, Weitz, & Beitelspacher, 2011). This can be interpreted as the following: consumers are willing to share their negative experiences and seek their right when a negative situation occurs; on the other hand, they see company's recovery satisfaction efforts as not something to be appreciated or talked about, but as a must.

According to the last section of research model, TPB positively affects the positive valence, content, intensity-negative valence and abstention dimensions in online and traditional channels. Cheng, Lam, and Hsu (2006) found that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, which are considered as three sub-dimensions of TPB, affects intensity-negative valence word-of-mouth communication. However, in this study, as a result of validity analysis, TPB is handled as a one-dimensional concept. Nevertheless, in parallel with Cheng, Lam, and Hsu's (2006) findings, similar to negative word-of-mouth communication, planned behavior was found to have an effect on intensity-negative valence dimension. Additionally, and differently in this study, it was found that positive word-of-mouth communication could be explained by planned behavior. This situation shows that after the complaint situation, consumers make positive or negative comments on online platforms about the satisfaction or dissatisfaction they have experienced.

As mentioned in the literature summary, recovery satisfaction is a subject frequently investigated with subjects such as perceived justice (e.g., Hocutt, Chakraborty, & Mowen, 1997; Andreassen, 2000; Gohary, Hamzelu, & Alizadeh, 2016) and word-of-mouth communication (e.g., Maxham & Netemayer, 2002; Jung & Soeck, 2017). This study tries to explain the effects and relations mentioned earlier in the literature within the scope of complaint behavior. Besides, a limited number of studies have been reached in the literature addressing word-of-mouth communication on the axis of TPB (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006). This study is thought to contribute to this understanding by adding TPB to the process.

The sample included individuals living in Istanbul and its vicinity. Therefore, the generalization of the results is not possible. It is recommended to repeat study in a major and more inclusive sample. Also, repeating the research in different developing countries besides Turkey will provide an understanding about different cultures' complaint behavior. It is thought that research in this design will have important outputs for global and digital marketing activities.

During the preliminary study and the data analysis stages, it was observed that the dissatisfaction situation is observed in many different sectors. The study can be examined in experimental design by combining qualitative and quantitative methods in different sectors to gain in-depth knowledge. Such an approach can contribute important findings in terms of making comparisons and providing sector-specific recommendations. In addition, as it is known, complaint management is a dynamic process. The same consumer could behave differently in a dissatisfaction situation with different products, environments, or conditions. In order to better understand these differences, we recommend implying different scenarios to consumers with different socio-demographic characteristics in an experimental design. Also, in this study, it was found that collective, third-party and loyalty sub-dimensions of complaint behavior have no effect on satisfaction. In future studies, in-depth analysis of the causes of this situation with qualitative and quantitative methods could reveal important findings.

Research findings reveal the negative impact of dissatisfaction on both current and potential customers. First of all, it is recommended to companies to avoid practices that would cause complaints (McCollough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000). However, as it is known, in real life, zero error in real processes is a desired situation, but unlikely to occur. At this point, this study is important in terms of revealing the importance of complaint behavior in terms of revealing the importance of proper management of the compensation process.

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TV Commercial Dramas and their Impact on Tourists' Attitudes towards the Destination: A Turkish Case

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ABSTRACT. The study by Kilic et al is about testing Turkish consumers' cognitive and affective responses to a TV commercial drama vignette and its impact on the consumers' attitude towards the vacation destination. Results indicate that perceived verisimilitude is influencing responses to commercial drama, partially mediated by sympathy and empathy. The role of empathy as the key mediator was weaker than anticipated. Likely causes for this comprising cultural factors are deliberated. Research findings recommend that in order to successfully promote tourism services, the TV vignette's production quality and believability must be high to generate sufficient verisimilitude to stimulate favorable attitudes towards the ad (Aad). Also, consumers' attitudes towards the ad (Aad) are moderately influencing the consumers' attitudes towards the brand (Ab) and, thus, towards the advertised resort locations (Ab) favorably.

KEYWORDS. TV Commercial Drama, advertising, cultural values, sympathy, empathy, Turkey.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this research is to test cognitive and affective responses to TV Commercial Dramas (TVCD) in a Turkish context. Miller, Stoica, and Kilic's (2017) research methodology implemented in former studies was extended into the Turkish cultural environment. The role of *empathy* is a central question in this study. Their previous research indicates that empathy has a key role in viewer responses, which is considered as a mediator of a TVCD's executional components on consumers' attitudes toward ads and brands. Conversely, empathic concern is thought to differ cross-culturally. It has been anticipated that empathic propensities may differ according to some of Hofstede's (1980) values dimensions.

A leisure industry ad should be a proper choice to analyze the impact of empathy, since the TVCD is widely used in the tourism sector

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(Miller, Stoica, & Kilic, 2017). The tourism industry has a substantial share in world trade. Tourism's share in global GDP was 10.4% and also employed 9.9% of the world total employment in 2017. The Mediterranean region's share was above the average (11.45%). Greece and Turkey's tourism contributions to their GDP in 2017 were 19.7% and 12.17% respectively (World Travel and Tourism Council 2018 Country Reports).

Consumers have so many destination choices, which leads to the fact that tourism locations and services are heavily advertised and promoted. Although tourism agencies are well aware of social media's increasing ability to generate word of mouth, with immediately becoming viral, it erodes the impact of marketer controlled communication (Litvin & Hoffman, 2012). Traditional media, which include websites and advertising, are still widely used and remain important elements for resorts, casinos, cruise lines, and other travel destinations (Rasty, Chou, & Feiz, 2013; Bhagwat & Debruine, 2008). Digital ad spending worldwide was $228.44 billion, which was 39.1% of the total media advertising spending of $584.14 billion in 2017. Mobile ad spending worldwide totaled $142.78 billion, thus 62.51% of digital ad spending. Digital's growth is primarily due to advertisers' high interest in mobile ad formats (eMarketer Report, October 13, 2017). Since the major portion of total media advertising spending consists of traditional media advertising, one can say that tourism marketers still may believe that these venues have a crucial impact in establishing general awareness, creating and maintaining travel destinations' brand image (Pan, 2011), and drawing guests (Meehan, 2008). A special form of television commercial drama (TVCD), namely the vignette, has been extensively used in the tourism industry to promote and advertise travel destinations (Miller, Stoica, & Kilic 2017). TVCD is a special type of advertising implementation that depicts guests/tourists enjoying the facilities of resorts, cruises, as well as the broader environment (social and cultural) the advertised destination is located in.

There are two different types of TVCD, namely the classical and the vignette. Several studies researched the impact of TVCD characteristics and the relationships between cognitive and affective responses, such as ad-evoked feelings, attitudes toward the ad, and beliefs as well as attitudes toward the brand. Empathy and sympathy are two crucial psychological constructs determining TVCD's effectiveness (Wells 1989; Boller 1990; Boller & Olson 1991; Stern 1994; Escalas & Stern 2003, Miller, Stoics, & Kilic 2017). Verisimilitude, which represents the authenticity of the depicted scenarios perceived by the viewer, is a very critical construct to develop sufficient sympathy and empathy (Wells, 1989; Boller & Olson, 1991; Deighton, Romer, & McQueen, 1989; Deighton & Hoch, 1993; Miller, Stoics, & Kilic 2017). Individuals' attitudes towards the ad (A_{ad}) and attitudes towards the brand (A_b) is heavily influenced by these constructs (Miller, Stoics, & Kilic 2017). The effect of these constructs has been tested with a vignette TVCD for the major resort area of Halkidiki, a region on the North Aegean Coast of Greece. Research has shown that the European consumer is very receptive to such empathy-based appeals. Therefore, the Turkish market was considered to be appropriate for such a study (Hastings, Stead, & Webb 2004; Whitelock & Rey 1998). In addition, cross-cultural differences in empathy, may be worthwhile to explore.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Television Commercial Dramas

The TVCD is a short film or show in which the brand message is transferred by the interaction of characters. An effective TVCD is one in which the audience is psychologically attracted into the depicted scenario as converged spectators or even remote partakers (Wells, 1989). Thus, the audience gets lost in the story and the experience depicted in the drama, as well as the characters' feelings and emotions (Deighton, Romer, & McQueen, 1989). This is especially well suited to the advertisement of tourism destinations and services (Miller, Stoica, & Kilic, 2017). This *visualization* of tourism services and amenities is a recommended strategy by Berry and Clark (1986) to overcome the innate intangibility of services (cf. Mittal 1999).

Stern (1994) stresses out that there are two types of TVCD—the classical and the vignette. Previous research focused mainly on the classical drama. The classical drama contains a single unified scheme with an opening, turning point, and resolution. The usual TVCD's opening incorporates a consumer spotting a problem, then encountering a turning point in which they are exposed to the advertised brand, and the resolution, when the consumer embraces or decides to embrace the brand.

Vignette drama, according Stern (1994), is a reiteration of distinct or lightly connected events portraying characters interacting amongst each other and the brand, in our case, the tourism destination. The events feature a different type of individuals, settings, and historical locations. There is no scheme, problem, and resolution linear structure. And it features extensiveness of experience rather than a depth of emphasis on a single situation. The vignette drama's role in advertising is to show proof of the richness and diversity of life, unified by the shared denominator of the advertised product or service. However, the TVCD vignette is not chaotic, according to Stern. Music, voice-overs, and superimposed graphics and titles are used to create a certain structure throughout the vignette drama.

The persuasive effects of TVCDs encompass both cognitive and affective responses. Consumers can come up with cognitive inferences; thus, they may learn how an advertised brand can solve their problems (Wells, 1989). This may result in self-reflective thoughts which they can link to the portrayed scenario (Boller, 1990; Deighton & Hoch, 1993). Likewise, consumers can immerse themselves in the dramatized scenario and grow into empathic participants. Therefore, according Wells (1989), they may enjoy the same emotions related to buying, consuming, and/or using the advertised brand. This emotional and sentimental reaction may, in turn, positively influence the viewers' attitudes towards the ad (A_{ad}) and their attitudes towards the brand (A_b) (Wells, 1994). Deighton et al. (1989) and Escalas and Stern's (2003) research support the impact of TVCD on feelings as well as on attitude toward the brand (A_{ad}). In order to trigger this impact, a sufficient level of involvement is of crucial importance (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989; Wells, 1989).

Sympathy & Empathy as Mediating Variables

Empathy appears to be the vital consumer response in order to make TVCD work (Wells 1989; Boller 1990; Boller & Olson 1991; Stern 1994; Escalas & Stern 2003, Miller, Stoics, & Kilic 2017). Conversely, social psychologists still have not agreed upon whether empathy is more cognitive or affective, and whether it is more process or trait (cf. Davis, 1983; Goldstein & Michaels, 1985; Strayer, 1987). Wells (1989) uses the term *migrate* into a drama and *experiencing the feelings* associated with buying or using the advertised brand. MacInnis and Jaworski (1989) describe the process in terms of *role-taking*. Boller (1990) discusses *vicarious participation* described as the projection of one's self into the perceptual and emotional perspectives of characters. Boller and Olson (1991) combine the processes of *identification* and *vicarious participation* under the umbrella of *empathy*.

Stern (1994) claims that empathy in TVCD is not essentially a single process. It may consist of two correlated processes, namely sympathy and empathy. Empathy is primarily an affective response and involves becoming immersed or "lost" in the drama. Sympathy, though often described as an affective response, is in reality more cognitive in nature, with which viewers stay detached and aware of themselves. She proposes that empathy is most relevant to classical dramas, in which a unified plot clearly presents a main character's perspective. Sympathy, on the other hand, is most relevant to vignette drama. In vignette drama, no main character is depicted, but a series of incidents and experiences are shown from various perspectives. Escalas and Stern (2003) endorse the discriminant validity between the constructs of sympathy and empathy.

Empathy is influencing A_{ad}. Advertising literature confirms the relationship between ad-evoked feelings and the affective dimension of A_{ad} (e.g., Batra & Ray, 1986; Edell & Burke, 1987). Previous research concludes that sympathy (i.e., emotion recognition) may influence A_{ad} (Stout, Homer, & Liu, 1990). Classical conditioning or direct affect transfer process can impact the influence of the affective dimension of A_{ad} on A_b (Mitchell & Olson, 1981). A_b is also influenced if consumers believe the brand has desirable and attractive features (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schuman, 1983).

In order to test patterns of effects in response to the TVCD, Escalas and Stern (2003) defined the sympathy to empathy sequence of effects along with the influence of both on A_{ad}. Their expectations were that the effect of sym-pathy on A_{ad} would be completely mediated by empathy since the latter process is stronger in its affective character. However this was not the case, since empathy partially mediated the influence of sympathy. Their explanation was that sympathy may have a cognitive impact on A_{ad} and/or that some subjects had limited empathy responses to some of the commercials that comprised their stimuli.

