

I beg your pardon?

The effectiveness of deterrence tactics to reduce illegitimate complaining

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Preface

In front of you lies my thesis about the effectiveness of deterrence tactics to reduce illegitimate complaining behavior. From September 2021 until June 2022 I have put time and effort into conducting the research and writing this thesis. Some parts of this thesis are conducted in collaboration with fellow master students. The research question was developed in consultation with my supervisor Dr. H. Joosten. I would like to thank him for his expertise, helpful insights, and his enthusiasm during the whole process. Furthermore, I would like to thank Dr. C. Horváth for her time and effort as the second examiner. Lastly, I would like to thank all respondents for their help to gather the data we needed. It has been a very informative experience and I am proud of the end result.

I hope you enjoy reading.

Abstract

Customers are increasingly deliberately fabricating problems, which are defined as ‘illegitimate customer complaints’ (Ro & Wong, 2012). These illegitimate complaints cause harm to firms, because the customers take advantage of firms’ service recovery policies (Baker et al., 2012). To justify this illegitimate behavior the customers use neutralization techniques, which are defined as justifications and excuses for deviant behavior (Kaptein & Helvoort, 2018). Given the increasing amount of illegitimate complaints, it is of importance to investigate how to deter this behavior. Hence, important practical insights can be gathered by investigating how to deter this illegitimate complaining behavior. Research into this subject is difficult because it is a sensitive subject and illegitimate complaining is illegal. Customers are reluctant to admit that they are engaging in such unethical and illegal behavior (Joosten, 2021). Nevertheless, four different types of illegitimate complainants were identified in previous research. Additionally, Dootson et al. (2018) have created a conceptual framework to better understand how deviant consumer behavior can be deterred. The purpose of this study was to contribute to earlier research and find ways in which the illegitimate complaining of the third type, the greedy customer type, can be deterred, using the deterrence theory of Dootson et al. (2018). Therefore, the following research question will be addressed: “*How can organizations deter the illegitimate complaining of the greedy customer types, as described in the typology of Joosten (2021)?*”. To answer the research question an online scenario-based, between-subjects experiment is executed. Findings show that the main proposition of Dootson et al. (2018) could not be accepted. No empirical evidence has been found in confirming that a match between the neutralization technique and the deterrence tactic would have most effect in increasing the cognitive dissonance and in decreasing the intention to complain. However, all five different deterrence tactics are effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance and decreasing the intention to complain. Furthermore, Joosten’s (2021) proposition that greedy customers use the neutralization techniques ‘claim of normalcy’ and ‘claim of entitlement’ the most, could be confirmed.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

Within the offering of products and services, something could always go wrong. Mistakes or inconveniences are unavoidable and even the best service providers produce errors (Hess et al., 2003). Something could be delayed, broken, or just not satisfactory which causes customers to be unsatisfied. The customers will inform the company about their dissatisfaction and the firm will get the service recovery involved to make sure the customers are being helped properly. Naturally, firms want to keep their customers satisfied and mostly perform under the motto: “the customer is always right”. Unfortunately, the complaints are not all just and honest. There is a growing amount of illegitimate complaints which are exaggerated or made up (Khantimirov & Karande, 2018). Some complaints do not stem solely from unpleasant experiences but are forged by satisfied customers for a variety of reasons, such as financial gains, venting emotions, or achieving intrapsychic goals. The behavior of lodging illegitimate complaints about services or products is referred to as illegitimate complaining (Huang & Miao, 2013). These illegitimate complaints do damage to the firms. Harris & Reynolds (2003) mention that there are indirect financial costs and direct financial costs for the firms because of this dysfunctional behavior of the customers. Indirect financial costs are for example the fact that it creates increased workloads for the employees who are required to deal with the illegitimate behavior, thus reducing employee time to serve the legitimate customers effectively. Also, there are negative financial implications for the firm in terms of staff retention, recruitment, induction, and training. Direct costs include for example the expense of restoring damaged property or legal costs of lawsuits (Harris & Reynolds, 2003). Additionally, sometimes it cost the firms a loss of image (Sansalvader & Brotons, 2018), which they would rather like to prevent. While the benefit of proactively controlling and handling complaints is undeniable, such approaches may well have the unintended consequence of encouraging illegitimate as well as legitimate complaints (Reynolds & Harris, 2005).