Perceived Verisimilitude

In order for the sympathy and empathy sequence to occur, a crucial antecedent variable related to the execution of the TVCD is verisimilitude. The commercial needs to be perceived by consumers as having verisimilitude (Boller & Olson, 1991; Deighton et al., 1989; Deighton & Hoch, 1993; Wells, 1989). The commercial needs to be perceived as real or true; thus, it must be evaluated as authentic as well as plausible. Contrived events, production flaws such as poor casting, acting, and editing (Boller & Olson, 1991) as well as lack of coordination of verbal and visual cues (MacInnis & Jaworski, 1989) may result in diminishing or no verisimilitude at all. If there is a lack of verisimilitude, viewers tend not to engage empathically. This disconnects the consumer from the commercial and leads them into critical thinking about commercial itself and/or the advertised brand.

Do Sympathy and Empathy Differ Across Cultures?

Even though sympathy and empathy are universally accepted human psychological constructs, it has been proposed that there may be cross-cultural differences in sympathetic and empathic capacity. Differences in cultural values which can be defined as widely held beliefs within a cultural group concerning thoughts and behaviors that are deemed favorable and/or appropriate in various social situations may explain such variations (Hofstede, 1980, Schwartz, 1999).

Timofejeva (2014), sympathy and empathy are associated with Hofstede's *masculine/feminine* dimension. Sadri, G., Weber, T. J., and Gentry, W. A. (2011) propose that power distance can be related to sympathy and empathy. More feminine values and lower power distance may to greater sympathetic and empathic capacity. The majority of researchers (Prot, Gentile, Anderson, Suzuki, Swing, Lim, & Liau, 2014; Chopik, O'Brien, & Konrath 2014), claim that, sympathetic and empathic capacity ought to covary with Hofstede's *individualist/collectivist* dimension. More collectivist tendencies may lead to greater sympathy and empathy. The *masculine/feminine* dimension is similar to Schwartz's (1999) *mastery*, and his *individualism/collectivism* is quite similar to Schwartz's *autonomy/embeddedness* (Ng, Lee, & Soutar, 2007).

These studies have defined and measured sympathy and empathy slightly differently, thus resulting in mixed conclusions regarding their influence. For example, Timofejeva (2014) investigated managers from countries with masculine values versus feminine values and compared whether the latter are perceived as more effective by their subordinates. She concluded that managers from countries with feminine values are perceived as more effective, since they would have greater emotional intelligence because of being more empathic.

Her propositions were supported by the findings of her study of hotel managers from Denmark (feminine values culture), who scored higher on measures of empathy than did a sample of hotel managers from the U.K. (masculine values culture). On the other hand, the managers from the U.K. were perceived as more effective by their subordinates.

Sadri, Weber, & Gentry (2011) investigated how empathy is influencing managerial effectiveness. They anticipated that managers in high power distance countries are less empathic with their subordinates compared to managers from low power distance countries. They also are being perceived less effective. The same propositions were tested using data gathered from 38 counties and using power distance scores from the Globe project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). The results show that power distance is moderating the relationship between empathy and perceived effectiveness in the expected way.

Dalsky, Gohm, Noguchi, and Shiomura (2008) operationalized sympathy in emotional terms (i.e., empathy). They found that Japanese undergraduates (collectivist) presented larger capability for sympathy than did American undergraduates (individualist). On the other hand, Cassels, Chan, Chung, and Birch (2010) found that *affective empathy* measured with the *empathic concern* subscale via Davis' (1980) Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), was bigger among Canadian high school and college students of Western heritage than for their counterparts with Eastern heritage. The numbers for students from bicultural Eastern/Western heritage fell in between. Likewise, Prot et al. (2013) analyzed the association between empathy, prosocial media use, and prosocial behavior. Australians and Germans scored the highest, both representing individualist cultures. Americans and Chinese were very close on empathy but below the others. They too used the Davis (1980) perspective-taking and empathic concern subscales. Birkett (2014) researched self-compassion and empathy among American and China under graduates. They found that Americans were higher on empathic concern, but there was not a significant difference between the two for perspective-taking.

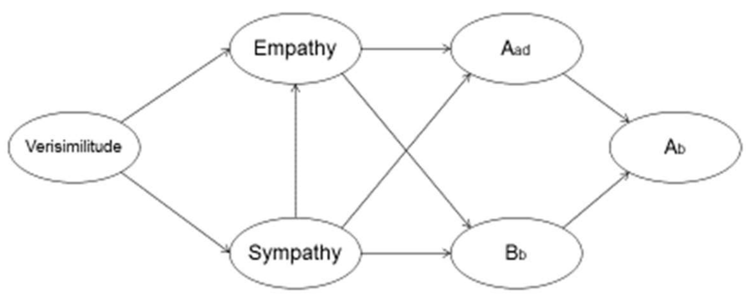
All these studies used convenience samples consisting of young respondents, even though earlier research has found that age is directly related with sympathetic and empathic tendencies (Lennon & Eisenberg, 1990). In addition, these studies compared data from two to four countries (Chopik, O'Brien, & Konrath, 2017). The above mentioned reasons, and previously mentioned lack of consistency in the operationalization of the constructs, limit the scope of these studies and make it difficult to draw strong conclusions.

Chopik, O'Brien, and Konrath (2017) investigated adults across 63 countries, using a more age diverse sample, incorporating the *empathic concern (EC)* and *perspective-taking (PT)* subscales of Davis' (1980) IRI. The findings show that empathic concern is significantly correlated with Hofstede's *individualism/collectivism* scores. Though perspective-taking was not confirmed. Notably, the findings show that EC and PT are not associated with the remaining Hofstede dimensions. Furthermore, PT was found to be inversely associated with Schwartz' (1999) *embeddedness* dimension. Their results indicate that Turks are moderate on both *empathic concern* and *perspective-taking*, ranking 19th and 24th respectively among the 63 national samples. Americans ranked 5th empathic *concern* and 10th on *perspective-taking*. The Chinese ranked 37th and 34th respectively.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Figure 1 depicts the proposed conceptual model, which also illustrates the structural relationships among the various constructs explained in the previous sections of this paper. This conceptual model is identical to that hypothesized by Miller, Stoica, and Kilic (2017), given the fact that this research is conducted in the tourism industry as well. In addition to the previous study, the role of cross-cultural differences in empathic capacity as a key mediator in the Turkish case is being investigated. Since Turkey is regarded as having lower individualist and masculine (i.e., higher collectivist and feminine) values and as a higher power distance culture, making inferences in comparison to the USA becomes harder.

Figure 1. Structural Model



RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sampling Procedure

A convenient sample of 281 students was picked from a large university in the western part of Turkey. Some may perceive a convenient sample as compromising external validity. However, according to Calder, Phillips and Tybout (1982), it is only of valid concern if demographic factor is likely to interact with the structural variables, which is not the case in our study. Furthermore, many of the actors depicted within the stimulus commercial were young adults similar in age to our subjects indicating that undergraduates would fit within the target market segment.

Stimulus

We chose a tourism commercial for the Halkidiki (or Chalkidiki) region posted by the Greek Halkidiki Tourism Organization (2012) on YouTube. This commercial is appropriate because it is virtually a pure vignette drama and similar to those used by Miller, Stoica, and Kilic, (2017) and Miller, Stoica, Kilic, and Xu (2017). It is three and a half minutes long. It shows tourists interacting in several sceneries with no voice-over. There is gentle background music. The commercial includes more than 100 camera shots, most of which last approximately two seconds and several approximately four seconds. Tourists are shown individually, in pairs, in families, and in large groups. They are young children as well as young and middle-aged adults. Tourists are involved in different activities, such as being on the beach;

visiting historical, cultural, religious, and archeological sites; performing various sports, such as golf, diving, horse riding, paragliding; etc. Tourists are also depicted eating local food and specialties, sightseeing throughout villages and different sceneries, as well as enjoying themselves gambling, dancing, or listening to a concert. At the end of the commercial, a Halkidiki tourism logo, with a slogan "inside your dreams" is shown, and contact information of a URL (www.visit-halkidiki.gr) is also provided. Respondents were exposed to the commercial once before they answered the survey.

Measurement

The questionnaire was independently translated and back-translated by two scholars fluent in both Turkish and English. A seven point semantic differential scale was used to measure the variables. The following scales were used to measure the variables under investigation:

Variables	Scales
Perceived verisimilitude	Miller et al. (2017)
Sympathy	Escalas and Stern (2003)
Empathy	Escalas and Stern (2003)
Beliefs brand/resort (B_b)	Smith (1991)
Attitude toward the brand (A_b)	Bruner and Hensel (1994)
Attitude toward the ad (A_{ad})	Bruner and Hensel (1994)

STUDY RESULTS

Data Checks

Table 1 presents some descriptive statistics for the variables in the conceptual model.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for all Variables

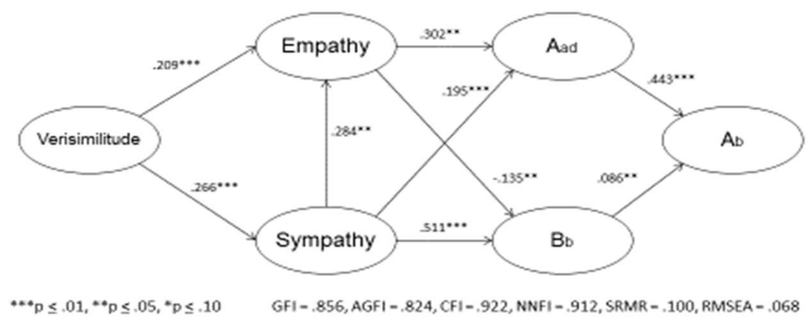
	Scale Range	Mean	SD	SK	Chronbach's α
Perceived Verisimilitude	4 – 28	17.48	5.45	-.087	.89
Sympathy	3 – 21	14.96	4.26	-.661	.77
Empathy	4 – 28	15.37	6.44	-.010	.88
A_{ad}	3 – 21	14.39	4.49	-.525	.86
B_b	8 – 56	40.37	13.54	-1.034	.92
A_b	3 – 21	15.46	3.83	-. 461	.71

All the Chronbach's Alpha coefficients are above the minimum level recommended by Nunnally (1978).

Initial Model (Hypothesized)

The structural model as shown in (Figure 1) was tested using AMOS 24. Goodness-of-fit indexes recommended by Bagozzi & Yi (2012) show that the data fit this model (Figure 2a) somewhat poorly (GFI = .856, AGFI = .824, CFI = .922, NNFI = .912, SMSR = .100, RMSEA = .068). All nine of the five hypothesized paths had statistically significant coefficients at least at the $p < .05$ level. Unexpectedly, however, the path from empathy to B_b was negative. Modification indices pointed to adding a path from verisimilitude to A_{ad}.

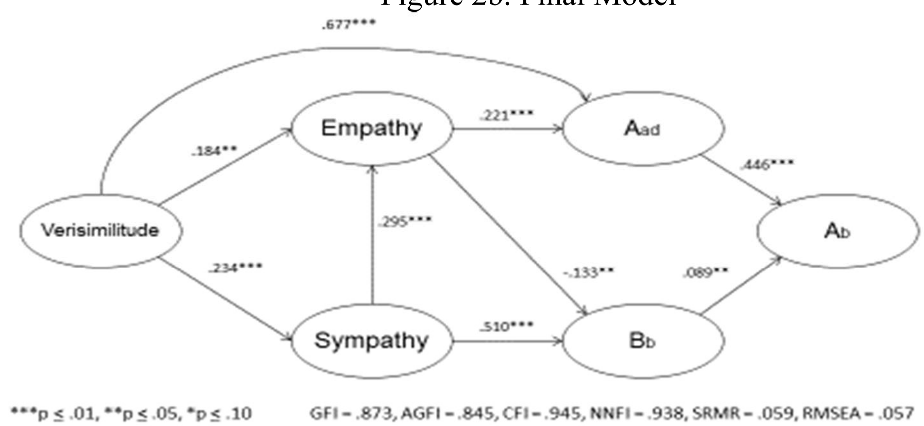
Figure 2a. Initial Model



Final Model

The final model (Figure 2b) fits the data reasonably well (GFI = .873, AGFI = .845, CFI = .945, NNFI = .938, SRMR = .059, RMSEA = .057). Again, as expected, verisimilitude influenced both sympathy and empathy. The added path from to verisimilitude to A_{ad} was significant. Thus, verisimilitude had a direct effect on A_{ad} independent of the sympathy/empathy complex. When this effect was added to the model, the effect of sympathy on A_{ad} became nonsignificant and was therefore removed. Empathy significantly influenced A_{ad} and negatively influenced B_b. Finally, as expected, both A_{ad} and B_b significantly influenced A_b.

Figure 2b. Final Model



DISCUSSION

This research explored cognitive and affective consumer responses via using a TVCD vignette in the tourism industry. A structural equation model was developed incorporating the antecedent variables which were derived from the marketing literature. Data from a Turkish sample was used to test the structural relationships and the model, representing consumer responses regarding a commercial for an Aegean tourist destination. The purpose of this study was to come up with some cross cultural findings about differences in how sympathy and empathy may interact. The origin for this question comes from a previous research proposing that sympathetic and empathic propensities ought to be greater within collectivist and feminine but lower within high power distance cultures. Most of the expected relationships were confirmed. The relationships between perceived verisimilitude, sympathy and empathy were found significant. This is consistent with findings of Deighton et al. (1989); Escalas and Stern (2003); and Miller et al. (2017). In agreement with the findings of Escalas and Stern (2003) and Miller et al. (2017), empathy influenced A_{ad}, and consistent with the latter sympathy influenced B_b. Finally, consistent with the findings of Miller et al. (2017) and many other previous advertising studies, both A_{ad} and B_b influenced A_b.

The most surprising results were the weak influence of empathy on A_{ad} along with the rather strong direct effect of verisimilitude on A_{ad}. This pattern is similar to that shown by Miller et al. (2017). Thus, the effect of verisimilitude operated largely independently from the sympathy/empathy complex. The direct influence of verisimilitude on A_{ad} may relate to favorable reaction to the depiction of features of Halkidiki not directly relevant to the sympathy/empathy complex. These could include scenes of the sea, mountains, villages, the style of background music, or the overall pace and tone of the commercial.

The similarity of these results with those of Miller et al. (2017) does not support what might be implied by the possible cultural factors. They used a sample of viewers from a highly individualist and masculine American culture. In contrast, Turkey is characterized by more feminine and collectivist values. Both of these factors suggest that empathy would have a stronger influence on attitudes and beliefs. Unfortunately, no open-ended responses were asked of the viewers that might help explain these results so further research is required to determine the likely reasons for this pattern of effects. Perhaps the relatively small effect of empathy might relate to the youthfulness of the sample of viewers. Despite cultural background, research has shown that sympathetic and empathic capacities correlate directly with age (Lennon & Eisenberg, 1990). The students may have focused on the amenities of the resort rather than the characters. They liked what they saw but remained somewhat detached. Perhaps an older non-student sample of viewers may have generated sufficient sympathy and empathy for the mechanism to work.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

According to our results, it is critical to have perceived verisimilitude in order a vignette drama to generate influential sympathy or empathy. Also, a commercial's production value must be of high quality and illustrate realistic scenery, thus, environmental settings. A commercial cannot have flaws that will disrupt the focus on the advertised amenities and produce execution derogation, cognitive responses, and/or cause viewers to cease processing the ad. Therefore, a vignette drama commercial for a tourism product must catch attention, evoke curiosity, and involve the viewer in order for the intended message to get through, whether or not the sympathy and empathy responses are highly stimulated.

As stated above, a future study could involve running the experiment again on an older and/or a mixed sample of viewers. Besides age, gender, education, and working status can be investigated for any differences. The same structural model could be tested with multiple samples in order to test whether the key mediating variables employ a similar pattern.

Future studies may also be carried out with larger groups of samples. In the final model, we still see some of paths with slightly low contributions. This may also relate to sample size and characteristics, along with the congruity of the research variables and hypothesized relations.

Also, other variables could be brought into the model. One might be perceived homophily, i.e., similarity of viewer and characters in terms of values, attitudes, and/or appearance (McCroskey, McCroskey, & Richmond, 2006).

Research has shown that this can be an influential mediator of verisimilitude (Miller et al., 2017) and play a role in persuasion as well as facilitating identification, thus inducing sympathy in the formation of mass media relationships (Eyal & Rubin, 2003; Schiappa, Allen, & Gregg, 2007). Another mediator would be beliefs about the product generated by the ad. It has been shown that a TVCD can generate inferences that may positively influence attitude toward the advertised product (Deighton et al., 1989).

There are several limitations in the study. Thus, the findings may be interpreted with some caution. The data was collected in a laboratory-like setting about a single TV commercial from a convenience sample. The findings could be expanded using data from various other European vacation destinations offering a diverse set of tourist services representing a broader cross section of the tourist population. Another emerging target segment in the tourism sector is the elderly and retired tourist population. Hence, another study could include this segment and compare the findings with the youth and young adult segments to the model. Lastly, since the laboratory-like setting of the exposure may have led to high task involvement in subjects, a more natural setting could be used in future research.

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Conceptualization of Bao: Differences between Reciprocity in the West and Bao in the Chinese Context

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ABSTRACT. This article provides a new way of examining reciprocity from an oriental perspective. It first addresses an interpretation of reciprocity in economic and sociological perspectives with five dimensions: value, unit, form, timing, and target of repayment. We argued that the usual way of interpreting the concept of reciprocity in the Western thinking is not exact. We suggest an oriental interpretation of reciprocity, which they call "Bao," adding a new religious interpretation. Further, we compare and contrast the meaning of the five dimensions in the Chinese cultural context with those in the West, resulting in different marketing implications.

KEYWORDS. Bao, reciprocity, economic, sociological, religious, comparison, marketing

INTRODUCTION

Many empirical studies in Western countries reported that reciprocity was related to the amount of support given by adult children to aging relatives (e.g., Horowitz & Shindelman, 1983; Henrietta et al., 1997). Consequently, some researchers attempted to investigate caregiving in Eastern cultures through this concept (e.g., Bond, 1991). Nevertheless, many researchers have a misconception that the concept of reciprocity is universal across countries and cultures. Gouldner (1960) claimed that reciprocal norms exist in almost every society, but differ in their content, location in the value system, mode of operation, and impact on relationships and behaviors. For instance, there are relatively stringent rules of social exchange in Japan, which determine who should give a gift to whom and under what conditions (Kamo, 1988), while such exchange rules are less formalized in the United States (Antonucci, 1990). In Japan, reciprocal norms are expressed as *On*, while in Chinese, as *Hui Bao*. Besides labeling,

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the concept of reciprocation is somewhat different between the East and West due to cultural differences. It is necessary, therefore, to distinguish the concept and its rules of an exchange. We offer a more global perspective on the notion of reciprocity on East and West in this section. In the following, we first discuss the Western concept of reciprocity, and then the Chinese concept of *Bao* is reviewed in the next section. We summarize the similarities and dissimilarities between the two concepts in the last part of this paper.

PERSPECTIVES OF RECIPROCITY IN THE WEST

Definition of Reciprocity

Gouldner (1960) was the first to introduce the concept of reciprocity to explain the beginning of social interaction and the reciprocal norms in society. Reciprocity refers to the bi-directional exchange of valued resources between individuals (Tilden & Gaylen, 1987). Reciprocity relies on the principle of give-and-take (Gouldner, 1960). The concept stems from the "credit" earned by a benefactor for the past help given to the debtor. Once an individual takes resources, he is obligated to return the favor to the benefactor in the future. This obligation stems from gratitude for past services rendered (Mercon-Vargas, Poelker, & Tudge, 2018; Horowitz & Shindelman, 1983).

Reciprocity is a universal norm in social relationships (Gouldner, 1960). Westwood, Chan, and Linstead (2004) advocated reciprocity as an internalized norm that, in general, generates a sense of obligation to repay. Therefore, authors in the literature often label the concept of reciprocity or the obligation to return as a reciprocal norm. Gouldner (1960) believed that the act of giving and receiving underlies all social interactions and interpersonal relationships. The stability of social relationships lies in the expectation that the help and support given to another person will be reciprocated after adequate time and is mostly dependent on the perceived balance that exists when giving and receiving valued resources.

The Interpretation of Reciprocity

Some researchers from different disciplines have explained the concept of reciprocity, applying a variety of economic and sociological theories to explain the act of repayment. The Economic Exchange Theory and the Equity Theory in the field of economics have received a considerable amount of attention in the reciprocity literature. In contrast, the Social Exchange Theory and the Theory of Indebtedness have aroused particular interest for reciprocity in sociological circles. These theories provide explanations of how people react to favors received and the reasons why people are repaid. The detailed explanations of each theory are as follows. Figure 1 depicts the interpretation of reciprocity from different perspectives.

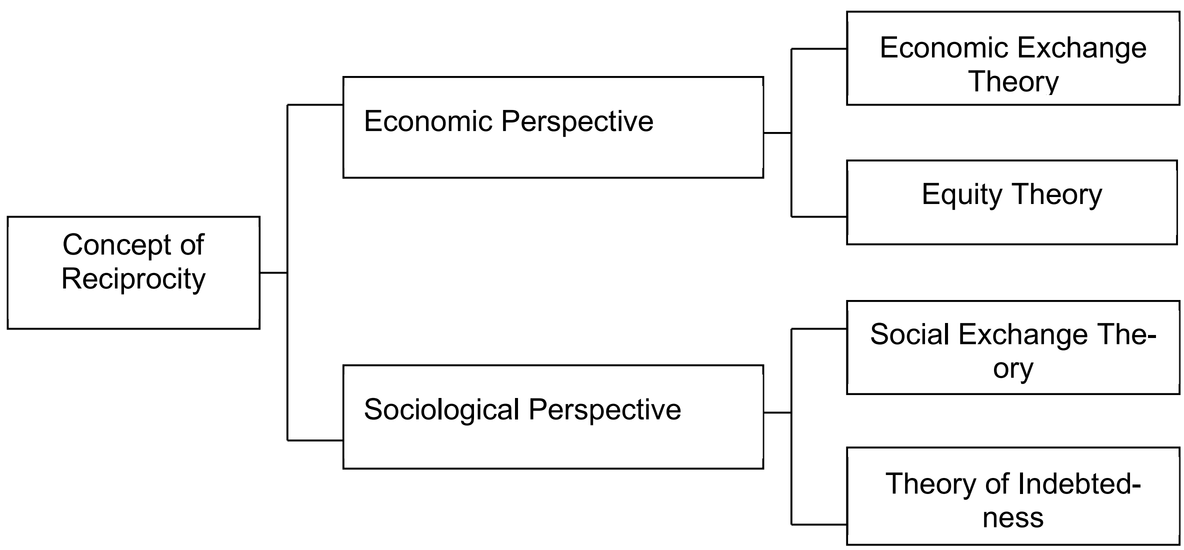
Economic Interpretation

Economic Exchange Theory, derived from rational choice theory in classical microeconomics, generally assumes that humans are rational beings. Becker (1974) points out that individuals tend to engage in actions that maximize personal rewards and minimize personal costs. In general, the estimated outcome will serve to guide overall behavior. That is to say, individuals will try to obtain the most profitable outcomes or will try to engage in those interactions which are the least costly (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959).

Similarly, individuals are inclined to calculate the rewards and costs associated with being in a relationship. They participate in relationships and activities only as long as the outcomes of participation are sufficiently favorable and stable. We determine favorability by balancing rewards with costs, which are a variety of potential consequences. Therefore, individuals compare alternate courses of action so that they can get the best value at the lowest cost from any transaction completed. However, the standards that humans use to evaluate costs and rewards vary over time and from person to person (Ho, 2006).

The economic exchange involves an explicit agreement between two parties. It is a contractually based transaction in which receipt of a given reward is contingent on the performance of certain behaviors (Ho, 2006). The responsibilities of both parties are finite and enforceable (Organ, 1990). A contract, which specifies the rights and duties of a firm and buyer, regulates the economic exchange relationship between them. The failure of one party to carry out its duties can lead to a legal suit by the other party. Another example is the regular paycheck an employee receives for performing his or her job responsibilities at some agreed-upon minimum acceptable level. The economics of reciprocity is related to the decision-making process that involves the maximization of utility.

Figure 1. The Interpretations of Reciprocity



Equity Theory

Adam (1965) has described reciprocity as a mutually contingent exchange of benefits between two or more units. It is not merely present or absent but is, instead, quantitatively variable (Gouldner, 1960). Gouldner (1960) argued that the benefits exchanged are identical. An individual who is giving nothing in return for benefits he or she has received is probably rare in social relations. By contrast, one who gives something more or less than received is probably more common. This idea is equivalent to the underlying assumption of the Theory of Equity.

The Theory of Equity presumes that people are concerned with "fairness" in interactions. They balance the exchanges in the interactions with neither side over-benefiting or under-benefiting at the expense of the other (Walster et al., 1978). Based on this assumption, inequitable (non-reciprocal) exchanges may result in the termination of relationships (Gouldner, 1960). The notion of distributive justice provides the basis for the explanation of the situation (Lawrence & Schigelone, 2002). It holds that an equitable relationship exists if a person perceives that both parties receive from the relationship an amount equal to what they give to the relationship. However, if the input of others is less or the effectiveness of what people receive is not as much as they had expected, they will have a feeling of imbalance and a sense of "unfairness" or "inequity." They might then reduce their input, transform their recognition of output, or leave the exchange relationship. Moreover, individuals may experience distress and dissatisfaction in the relationship. Therefore, people may keep a mental record of the balance between how much they contributed and how much they received in order to maintain an acceptable balance of give-and-take (Neufeld & Harrison, 1995).

An additional psychological mechanism explains the thesis that people feel obligated to reciprocate benefits or assistance. Westwood, Chan, and Linstead (2004) state that when an individual is in another's debt, they may feel some psychological discomfort. The motive to restore their psychic equilibrium explains why individuals feel compelled to reciprocate. Therefore, a balance in costs and rewards is assumed to be a necessary condition for the continuation of social relationships (Neufeld & Harrison, 1995).

Based on the thesis of inter-generational equity, some economists and psychologists further employ the investment model to explain the exchange between children and parents (Henrietta et al., 1997; Raut & Tran, 2005). Silverstein, Conroy, Wang, Giarrusso, and Bengston (2002) postulated that parents making emotional and material investments in the upbringing of small children is done out of an expectation of equal repayment by the children when they grow up. Since parents assume that children's return of support will be equal to the parents' initial contribution to them, they contribute time and financial assets to children with the expectation that those children will reciprocate correspondingly by responding to adverse events that may emerge later in life, including a decline in health, widowhood, and financial hardship following retirement. In short, parents believe that if they provide proper care to their children, they will receive in return excellent support in the future. The principle of equity explains why parents are willing to make sacrifices for their children.

SOCIOLOGICAL INTERPRETATIONS

Social Exchange Theory

One of the explanations of reciprocity is derived from a social perspective, particularly as it relates to reciprocity in interpersonal exchanges. The concept of social interaction as a social exchange is an extension of the concept of economic exchange. Emerson (1976) described this as the application of economic analysis to non-economic social situations. According to the Social Exchange Theory, human behavior is rational, and individuals strive to maximize rewards and minimize costs in their social interactions (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). As the label implies, the focus is on human interaction occurring in terms of exchange. The theory centers on exchanges occurring between a dyad and occasionally a triad (Rank & LeCroy, 1983). Exchanges may include a broad range of commodities, resources, or skills.

Molm and Cook (1995) summarized the core assumptions of major social exchange theories as follows:

- the evaluation of costs and benefits,
- the mutual dependence between actors,
- mutually contingent exchanges, and
- the classes of benefits exchanged. Below are the details of these four assumptions.

Firstly, like the assumptions in Economic Exchange Theory, Social Exchange Theory assumes that human behavior is rational. Individuals in an interaction will try to obtain maximum benefits and reduce the costs of their actions. Therefore, people may behave rationally by weighing the potential costs and benefits of alternate choices of exchange partners and actions, or their choices may reflect the costs and benefits of past behavioral choices, without consciously weighing alternatives.

Secondly, Social Exchange Theory assumes interdependence in dyadic relationships and mutual exchanges. People need not equally depend on one other, nor do they need to rely on others for all outcomes of value. However, some degree of dependence between one another is a necessary condition for social exchange.

Thirdly, Social Exchange Theory emphasizes mutual contingent exchanges. It is assumed that social relations are formed and maintained because people provide reciprocal benefits to one another over time (Gouldner, 1960). If benefits provided for someone else are not reciprocated, the social relationship will eventually end. The contingency of exchange applies both within transactions (i.e., benefits received are contingent on benefits provided) and across transactions (i.e., earlier exchanges affect subsequent exchanges). In other words, resources that one actor gives are directly contingent on the resources that another gives in return (i.e., within transactions). This type of exchange is prevalent. Examples include exchanges between teachers and students, economic transactions, employers, and employees.

Fourthly, the theory posits that the evaluation of the benefits the behaviors have, as well as whether it is beneficial, is influenced by one's connection to others. It incorporates the relationship between the exchange partners, their history of transactions, and their mutual interdependence of its framework. We assumed that the relationship and the social structures that govern the value are attached to particular behaviors, the tolerance of dependence, and the expectations for reciprocation (including type and timing) in that particular relationship. Therefore, behavior that might not be rewarded when performed for a colleague may become a reward when carried out for a loved one. Outcomes also may be influenced by particular circumstances of the giver, and the receiver in that specific characteristics (e.g., high income) may minimize adverse outcomes or even maximize the likelihood that positive outcomes will occur (Walker, Martin, & Jone, 1992).

Both Economic Exchange Theory and Social Exchange Theory have their roots on the expectation that we should repay a debt. However, they differ in their theoretical account. Social Exchange Theory differs from economic ones in several fundamental ways (Blau, 1964). First, classical microeconomic theory tends to focus on the exchange transaction itself, whereas Social Exchange Theory takes into consideration the relationship between the exchange partners, their history of transactions, and their mutual interdependence to its framework (Silverstein, Conroy, Wang, Giarrusso, & Bengston, 2002). On the one hand, Economic Exchange Theory typically assumes the absence of long-term relationships between exchange partners and the interdependence of sequential exchange transactions.

On the other hand, Social Exchange Theory looks at its subject matter and its smallest unit of analysis, and more or less the enduring relations that form between specific partners. Recurring exchanges are necessarily interdependent in these relations, and, as a result, interactions can change over time. This emphasis on the history of relations and the mutual contingency of behaviors reflects the influence of behavioral psychology (Molm, & Cook, 1995).

Secondly, social exchange is based on trust, loyalty, and commitment of individuals, while the economic exchange is based on transactions (Blau, 1964; Clark & Mills, 1979; Kwon, 2006). Economic exchange is a contractual agreement between two parties. In contrast, social exchange, as a high-level trust between the donor and recipient, is less defined than an economic exchange in obligations of both parties, with neither the exact means nor timing of the reciprocation explicitly fixed. In other words, the exchange partners in a social exchange simply come to trust each other based on prior experience that the other side will live up to their side of the bargain in the future (Organ, 1990)

Thirdly, social exchanges may involve extrinsic benefits with economic value or intrinsic benefits without any direct objective economic utility (e.g., caring and social support). Alternatively, extrinsic benefits often are expressions of support and friendship and, thus, have intrinsic value as well (Whitener & et al., 1998).

Finally, based on Social Exchange Theory, the behavior is voluntary. There is no guarantee that reciprocation will result in receipt of future benefits. The exchange of benefits involves uncertainty, particularly in the early stages of the relationship, when the risk of non-reciprocation is relatively high. Consequently, relationships evolve slowly, starting with the exchange of relatively low-value benefits and escalating to higher-value benefits as the parties demonstrate their trustworthiness (Blau, 1964).

Although they differ in their theoretical account, both sociological and economic exchange theories are generally consistent in their expectations that earlier parent-to-child transfers will be reciprocated (Henrietta et al., 1997). Under the model of exchange, we propose that the parent's motive in transferring resources to a child is to obtain services from the recipient. The services expected in return can be companionship, behavioral control over the recipient's work or fertility patterns, or the actual provision of labor-intensive services to the donor (Henrietta et al., 1997).

Theory of Indebtedness

Green, Greenberg, and Willis (1980) first introduced the Theory of Indebtedness, which involves the action of one individual who gives an enormous amount to another, and then the other owes him or her something in return. Under the Theory of Indebtedness, individuals feel indebted when others give them something or provide assistance to them. If individuals perceive that they have no opportunity to reciprocate social support, they may experience indebtedness (Greenberg & Westcott, 1983). Neufeld and Harrison (1998) claimed that the inability to reciprocate or respond supportively could lead to perceptions of loss of independence, diminished self-worth, anger, and guilt. When individuals have returned the "debt" to the benefactor, a feeling of indebtedness will disappear. Consequently, individuals will do something reciprocal for others in order to reduce the feelings of indebtedness and discomfort caused by the debt. Hsu and Shyu (2003) regard this kind of return or indebtedness-reducing behavior as a form of social exchange.

Some psychologists use the Indebtedness Theory to explain why people avoid placing themselves in positions of "over-benefiting" (Uehara, 1995). The motive for this is to avoid or reduce negative feelings or guilty feelings associated with being indebted to others. Many individuals are psychologically more averse to over-benefiting than under-benefiting from interactions.

CLASSIFICATION OF RECIPROCITY IN THE WEST

Gouldner (1960) considered reciprocity as a "causal force" in social life. In his statement, Gouldner (1960) distinguishes between two reciprocity constructs: the moral norm of reciprocity and the pattern of exchange. The former specifies that what one party received from the other requires some return. The norm of reciprocity evokes obligations toward others based on their behavior. The latter is the fulfillment of interlocking status duties that people owe one another that are associated with specific social ties.

Characteristics of reciprocity consist of three interrelated aspects of social action between two individuals. Firstly, reciprocity is a bilateral contingency. The reciprocal norm imposes contingent obligations only, i.e., in response to benefits conferred by others. On the other hand, an individual acts in a certain way, with the expectation that others will respond in a certain way. In other words, giving is motivated by anticipated reciprocation (Westwood, Chan, & Linstead, 2004).

Secondly, reciprocity goes hand-in-hand with interdependence for mutual benefit between two individuals. That is to say, one gives something to another because the other has something else that the one needs, or the other will be helpful sometime in the future.

Eventually, both parties will benefit through the exchange. Thirdly, the value of the exchange is equal. Based on the equity theory, the value of the repayment should be in proportion to the benefits received. Malinowski (1959) emphasized this symmetric aspect of reciprocity. He characterized reciprocity as a "sociological dualism," an economic give-and-take, and a mutual legal obligation of repayment (Lebra, 1976).

Neufeld & Harrison (1998) identified three variations in reciprocity: waived reciprocity, generalized reciprocity, and constructed reciprocity. *Waived reciprocity* is lifelong reciprocity. It occurs when expectations of immediate reciprocity vanish, and an indefinite period is used in assessing reciprocity. *Generalized reciprocity* refers to an expectation that assistance received will be returned to an individual other than the original provider of support like a grandson who expresses a high personal commitment to altruistic values. He values the caregiver for his grandmother as a role model for his children in understanding the importance of contributing to others. *Constructed reciprocity* is a particular form of reciprocity that develops in the presence of confused and ambiguous communication. In this form of reciprocity, caregivers use observation to monitor their interaction with the care recipient and to attend to non-verbal behavior. Subtle and indistinct non-verbal behavior becomes a form of responsive interaction. The interaction between husband and wife is an example of constructed reciprocity.

Neufeld & Harrison's (1998) classification highlights several conceptions of reciprocity. First, they stressed that waived reciprocity emphasizes the timing of repayment to life-long repayment. Second, generalized reciprocity focuses on the target of repayment. Someone other than the original benefactor returns the reward. Third, the constructed reciprocity describes the form of repayment where the reciprocation is in a non-material form. However, these classifications are not comprehensive and do not adequately portray the conceptual basis of "Western reciprocity." First, generalized reciprocity describes indirect reciprocity, but the classification does not include the direct reciprocity, while the waived reciprocity illustrates life-long repayment but does not entail immediate repayment. Second, the value of repayment, which is the central thesis of reciprocity, as suggested by Gouldner (1960), was excluded in the classification.

FIVE ASPECTS OF RECIPROCITY

Given the incompleteness of existing classifications, we give a new classification summarising the conceptual characteristics of reciprocity in this section. Given the heavy influence of Gouldner (1960) on the development of the conceptualization of reciprocity, this paper adopts the conceptual classification of Gouldner, who categorized reciprocity into four aspects: the value of exchange, the period of repayment, the format of repayment, and the target of repayment. However, as Gouldner (1960) looked at reciprocity from a Western perspective, he did not consider the units of a subject in reciprocation. As such, we add the fifth aspect to the classification, which serves to compare reciprocity in Western culture to Bao in Chinese culture.

The Value of Repayment

One of the characteristics of reciprocity is that the value of exchanges is symmetric (Gouldner, 1960). Some scholars (Homan,

1958) asserted that the amount of the return to be made should be roughly equivalent to what was received. However, there are three aspects worth noting when the equivalence fails to occur.

The first is that that this symmetric requirement reinforces power differentials, as Henrietta et al. (1997) suggested. Homans (1950) and Schwartz (1967) argued that when two parties are locked in a power or status imbalance, if a member of a lower power or status group does not reciprocate, he or she simply reinforces the pre-existing power differentials. However, Westwood, Chan, and Linstead (2004) had a different viewpoint. They suggested that the moral force of the norm is of more significance than actual calculations of exchanges for non-material/economic flow. The judgment of the creditor determines whether the value of repayment is equivalent to that of the provision. Furthermore, the creditor needs to consider that exchanges may not be balanced in the short-run but will probably become more symmetric in the long run.

The third aspect is that when symmetric exchange cannot be maintained, people will attempt to avoid over-benefiting from their socially supportive interactions (Uehara, 1995). According to the theory of indebtedness, negative feelings or discomfort arise when people are in debt to others. To avoid or to reduce guilty feelings and restore the psychic equilibrium associated with not being indebted to others, many individuals become more psychologically averse to over-benefiting than under-benefiting from interactions. Consequently, people prefer to return benefits they receive from others and appear to be more psychologically and emotionally averse to over-benefiting than under-benefiting from social support interactions in order to avoid placing themselves in the position of being "over-benefactors" (Uehara, 1995).

Timing of Repayment

Timing of repayment refers to the time when reciprocity should be made in the future. There are two views on this. First, Gouldner (1960) suggested that reciprocity is based on the expectation that the help and support given to another person will be reciprocated after an adequate time. Although the time of repayment is not specified, he tends to emphasize immediate reciprocation (Westwood, Chan, & Linstead, 2004). Reciprocity should be made as soon as possible. Otherwise, symmetric exchanges cannot be maintained.

Second, some researchers suggest that the nature of the relationships determines reciprocity (Antonucci, 1990). For communal relationships, such as families or kinship relationships which are both close and long-lasting, considerable time delays in reciprocation are allowed because continuity is assumed and can be achieved over time, while exchange relationships are more limited without a guarantee of future involvement, and therefore require immediate reciprocity (Clark, Mills, & Powell, 1986). In the same vein, Sabean (1990) stressed that reciprocal exchange in the English family need not be short-term or immediate. Sussman (1976) explained that as a relationship within a family, repayment would be forthcoming to them in the future when needed. This give-and-take will finally balance out in the long run (Malinowski, 1959). Therefore, reciprocity need not be done immediately for continuous relationships. Kulis (1992) sees this as "serial reciprocity."

Forms of Repayment

As asserted by Malinowski (1959), the norm of reciprocity is roughly equivalent to what one has received. Gouldner (1960) further suggested that "equivalence" may take at least two forms. In the first case, the things exchanged may be concretely different but should be equal in value. In the second case, equivalence may mean that exchanges should be concretely alike or identical in form. The former refers to the value of the exchange, while the latter implies an identical form of repayment. The return of the same form ensures that the value of repayment is equal to what was received.

Recently, we found a counterargument on this issue. Johnson (1988) contends that repayment need not take the same form as the original reward, while Kulis (1992) acknowledged that the exchange of rewards is seldom quid pro quo. For example, parents and children can reward each other in numerous ways, including financial transfers, purchasable gifts, concrete services, or even in the form of advice, validation, and opinions (Kulis, 1992). How people meet the requirements of the moral norm of reciprocity in their specific social relationships can vary according to their perceptions of the range of acceptable or legitimate patterns of reciprocation permitted within those relations (Uehara, 1995).

The Target of Repayment

Gouldner (1960) assumes that reciprocity is a bilateral exchange. That is, the moral reciprocity obligations must be met by providing returns directly to those who have provided benefits. By contrast, Mauss (1950) posits a "special kind" of (deferred) reciprocity in which reciprocity is based on a simple principle of reciprocal trilateral exchange. We called it indirect reciprocity, which is a form of repayment that does not give back to the initial giver but to a third person or a third party. Though there is no consensus on the target of repayment between researchers, bilateral exchanges are a more typical phenomenon in Western society, while indirect reciprocity is a special case in Chinese society.

UNITS OF SUBJECTS

Conceptualization of **Bao [報]** *within a Chinese Social Context*

Many researchers view reciprocity as being equivalent to the Chinese concept of *Bao* [報] (e.g., Westwood, Chan, & Linstead, 2004) because reciprocity is commonly translated as *Bao* [報] in Chinese. However, the Chinese concept of *Bao* is more sophisticated even though it centers on the notion of repayment and return (Yang, 1957). While reciprocity is evident in all societies, it has unusually wide application and tremendous influence in Eastern cultures (Yang, 1957), with the principle of *Bao* originating in Chinese culture (Chan, Denton, & Tsang, 2003). It is a significant force and generally seen as a kind of religious belief. Chinese also profoundly believe in the principle of *Bao* as an active social norm that morally binds Chinese people. To highlight the differences between Western and Eastern concepts, we will explain the original meaning of *Bao* and its conceptual applications in Eastern cultures in the following section.

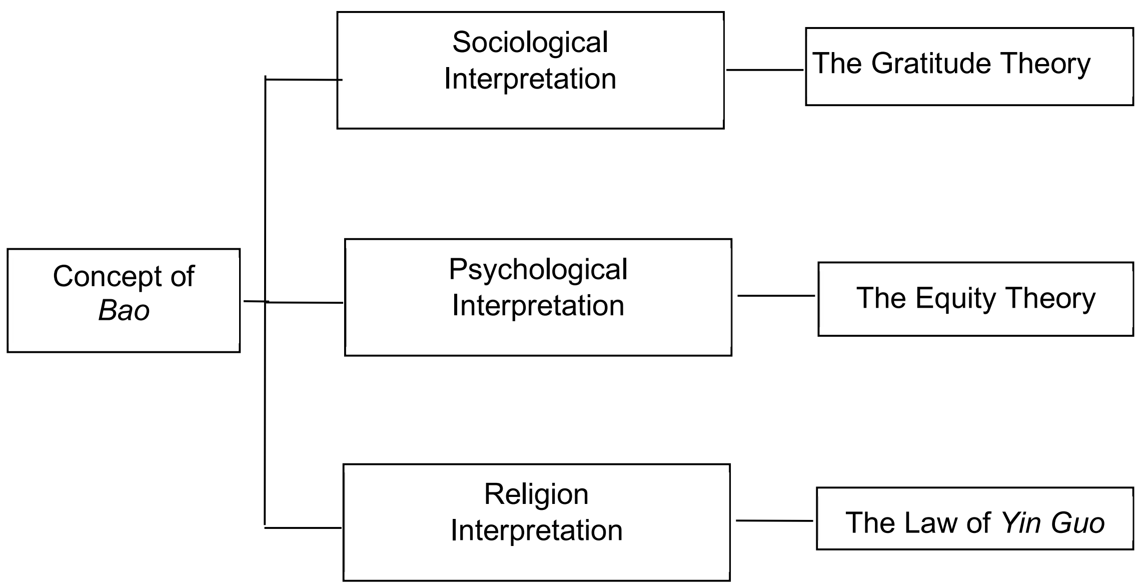
The Definition of **Bao**

Reciprocity in Chinese is commonly called *Bao* or *HuiBao* (Lee & Dawes, 2005). The earliest Chinese translation of reciprocity was *Pao* (Yau, 1994), but in recent years, mainland Chinese scholars translated it as *Bao* (e.g., Chen & Chen 2004). Although the spelling in English differs, the meaning in Chinese is still the same. The word *Bao* as a verb has a wide range of meanings, including "to report," "to respond," "to repay," "to retaliate," and "to reattribute" (Chen & Chen, 2004). Despite its multiple meanings and its complexity, *Bao* centers on notions of response and return (Westwood, Chan, & Linstead, 2004). The central thesis of *Bao* is that whenever an individual receives favors from any person, he or she is obligated to return the favor to the creditor (Hwang, 1987). Chinese consider those who have received favors but do not repay having "no credibility," "no conscience," and being "mean" and "face losing" (Lee & Dawes, 2005). Unlike the Western concept, *Bao* entails not only a positive aspect but also a negative aspect. *Bao* is not only limited to the return of favors. Conversely, it also implies revenge. When somebody does any harm to an individual, he or she is supposed to return the vengeance to the giver.

***Interpretation of* Bao**

To help further understand the view of the Chinese concerning *Bao*, we will explain this concept from different perspectives, including sociological, psychological, and religious. Figure 2.7 depicts the interpretation of *Bao*. As shown in Figure 2.7, the first layer of *Bao* includes three aspects. They include sociological, psychological, and religious interpretations. From a sociological standpoint, the Chinese repayment strategy works based on insurance protection and *guanxi*-building, while from a psychological perspective, the reciprocal action is out of cognitive distortion, owing to the perception of unfairness. From a religious viewpoint, Chinese *Bao* can be explained by the law of *Yin Guo* "因果規律" in Buddhism. We will provide detailed explanations of each interpretation as follows.

Figure 2. The Interpretation of *Bao*



SOCIOLOGICAL INTERPRETATION

The Gratitude Theory

McCullough, Kilpatrick, Emmons, and Larson (2001), define gratitude as the perception that one has benefited from the intentional, and voluntary actions of another person. It is a morally beneficial emotional state that encourages reciprocal kindness. According to the Gratitude Theory, when individuals feel grateful towards a benefactor, they appreciate the efforts of that benefactor as valuable and consider engaging in a particular act, such as sending a thank-you card, buying chocolates, or inviting them for dinner. Chinese perform *Bao* basically because they feel obligated to respond with acts of gratitude. Gratitude Theory is thus a motive of *Bao*. Gratitude is not the same as indebtedness and obligation. The obligation arises from a negative and uncomfortable feeling, whereas gratitude is usually related to well-being and contentment (McCullough et al., 2001). Both gratitude and indebtedness are self-oriented, but indebtedness comes from a need to discharge debts and reduce stress brought about by indebtedness. In contrast,

gratitude emerges out of appreciation for the efforts of the benefactor, bearing more or less the similar meaning of *Bao*. There is no explicit obligation for one to repay the benefits received as prescribed by *Bao*.
In most cases, people do not always justify the expectation for repayment. The action of *Bao* tends to be vague and varied across situations and people, depending on their abilities. To show one's gratitude for a particular benefit, no particular activity that the duty of gratitude requires. For the poor or the elderly, one might demonstrate gratitude by sending a thank-you card, having the benefactor meet his or her family, or sending some wildflowers. These may seem valuable to the benefactor. Gratitude is to provide the benefactor with a return.

PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

Equity Theory

Equity Theory belongs to a workplace management theory, which defines relational satisfaction as perceptions of fair or unfair distribution of resources in interpersonal relationships. We postulate that employees seek to maintain a balance between the input that they take to a job and the outcome that they earn from it (Adams, 1965). Individuals who see themselves as either over-rewarded or under-rewarded will experience distress, which will lead to efforts to restore balance within the relationship. Equity is equal to the ratio of contributions and benefits of each person within the relationship (Adam, 1965).

We commonly apply Equity Theory in a business setting, but also use it to explain the interaction in interpersonal relationships. Relational satisfaction is the result of the evaluation of input and outcome between parties. When individuals decide whether or not to help another, they will first estimate the input and the possible outcomes. Generally, they expect a return and will feel that they have been mistreated and get angry if what they give is not returned. As a result, they may even terminate their interpersonal relationship.

However, when they receive benefits from another person, they also expect repayment for what they have received. The motive to repay relies on equity perception. According to Equity Theory, if individuals get too much from others, they may feel guilty or shameful. In order to eliminate their distress, they may then attempt to restore equity through repayment. The higher the inequity, the more distress people will feel, and the more they will try to restore equity (Walster, Traupmann, & Walster, 1978). This is the underlying motive of *Bao*.

The motivation of *Bao* hinges on equity perception. Ordinary people would like to strike a balance with others. If they cannot keep the balance, the relationship may come to an end because those under-rewarded may feel it is unfair and humiliating for them. Similarly, those who are over-benefited may tend to return what they have received to bring back equity between the relationships. Otherwise, they may have a sense of cognitive dissonance. Nevertheless, this equity "calculation" is solely anchored in an equity perception, not originating from an actual economic value.

RELIGIOUS INTERPRETATION

The Law of Yin Guo

From a religious perspective, *Bao* can be explained by the law of *yin Guo* (因果). Buddhism emphasized that certain factors or reasons induce every event or outcome. This cause and effect relationship is, in Chinese terms, regarded as *Yin Guo*. Chinese interpret *Yin* (因) as the causes that bring about an event or outcome. *Guo* (果) is the event or outcome that arises from causes (Tang, 1998). Therefore, Chinese widely believe that a good deed (i.e., *Yin*) may bring fortune (i.e., *Guo*). By contrast, immoral acts may lead to adverse consequences. A Chinese proverb puts the issue this way: "Good deed will receive good rewards; evil conduct will bring dreadful outcomes 種善因，得善果." *Yin Guo* is a kind of circulating fate relating to cause and outcome.

A cause generates an outcome. The outcome may, in return, serve as the cause of the outcome of another event. In other words, every event is a cause under certain conditions. The first event may give rise to other events. This theory reflects the notion that all events and persons act interdependently.

Affected by the belief of *Yin Guo*, Chinese believe that *Bao*, regardless of favors or hatred, reward, or punishment, should be as sure as a cause-and-effect relationship (Yang, 1957). That is, what one receives from repayment will be relevant to what they have done or given. Because of that, Chinese people in general believe that when someone has done someone a favor, the second person should return the benefit that was received and let the benefactor be rewarded (i.e., the *Guo* that one is entitled owing to the Yin that they cultivated) by what he or she had done (i.e., the *Yin* that one had cultivated). A famous Chinese proverb best describes the belief of the Chinese: "God would reward a kind person with a good outcome 好心有好報." Accordingly, *Bao* advises us that individuals should not owe others any favors. The belief underlying *Bao* is that if individuals do not repay favors to others, it runs contrary to the law of *Yin Guo* when the benefactor does not receive a good outcome for his or her good deed. Hence, the law of *Yin Guo* reinforces the idea that people should engage in reciprocal behavior (i.e., *Bao).*

The indigenous concept of *Bao* is not limited to the positive consequences of an action where Western reciprocity is stressed. *Bao* also encompasses the negative consequences of a harmful action, retribution (Leung, 1996). Concerning adverse outcomes, the Chinese also believe in retribution to a person who harms. A Chinese proverb says, "All good deeds and evil deeds will ultimately have rewards and retribution, the only difference is the time, which comes sooner or later善惡到頭終有報，只爭來早與來遲." Those who harm will one day be restored in a state of justice. This reflects that all events will finally lead to a state of justice in the long run.

In sum, generally speaking, based on sociological interpretations, the concept of *Bao* can be explained by Gratitude Theory. The motive of *Bao* hinges on gratitude and the appreciation of the efforts offered by others. Hence, *Bao* is not an explicit obligation. The primary goal of *Bao* is not to confer repayment according to the magnitude of the benefits received, but rather, it is an outward demonstration of the feelings of gratitude. Therefore, the balance between taking and giving is not the focus of *Bao*. From another angle, *Bao* is based upon the perception of equity and fairness. The motive of *Bao* is to restore a balance between parties; otherwise, both the benefactor and debtors will feel discomfort and stress. *Bao* is heavily associated with the law of *Yin Guo* and is a cause-and-effect relationship from a religious perspective. Chinese people believe that the good deed they have done today will bring functional consequences to them in the future. By contrast, if a debtor receives favor but does not repay it, the evil act might bring unfavorable outcomes to the debtor. For these two interpretations, the concept of *Bao* has deep religious and sociological elements.

In sum, these theories all explain the concepts of *Bao* by incorporating various characteristics of *Bao*.

Conceptualization of **Bao**

Gouldner (1960) argued that the norms of reciprocity are present in most societies but with differences in their constitution, location in the value system, mode of manifestation, and impact on relationships and behavior. Just like in Chinese society, Chinese people endorse reciprocal behavior. This idea reflects the Chinese concept called *Bao*, which centers on reciprocal behavior. However, its ideas and beliefs, to a certain extent, vary from those in Western societies. Despite these differences, there are also similarities. We will devote the following section to discuss the idea of *Bao* in greater detail.

The extant literature does not provide us with concrete ideas about *Bao*. We find no framework to distinguish Chinese *Bao* from the Western concept of reciprocity. For instance, Yang (1994) specified these basic rules of *Bao* under Chinese circumstances. First, we should accept a favor when offered. Second, we are obliged to return a favor. Third, when asked for a favor, one should comply (at least in part). Fourth, one should attempt to return favor promptly. Last, one should wait for a favor to be returned, and not request its return. These rules are similar to Western notions presented by Gouldner and others (Westwood, Chan, & Linstead, 2004).

Nevertheless, it seems confusing when we mix Chinese *Bao* with the Western concept of reciprocity. Explicitly, these rules are too general and cannot highlight the distinctiveness and richness of the Chinese concept of *Bao*. Hence, one of the purposes of this section is to propose a universal classification for reciprocal behavior, which appropriately fits different cultures or societies. This classification framework includes five aspects, namely the value of the exchange, the form of repayment, the repayment period, the repayment entity, and the unit of the subject to repaying. Table 1 depicts the classification system for reciprocal behavior. We illustrate the details of each aspect as follows.

Table 2. The Classification System of Reciprocity

	Value	**Timing**	**Entity**	**Form**	**Units of Subject**
Type I	Symmetric	Immediate repayment	Direct repayment	Specific	Individual
Type II	Asymmetric	Timely repayment	Indirect repayment	Generalized	Collective

Before looking into the illustration, note that the literature describes the Chinese concept of *Bao* in minimal terms, though some researchers have discussed the Chinese concept of "reciprocity." Many researchers harbor a misconception about the Chinese concept of *Bao* and treat it the same as the Western concept of reciprocity. The only comprehensive discussion that touched upon the Eastern concept of reciprocity was one carried out by Lebra (1976), which comprises a detailed discussion on Japanese reciprocity (i.e., *on*). Given the heavy influence of Confucianism (Lebra, 1976) and similarity of cultures, the Japanese sense of reciprocity, *On*, shares many common characteristics with Chinese *Bao*. Therefore, we take Lebra's ideas with additional Chinese ancient concepts in the following illustration of *Bao*.

The Value of Exchanges

The value of exchanges is generally seen from an economic perspective, putting much emphasis on the economic fairness of the exchange between two parties. This is not always true in the Chinese culture as the Chinese concept of *Bao* emphasizes an asymmetrical repayment. One reason that favors is an asymmetry in repayment is bond building. Lebra (1976) made a distinction in *Bao* from the pure economic exchange, in that sometimes its significance lies in the creation or maintenance of a social relationship rather than in the transfer of goods from hand to hand. China is a society with a strong emphasis on social relationships (Yang, 1957). During the process of exchange, the economic value is only a part of the entire transaction. Sometimes exchanges may be attributed to altruism or the creation or maintenance of a social relationship, as the Chinese view symmetric repayment as a closure to the existing relationships. Keeping the reciprocal book in perfect balance means the cancellation of social ties (Chen & Chen, 2004). By contrast, if one returns the favor with a favor of even higher value, the original benefactor may become a debtor because of the over-benefit. Therefore, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (1997, p. 179) deduced that both parties would try to continually return more in a system of escalating favors so that they can further extend their relationship. This explains why the Chinese prefer imbalanced exchanges.

Another factor that supports asymmetry in repayment is the feeling of indebtedness. As explained by the theory of indebtedness, people feel discomfort when they owe others. For Chinese people, it is imperative not to owe anyone a favor. Given this fact, the Chinese avoid placing themselves in positions of being over-benefited by returning a gift with a higher value. Chen and Chen (2004) emphasized that what is reciprocated must be of great value to the receiver. The repayment to others has to be generous, and more than one has received it. Some famous Chinese proverbs describe a situation like this: "One person honors some other person a linear foot, the other person should honor him in return ten feet" and "Receive a cow; repay with a horse." These proverbs illustrate that one should repay more than they received. If someone helps us with ten dollars, one is obligated to repay with more, for example, twenty dollars. This reflects the idea that Chinese tradition tends to endorse the notion of 'repayment with a little bit more than one received. These examples provide strong evidence for the preference of asymmetric exchanges within a Chinese context. Lebra (1976) called this the theory of divergent reciprocity.

In Chinese societies, symmetric exchanges are not widely prevalent except in the exchange of popular gifts and cash values between acquaintances. If the transaction is entirely in material form, such as gift-giving, the Chinese make symmetric repayment by duplicating the initial giving through counter-giving on a similar occasion and with a similar gift (Lebra, 1976). For example, presents of comparable value given on some occasions such as birthdays, weddings, and funerals are returned only when other similar occasions arise. In order to ensure a symmetric exchange between parties, it is not unusual to find Chinese keeping a record of the cash gifts or condolences received by each person at a wedding ceremony or funeral.

Timing of Repayment

The timing of repayment refers to the best time that repayment should be made to return a favor to a benefactor. Based on the Indebtedness Theory, repayment should be made as soon as the rewards are received to reduce the discomfort caused by indebtedness. However, from an equity perspective, repayment should wait until the benefactor is in a corresponding situation so that comparable favor could be made in return to the benefactor. Therefore, we can divide the timing of repayment into two types: immediate repayment and timely repayment.

One of the critical features of *Bao* is the emphasis on timely repayment: to repay a debt at the best time when the benefactor needs help. The orientation of repayment can explain this feature. Chen and Chen (2004) classify reciprocity into two types: self-oriented and other-oriented reciprocity. Self-oriented reciprocity is grounded by one's desire to relieve oneself of indebtedness burdens by returning the favor with no consideration of its value or need to the receiver. In contrast, one's gratitude toward the benefactor primarily prompts other-oriented reciprocity and that they are concerned for the other's needs and well-being. In this case, the return favor will wait until an opportunity arises when help is truly needed. Chinese *Bao* is similar to the latter. It stresses timely repayment in which the reciprocation is motivated by one's gratitude and other's orientation. The moral significance of gratitude does not lie so much in the demonstration of repayment. The retention of the memory of having received the favor and then returning that favor on a timely basis play an essential role. A Chinese phrase clearly illustrates this belief: "Once receiving favor from others, one should remember it for a thousand years." The purpose of retaining it in one's memory is to wait for the appropriate time or opportunity when the benefactor needs help so that return favor could be made. This proverb implies the importance of timeliness of repayment. From this statement, we can see that Chinese *Bao* very much emphasizes timely repayment rather than immediate repayment.

Another explanation for the preference of timely repayment is based on the Social Capital theory. From a Social Capital Perspective, the offer of favors to someone can be seen as the accumulation of social capital, which enables one to enlist another's help when it is in need in the future. In this way, the benefactor, in general, is not looking for immediate repayment but rather desires to build up his or her credit for future use. This explains why the Chinese do not expect immediate repayment. On some occasions, Bao may involve one's whole life. Indeed, one may have to wait for a chance for repaying that may come at a point only when the benefactor needs something that the debtor can give.

Similarly, Lebra (1976) regards long-lasting debts as a kind of social insurance to be cashed in during a crisis. Chinese often consider favors done for others as "insurance protection" for which handsome returns are expected when it is needed most. Based on the concept of insurance, favors rendered at present are mainly for protection in the future.

There are some exceptional cases. The response or return in social relations, in some cases, is immediate when the exchange involves everyday things or issues (Lebra, 1976). Many gift favors are answered by an immediate return gift so that the first receiver will not remain a debtor too long and incur interest on their debt. For instance, the exchange of gifts during the New Year is almost immediate. A cash gift called '*lai see*' (red packet) is exchanged simultaneously. Chinese usually wait for the same life-cycle event to repay a benefit. For example, a cash gift received for one's birthday ceremony will be returned when the creditor's next birthday arrives. However, in many cases, it is difficult or even impossible for the recipient to wait for the same life-cycle event or emergency to happen for the initial giver (Lebra, 1976). Funerals, celebrations surrounding professional advancement, or other similar events are good examples. Consequently, on some occasions, immediate repayment can be made.

Forms of Repayment

The form of repayment is a means to return favors already received. Moreover, this suggests two typologies. The first typology is the general manner or approach to returning a favor one has received. The second typology is the method of returning a favor according to the occasion or situation. We discuss the two typologies as follows.

According to the general approach towards what has been received, the first typology divides the forms of repayment into four types. Table 2 depicts the classification and forms of repayment. Before describing the four forms of *Bao*, we will discuss the structure of the classifications. First, *Bao* can be divided into two in terms of its nature. One is a favorable nature; the other is a negative nature. The positive nature of *Bao* is to repay with kindness, while the harmful nature of *Bao* is retribution or revenge toward the hated. Second, we classify the approach to returning the favors into two styles. The first style is to return by hatred, and the second one is to return by kindness. Based on the natures and styles of *Bao*, four forms of *Bao* can be further classified: (1) Seek revenge of hatred by hatred; (2) return hatred with kindness; (3) return kindness with hatred; (4) repay kindness with kindness. First, seeking to revenge hatred through hatred refers to the use of a hatred style to repay hatred received. Second, the return of the hatred by kindness is the use of a kindness style to repay the hatred one has received. Third, the return of kindness by hatred indicates the employment of a hatred approach to repay the kindness, which has been accepted. Fourth, the repayment of kindness by kindness makes use of a kindness approach to repay the same kindness received. In sum, these four forms of *Bao* are classified by the approach towards a favor or hatred received. This classification shows different types of *Bao* and various approaches for repayment.

Table 2. Forms of *Bao* Classified by the Manner or Approach of Return

Style of *Bao*報	**Nature of *Bao*報**	
	Harmful nature 報仇 **Revenge of hatred**	**Favorable nature** 報恩 **Repayment of kindness**
仇 **Hatred**	以眼還眼 To revenge the hatred by hatred	恩將仇報 To return the kindness by hatred
恩 **Kindness**	以德報怨 To return the hatred by kindness	以恩報恩 To repay the kindness by kindness

The second typology divides the forms of repayment into two according to the occasion and situation, which are specific reciprocity and generalized reciprocity. Some reciprocal exchanges are specific to an occasion or situation. Therefore, the form of repayment is associated with specific, well-defined events. In contrast, some exchanges are not limited to any occasion. We refer to this as generalized reciprocity, which is a generalized benevolence that is not limited to a specific occasion, nor is it economically calculable or repayable (Lebra, 1976).

Specific reciprocity is best exemplified by conventional gift-giving, which is associated with specific, well-defined occasions that call for celebrations, condolences, or the ritual expression of gratitude or goodwill (Lebra, 1976). On each of these different occasions, a specific form of repayment is often already well prescribed by cultural traditions. There are different types of occasions about life cycles, calendrical cycles, emergencies, and special events. Though the occasions are diverse and the gift-givers may vary from case to case, the occasions are consistently well defined and associated with particular ceremonies. For instance, the essential occasions in life that call for gift-giving are birth, marriage, and death. During these events, feasts are the typical form of repayment for visitors' gifts and condolences. One can also wait for the same life-cycle event experienced by the initial givers, which is returnable with the same favor to the giver. During gift-giving occasions regulated by the calendar such as the Chinese New Year festival and the Mid-autumn festival, recipients generally return gifts with similar forms of gifts, ranging from cash and unique presents in well-designed red and gold envelopes during Chinese New Year and boxes of moon-cakes for the Mid-autumn festival. In the case of an emergency, such as a severe illness, fire, major robbery or certain special events, including opening a new business and buying a new house, the recipient will wait for the same events or emergencies to happen to the initial giver and then return with the same form of favor.

Generalized reciprocity focuses on generalized benevolence. When benevolence is coupled with an offer of non-economic value such as love, respect, and pride, Lebra (1976) defines this as generalized benevolence. As aforementioned, some forms of benevolence are economically incalculable and unrepayable, like a situation when one saves the life of another drowning in the sea accidentally. As this benevolence can hardly be repaid, people may remain indebted forever during their entire life. Therefore, generalized reciprocity emphasizes the benefactor's overall attitudes and pattern of action rather than the value of the object given or to a specific act. A permanent debtor is supposed not to forget the benevolence and should wait for a time when the benefactor truly needs them. In that case, the form of repayment is non-specific. It is heavily subject to the needs of the benefactor at that particular time. The form of repayment can range from material goods such as traditional gifts or intangible acts such as love and empathy, as well as concrete vestures like giving work to a jobless person. This explains why generalized reciprocity is associated with generalized benevolence.

Given the unrepayability of generalized benevolence, complementary repayment is the standard form of repayment, including compliance, submission, or loyalty to the benefactor. Because of the unrepayability of benevolence, debtors tend to use their whole life to support the benefactors to show their gratitude. Therefore, generalized reciprocity always involves one's entire life (Lebra, 1976). The recipients, on the one hand, remember the benevolence received and wait for the opportunity when help is needed. On the other hand, sometimes a chance for repayment may come at a point in one's life when a status reversal has taken place between the benefactor and the recipient. For example, when a mother becomes helpless and frail in old age, the son or daughter, who used to be a debtor, may provide total care to the mother to repay her benevolence. Hence, generalized reciprocity does not stipulate the form of repayment but depends highly on the needs of the benefactor at a particular point in time.

The Entity of Repayment

The Western sense of reciprocity, suggested by Gouldner (1960), emphasizes bilateral exchanges. However, Chinese *Bao* is more complicated. It may also involve a triad of exchanges rather than just being limited to dyadic exchanges between two parties (Lebra, 1976). Therefore, the entity of repayment can be classified into direct repayment and indirect repayment. Direct repayment requires the repayment of favors to the original benefactor, while indirect repayment involves the repayment of the debt that may pass through a third or even fourth party. If A is the benefactor of B, B is on credit to C. A can then try to influence C through B. Therefore, B becomes the intermediary that interlinks the two parties A and C.

Direct repayment is one type of repayment approach; however, it is not always a fact, particularly in the Chinese context. Chinese are culturally and socially oriented (Yang, 1989), characterized by their social networks, social connections, and strong family ties (Waktins & Liu, 1996). Chinese are also adept at navigating complex networks of social ties (Goodwin & Tang, 1996). They are often tied together by a shared identity. Their social network expands day by day throughout their lives. For example, a friend would probably become a friend of one's brothers and schoolmates as well. Yeo (1991) argued that the social ties of the Chinese are diffuse, unspecific, and ruled by the principle of *Bao*. Whenever one's benefactor needs help, one is socially obligated to respond to any request from him or her. Even though one may find oneself incapable of providing help, one may also seek help from a network of one's own connections. Alternatively, one may know that a friend of the debtor possesses some kind of resources that are needed. Even though one does not know this friend, one may request help from this third party through their debtor. This chain of relationships illustrates how indirect repayment operates. The extensive connection networks of the Chinese have given rise to the popularity of indirect repayment in Chinese societies. Though people in Western countries also possess social ties, their connection networks are not as far-reaching as the Chinese. Furthermore, the Chinese tend to be interdependent, whereas people in Western countries prefer self-sufficiency. As such, indirect repayment becomes more prevalent in Chinese societies than in the West.

One of the significant operating mechanisms of indirect repayment involves a third party. This third party may become the final benefactor if the favor is not repaid to the original giver. Alternatively, this third party may become the contributor of disparate dyadic relationships between another two parties when they help their benefactor to repay the debt. Implicitly, *Bao* is transferable. The debt of a person can be transferred to a third person, so that person eventually repays the debt. On the other hand, favors are transferrable when a debt is not repaid to the original giver. Lebra (1976) regarded this kind of repayment as transitive reciprocity.

The transferability of *Bao* is not restricted to a lateral transfer. Alternatively, it can also be a linear transfer. In the family, based on the principle of *Bao*, all things, including rewards and punishments, curses, and blessings, are all transferable within a family context (Lebra, 976). A Chinese proverb describes transferability within the family this way: "Honor extends to the whole family and its ancestors." Therefore, an entire family with the same ancestor may feel proud of the honor possessed by that one family member.

Similarly, the disgrace of one person extends to the whole family. During ancient times in China, if one committed a severe crime, retribution for that crime may have extended to nine generations, and all the living family members would have suffered the punishment. Transference within the family has a long cultural tradition in Chinese society. Likewise, the transference of debt and favors within a family is not unusual either. When one's benefactor dies, the debt does not cease to exist. The creditor-debtor relationship is transferred rather than ended. The debt does not perish until it is returned. The favor is generally transferred to the next of kin, such as a spouse and children, when one dies, leaving an unsettled debt. Therefore, the debtor is obligated to pass the debt on to the next generation.

Unit of Subject

Unit of a subject refers to the basic unit involved in the repayment process. There are two types of units: individual and collective. When the exchange involves a dyadic interaction between two parties, the person who received a favor returns the benefit to the benefactor directly and personally. The repayment unit involved in this reciprocal relationship is individual. By contrast, if the repayment requires all members of a group to help those in need, the repayment units become collective.

The unit of action is for a group rather than by an individual in a Chinese context. Chinese are socially oriented (Yang, 1989). The most elementary unit for sharing a debt is the household (Lebra, 1976). When one receives benefits from another person, all members of the family are obligated to repay the favor. As aforementioned, regardless of the reward or punishment, the entire family shares the honor or the sin. This socially oriented nature extends to the principle of *Bao* as well. *Bao* requires all members of a group to provide favors to help those in need (Lee & Dawes, 2005). The responsibility of repayment is supposed to be shared by all members of the family. Similarly, if a person does a favor for someone, all members of the family become the benefactors of that person.

Summary

On the whole, *Bao* is informal and unspecific. The intentions of *Bao* are less likely to be well elucidated. The timing and the format of repayment, and the value of the exchange are also not specified. It is contingent upon the situation, that is, the needs of the benefactor.

Nevertheless, the nature and quality of the relationship between the parties guide the parameters of *Bao* (Westwood, Chan, & Linstead, 2004). In general, the closer and more significant the relationship is, the higher the moral imperative attached to rule compliance. Yang (1957) also noted that the contingency of the family and the reciprocations are more liberal and less carefully accounted for or immediately returned. However, exchanges between lesser acquaintances may be subject to tighter controls and more accurate accounting, expectations of value equivalence, and deferrals of a shorter duration.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN WESTERN RECIPROCITY AND CHINESE *BAO*

The above sections have highlighted the concept of reciprocity from both the Western and Asian perspectives. To clearly distinguish the differences between the concept of reciprocation among Western and Asian peoples, the comparison table below delineates the concept of reciprocity and *Bao*, while Table 3 illustrates their differences.

Table 4. Differences between Reciprocity and *Bao*

	Western Perspective	Chinese Perspective
	Reciprocity	*Bao*
Value of Exchange	Symmetric	Asymmetric
Timing of Repayment	Immediate	Long-term orientation
Form of Repayment	Specific	General but specific to a situation
Entity of Repayment	Direct repayment	Indirect repayment
Unit of Subject	Individual	Collective

Concerning the value of the exchange, Malinowski (1959) suggested that the norms of reciprocity stipulating the amount of the return should be "roughly equivalent" to what has been received. Smith (1998) states that when two friends have become conscious of asymmetry in their reciprocation, the friendship may become threatened. The concept of reciprocity from a Western perspective focuses more on symmetric exchanges, which should be avoided in the Chinese context because symmetric exchanges will end in broken relationships. When one no longer owes the other, the relationship ceases. An asymmetric exchange, on the contrary, can prolong one's relationship. Hence, the Chinese disapprove of symmetric exchanges. Chinese prefer to repay the benefactor with a value higher than what was received.

To ensure that the exchanges between two parties are equal, we may suggest immediate repayment. In other words, the transaction should be settled as soon as the return favor has been repaid. However, *Bao* does not condone immediate repayment. Unlike Western reciprocity, *Bao* is long-term oriented and de-emphasizes timeliness. As mentioned before, when a transaction is settled, the two people involved no longer owe each other, and the relationship between them is terminated. Furthermore, *Bao* stresses long-term repayment because one should wait for the best time when the benefactor is genuinely in need of help. In this way, we can see that *Bao* is different from the Western concept of reciprocity.

Given the concerns about equality in exchanges with reciprocity, the form of repayment is generally equivalent to what was received. The idea of equivalent is not only limited to its value but also focuses on the form of reciprocation. In other words, the form of repayment tends to be fixed and specific. By contrast, *Bao* is more ambiguous. For generalized benevolence, given the unrepayability and the incalculability of the favor, the form of repayment tends to be more general. *Bao* centers on the needs of the benefactor. Typically, the format of repayment is very different from the original form of the favor when the benefactor faces a different problem or situation. The forms of repayment, therefore, can range from popular gifts to intangible acts like love and encouragement. Nevertheless, *Bao* is also specific to situations. For specific reciprocity, the form of repayment is generally stipulated according to traditional practices.

Reciprocity focuses on the bi-directional exchange of resources (Tilden & Gaylem, 1987). So when an individual receives favor from a person, one is supposed to return the debt to the benefactor directly. As such, reciprocity from the viewpoint of a Westerner places more emphasis on direct exchange. However, *Bao* in Eastern societies is transferable; the repayment for a favor received is not necessarily returned to the original benefactor. Favors serve as an investment for uncertain circumstances in the future. Although the debtor may not have the resources that the benefactor needs, there is probably a member of a debtor's connected network who does. If the network member is indebted to the debtor, then the debtor is supposed to influence the network members to mobilize resources to help his or her benefactor in order to repay the debt. In such cases, the action of *Bao* is replaced by a network member rather than the original debtor of the benefactor. This reflects how the Chinese utilize interpersonal connections and *renging* in order to maximize their benefits. That is why it is typical to find a complicated repayment system among Eastern societies.

Western reciprocity stresses the dyadic relationship between two parties. Individuals are supposed to return their debt to the original benefactor. Therefore, repayment is mainly engaged by individuals. Chinese, however, focus on collective action. Given the collective nature of Chinese people, when a member within the same group is indebted to others, all the members in the same group are responsible for repayment. Similarly, if a member provides a favor, all group members are seen as the benefactors by the debtor. Therefore, the debtor has a responsibility to help the members of the group.

The above literature review on the Eastern concept of *Bao* indicates that written resources are minimal and fragmented. Current studies on the indigenous Chinese concepts of *Bao* are also rare. We lack some objective tools to gauge *Bao* and examine its impact on the consumer behavior of the Chinese. As such, we urgently need to develop a reliable and valid scale for measuring this concept.

Based on the similarities and differences between Western countries and Eastern societies, it is clear that the concept of *Bao* deviates a great deal from the Western mindset. *Bao* seems to be different in all aspects: the value of repayment, the timing to repay, the form, the entity of repayment, and the unit of the subject. Antonucci (1990) attributed the variation of its meaning and concept between Western societies and non-Western societies to be heavily influenced by culture.

MARKETING IMPLICATIONS OF *BAO*

There are possibly several meaningful marketing implications.

First, being one of the four components of relationship marketing orientation as proposed by Yau et al. (2000a), *Bao* has been served as a lubricant in building a tight relationship in B2B and B2C contexts (Yau et al., 2000b). Developing trust in *Bao* repayment, marketers have to let customers feel they are being respected and taking advantage of the company, which is making a repayment.

Second, in designing marketing strategies, making customers reciprocate becomes a crucial task. Chinese tend to delay reciprocity to a later date. Creating and providing opportunities for customers to reciprocate will reinforce their loyalty. An example is to invite customers, suppliers, or retailers to serve as company/brand ambassadors. Dealing with diversifying the value of the exchange, loyal customers will be concerned about receiving escalating benefits from the company as time goes on. For example, a company with club membership should consider seniority in its membership system so that customers can enjoy various ways of being promoted from ordinary membership to VIP membership, and senior VIP membership. As such, loyalty can grow with seniority.

Third, as it may take a long time for members in the marketing system to develop *Bao*, continuous communication with members in the system will speed up the cycle of payment. Examples include creating festival events, roadshows, and lectures so that customers can participate freely to enjoy the hospitality of the company. Prince Jewellery Co. Ltd in Hong Kong encourages its VIP members to redeem VIP points they have accumulated for jewelry appreciation lectures with five-star meals while Grand Dawn Jewellery allows its customers to participate in DIY workshops freely.

Fourth, as *Bao* can be in many forms, a company can create various situations and let itself and its stakeholders repay in various forms. This would help to develop a tight relationship. Situations include repaying its customers for their faith by giving away discounts on goods of high value and having the privilege to redeem particular promotional items.

Last, *Bao* can be made not only to customers themselves, but also extended to their family members, colleagues, and friends. For example, to allow customers to bring their family members and friends to participate in marketing events organized and/or sponsored by the company, or to enjoy exclusive discounts in promotion activities. As such, by gaining face among peers, customers tend to grow in loyalty with the company.

CONCLUSION AND POSSIBLE FUTURE RESEARCH AVENUES

A literature review on the concept of *Bao* indicates that written resources are minimal, fragmented, and rare despite its prevalence in Chinese communities. We conclude that some objective tools are lacking to examine *Bao* and its impact on the behavior of the Chinese. To fully understand this concept and its relationship with other related constructs such as *Hsiao*, harmony, and *ren* (forbearance), we urge to develop a reliable and valid scale for *Bao*.

Based on the similarities and differences between Western countries and Eastern societies, the concept of *Bao* deviates a great deal from the Western mindset. The variation of its meaning between Western societies and non-Western societies is heavily attributable to culture, as indicated by Antonucci (1990).

Although this article has provided relevant and exciting insights into the understanding of *Bao* and its impacts on marketing, it is imperative to recognize the limitations associated with this study. The conceptualization of *Bao* used in this study may be robust. However, a more rigorous conceptualization and scale development process are needed to validate the concepts.

There are several research directions that can be pursued in the future. First, *Bao* may serve as an antecedent. Other constructs such as gift-giving, *Hsiao*, and product involvement may serve as consequences, showing the predictive power of *Bao*.

Second, in the Chinese context of *Bao*, an unconfirmed proposition that the institutionalization of parents to elderly homes is positively related to filial inadequacy await investigation.

Last, to compare and contrast the concept of *Bao* with its counterpart, reciprocity, we must conduct empirical studies with at least two representative samples: one from the Chinese communities and another from English-speaking countries such as the UK, the USA, and Australia. As a result, we can then depict a more global concept of *Bao* across various cultures.

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BOOK REVIEW

Exporting: Key Considerations for International Business Growth by L. Houlier and J. Blaskey (2020). New York: Business Expert Press. 117 pages. ISBN-13: 978-95253-844-5 (paperback).
Reviewed by Claude Cellich, Vice president, International University in Geneva, Switzerland.

In *Exporting,* the authors have written a no-nonsense primer for anyone interested going international. It is written in a user-friendly style, emphasizing the practical aspects of exporting. The major steps involving export are described in 7 chapters, each one consisting of a brief description of the subject matter followed by checklists, key points learned, and ends with a case study or example.

Chapter 1 concerns adapting products and services to the target markets. The reader is reminded that a product or service doing well in the domestic market may require adaptation to local tastes, perceptions, and habits, as well as technical regulations including packaging and labelling in foreign markets. Knowledge of competition is essential to determine how your products or services compare to competitors. Potential exporters can assess what additional resources are needed to succeed in export markets by applying CORE a self-assessment diagnostic tool (Julian, 2016).[1] Trade promotion organizations, chambers of commerce, and trade attachés, among others, are using this tool to advise potential exporters about the requirements needed to succeed in export markets.

Chapter 2, on intellectual property is most welcomed, as this aspect of exporting is often overlooked. Concerning patents, the authors refer to a growing threat from professionals who search for patent applications on behalf of competitors to steal and profit from others' innovations. This point is critical for entrepreneurs planning to export their innovative products or services to foreign markets. It is critical for new exporters to register their trademarks before they are stolen. The same threats apply to web domains.

Chapter 3, on communication, highlights the importance of languages in doing business in international markets. How one interacts and communicates can make the difference between success and failure. There is sufficient evidence in the existing literature about blunders due to misunderstanding between business executives from different cultures. Special attention is needed when one communicates, whether it is in person or through the Internet, to avoid costly mistakes.

Chapter 4 provides practical advice on how to plan, participate, and measure the return on investment on trade shows. An alternative to participating in trade shows is to promote products or services through virtual fairs. Executives from small and medium enterprises may find this alternative less expensive than participating in trade shows. However, virtual fairs require well designed websites. This new approach may be attractive but cannot replace face to face meetings between the parties, particularly when doing business in relationship-related cultures. Potential exporters can seek advice from their respective trade attachés concerning selecting and participating in trade fairs, as well as selecting the most appropriate markets for their products or services[2] (*A Guide to Commercial Diplomacy*, 2019).

Chapter 5 addresses the issue of selecting channels, whether it is B to B or D to C. In this chapter, the authors describe in detail the benefits and the disadvantages of the various options available such as licensing, franchising, joint ventures, partnerships, distributors, sole agents, on consignment, owning outlets, subsidiaries, and acquisitions. Selecting the most appropriate channel when entering a new export market will depend to a large extent on how well the channel for your products or services was selected. Two case studies, one in South Korea and the other in China, illustrate how selecting the wrong channel leads to failure.

Chapter 6, which deals with cash flow, is probably the most important chapter when considering exports. Getting an order is fine, but getting paid is even better. The risks involved are well identified in international transactions including exchange rate fluctuations, delivery terms, insurance, and credit worthiness of the importer, among others. Before processing the order, especially if it is an initial one, it is vital to check the credit rating of the interested party to avoid unpleasant surprises. Too often, insufficient credit rating checks can result in nonpayment.

Chapter 7 describes the importance of culture and the challenges of managing an organization in a disruptive environment. This last chapter is much in line with recent developments where businesses from other industries are entering established markets with innovative models due mainly to digital transformation disrupting the way businesses operate [3] (Gupta, 2018). To avoid blunders when going international, management needs to design a realistic strategy that takes into consideration the initial costs of entering new markets, as well as the medium and long-term perspectives. In view of the dynamics of global trade, the strategy has to be updated constantly to reflect changing conditions in the marketplace, including the increasing role of NGOs concerning sustainability, deforestation, safety regulations, child labor, and use of palm oil, among others. Furthermore, successful exporting requires a healthy relationship between the parties besides having the right product or service. In the end, profits from exports comes from repeat customers satisfied with products or services over the longer term.

In *Exporting*, the authors have produced a practical and down-to-earth text. It is a must-read for anyone considering going international, particularly for executives of small and medium enterprises to avoid costly blunders due to inappropriate strategies, including knowledge of market conditions, level of competition, and cultural awareness.

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Mastering Marketing Agility: Transform Your Marketing Teams and Evolve Your Organization by Andrea Fryrear (2020). Oakland, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publisher, Inc. 336 pages. ISBN: 978-1523090983.

Reviewed by Jack Spillan, Professor of Business Administration, School of Business, University of North Carolina at Pembrook, Pinehurst, North Carolina, the USA.

In volatile, uncertain, ambiguous, and complex business environments,
agility is imperative for both inside and outside of marketing. Agility marketing is a method that is tailored to the marketing context. Andrea Fryrear's book *Mastering Marketing Agility: Transform Your Marketing Teams and Evolve Your Organization* (2020) provides an in-depth discussion of the principles and practices of Rimarketing. The Rimarketing framework that is at the core of the Mastering Marketing Agility book is derived from the Japanese martial arts concept of Shu, ha and ri. These terms relate to a cycle of learning or explained as a process of first learning, then disconnecting, and then mastering or excelling in implementing the marketing agility framework. The author calls it Rimarketing because it leads to a process of allowing a marketer to evolve a marketing agility mindset. It is a model established exclusively for marketing. It brings something new and unique to the marketing function. In order to effectively implement the Rimarketing process, the organization's managers must develop a robust marketing strategy to support this this effort.

With agile marketing, the context is important because marketing agility is the ability to implement Rimarketing inside and outside of marketing activities, while simultaneously transforming the way marketing operations are conducted. The book sets forth principles that create conditions that are necessary for the operating of marketing agility. It suggests that informed decision-making and process metrics are necessary for success. Since the marketing agility process assumes that the marketers, interested in implementing the framework, already have an excellent grasp of the marketing strategy ideas, it makes operationalizing it much easier.
Rather than building from scratch the mastering marketing agility concept, the organization needs to convert its people, processes, and technology into effective marketing agility. This requires that people in the organization think about multiple ways to achieve a goal(s), do a task, reach a customer, or capture a market. This means that there are constant changes and adjustments that have to be made in thinking and actions.

While frameworks like SCRUM (software development) and SAFe are already operating in some areas and are very popular, *Mastering Marketing Agility* focuses on the agility of people, processes, and practices in marketing specifically. Essentially, the book focuses on execution and transformation of marketing operations.

Fryrear suggests that the agile marketing concept is good for Chief Marketing Officers (CMOs) because it helps them deliver and show their value early and often. Historically only the resilient teams adapt, while others give up and move on. While teams are still very important, Rimarketing is designed to recamp and realign operating across marketing functions. Rimarketing's bottom line is to make the company's marketing work predictable, productive, and sustainable. To transform marketing operations, agility is important because it allows marketers to make a difference. The book offers practical perspectives and the whys behind recommendations. Finally, the book is about making marketing activities better. Agile marketing is the best approach for marketing.

The book is an easy read that can become a desk top pal available for quick reference. The book is suitable for both academic and practical applications.

JOURNAL OF EUROMARKETING

Enlarged Europe is playing an increasingly more important role in the global economy. The purpose of the Journal of Euromarketing is to meet the needs of academics, practitioners, and public policy makers in the discussion of marketing issues pertaining to Europe and European countries' trading relationship with other nations. The purpose of this journal is to increase our understanding of the strategic planning aspects of marketing management in Europe. As well, marketing and international business aspects of the trading relationship between European and foreign firms are also explored conceptually and analytically. The unique position of the region provides fascinating reading material for practitioners, public policy makers and academicians. The articles submitted to the journal create a forum whereby a conceptual understanding of the European markets and marketing systems be operationalized, analytical insights obtained as well as the past, the present, and the future of European marketing be highlighted.

The manuscripts submitted should report the results of cross-cultural/national and comparative studies conducted among countries of Europe and European countries and other nations. The articles submitted can be based upon a single country of the region and/or industry there upon with a concerted effort to contrast the results/findings and managerial implications with those obtained by international marketing scholars/practitioners elsewhere. Both thought provoking and well-developed and documented conceptual/ theoretical as well as empirical contributions are sought. But every manuscript must have an applied, managerial orientation.

With its 28 full and 6 associate members, EU is the world's largest internal market possessing nearly $13 trillion economy. Its importance is constantly increasing. Currently, there is a vacuum in the marketing literature which needs to be filled by relating the Europe factor to the global marketing scene; emphasizing on an interaction mode – that is, the horizontal dimension as well as the inter and intra trade and marketing activities in Europe. As such, Journal of Euromarketing covers the following areas of inquiry:

a) Functional areas of marketing in Europe and comparison with the practices of those in other regions.
b) The dynamics that account for the linkage of European national markets into markets of the developing world, North and Latin America, the Far East and Africa.
c) Determine the best methods available for marketing goods and services in different socio-economic, demographic, cultural, competitive, and legal-political environments of Europe at national and regional levels.
d) The method by which European marketing institutions are linked together into viable and coherent business systems.
e) The type of environmental factors prevailing in different European countries of the region which force changes in the marketing structure of the area countries and industrial sectors
f) How efficiently does the marketing system perform its universal functions in the countries of Europe and how the weaknesses of the marketing system can be overcome in the region?
g) The various stages of market and marketing system development in Europe as a working device for generalizing and, possibly, predicting likely developments in marketing in individual countries of the region.

Articles submitted must contain practical information for the marketing practitioners, public policy makers, classroom teachers and researchers with a major emphasis on European marketing. The Journal tries to appeal to a larger group of readers, so the articles should be written in such a manner that those outside the field can comprehend the expertise and attitudes of those who work within it. Hence, a major criterion is that the language used should be as simple as possible without altering in any way, form, or shape the quality of the information to be communicated. Although not exhaustive, the following topics are illustrative of the subject areas to be covered in the Journal:

- Cross-National Consumer Segments in Europe
- Export behavior of European Firms
- Marketing Strategies of European Multinationals
- Marketing Implications of Strategic Alliances of European Firms
- Markets and Marketing Systems of European Countries
- Marketing Practices of Europe Companies
- Public Sector Marketing in Europe
- Comparative Marketing Systems in Europe
- Diffusion of Innovations Among European Nations
- Transfer of Marketing Technology and Reverse Technology Transfer in Europe
- Buyer-Seller Interactions and Organizational Buyer Behavior Issues in European Markets
- Business Customs and Practices Among European Countries
- Marketing Interaction/Interrelationships Between Europe and Other Trading Blocs
- European Corporate Cultures
- Legal-Political Aspects of Marketing in Europe
- Marketing Issues Pertaining to EU, EFTA, Council of Europe, European Members of OECD, and Associate Members of EU
- Marketing Research in Europe
- Communication/Promotion/Advertising Strategies of European Firms
- Other Topics Directly Related to European Marketing

The Journal is published four times a year. Papers are blind reviewed by at least two members of the Editorial Review Board. Book reviews and special case study materials based on product/service, success and/or failure of European companies in global markets and industries shall also appear as regular items in the Journal of Euromarketing.

Prospective authors are requested to attempt to restrict their submissions to approximately twenty-five double spaced pages including figures, tables, and references. Authors should submit their manuscripts electronically along with a short abstract and a one-page executive summary (this is in addition to an abstract which emphasizes on the managerial and/or public policy implications of the article) to either Editor-in-Chief Erdener Kaynak at ek9@comcast.net or Associate Editor Dr. Abu N. M. Waheeduzzaman at waheed@tamucc.edu. The IMDA Press style guidelines should be used in preparing manuscripts. If in doubt, prospective authors should either refer to the inside back cover of any IMDA Press journals or use The APA Style Guidelines. For more information and subscription to the journal visit http://journals.sfu.ca/je/index.php/euromarketing For "Instructions for Authors" and for additional information, please contact the Editor-in-Chief.

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