The digital revolution has provided people to speak more loudly and to a greater audience about complaints, including illegitimate complaints. A large number of websites exist which give paths to complain to firms in order to gain compensation, often through opportunistic complaints (Baker et al., 2012). Customers are increasingly using the internet as a channel to file complaints against firms in different forms (Reynolds & Harris, 2005).

Unfortunately, research into this subject is difficult because it is a sensitive subject and illegitimate complaining is illegal. Customers are reluctant to admit that they are engaging in such unethical and illegal behavior (Joosten, 2021). Nevertheless, the marketing department of Radboud University has conducted research into the subject. In a first qualitative study, possible

drivers of illegitimate complaining were found. In a second, more quantitative study, some of those drivers were confirmed. In a third study, different types of illegitimate complainants were distinguished and the connection was made between illegitimate complaining and neutralization techniques and relationship variables. Lastly, in the fourth large-scale (confirmatory) study, four different types of complainants were identified. Each of the types has different motives to complain, different rationalizations to justify their behavior, and different effects on the relationship with the company. The third type, the greedy customer type, is most damaging to the firm. He exaggerates highly, makes up complaints, and blames the firm more than the other types.

To justify their behavior, the four types each use different neutralization techniques. Neutralization techniques are defined as justifications and excuses for deviant behavior (Kaptein & Helvoort, 2018). Neutralization techniques were first introduced by Sykes and Matza (1957) in their examination of juvenile delinquency. They identified five techniques of neutralization, each with a different underlying motive that can insulate feelings of blame for the non-conforming behavior: ‘denial of responsibility’, ‘appeal to higher loyalties’, ‘condemning the condemners’, ‘denial of injury’, and ‘denial of victim’ (Gruber & Schlegelmilch, 2014). Later on, further sets of neutralization techniques were developed. The greedy customer, type 3 of Joosten’s (2021) research, mostly uses the neutralization techniques ‘claim of normalcy’ (i.e. ‘normal practice’) saying: “*Everybody else is doing it*”, and ‘claim of entitlement’ saying: “*I should get what I want, when I want it*”.

Dootson et al. (2018) have created the ‘deterrence-neutralization-behavior’ (DNB) framework, which is a conceptual framework to better understand how deviant consumer behavior can be deterred. The DNB framework illustrates the positive relationship between neutralization techniques and engagement in illegitimate behavior, as the neutralization techniques reduce the level of cognitive dissonance, which will then lead to an increase in the intention to complain illegitimately. Additionally, the framework proposes the new moderating role of deterrence tactics, which can be used to deter the neutralizations the illegitimate complainers use. Deterrence tactics are mechanisms that will reintroduce cognitive dissonance (that has previously been reduced through neutralization techniques) by presenting the consumer information that challenges their attitudes, beliefs, or behavior (Dootson et al., 2018). Cognitive dissonance is the term used to describe the feeling of discomfort that results from holding two conflicting beliefs (Sharma, 2014). The cognitive dissonance theory proposes that when people experience psychological discomfort (dissonance), they try to reduce it (Metin & Camgoz, 2011). Consequently, reducing dissonance involves using a neutralization technique

to justify their behavior. In conclusion: Joosten's research (2021) has discovered four different types of complainers, and discovered which neutralizations the types of complainers use. Dootson et al. (2018) have developed deterrence tactics that should be effective in reducing the effect of the neutralization technique on cognitive dissonance when the tactic is correctly matched to the right neutralization technique, these tactics have not been empirically studied yet.

1.1 Research aim

The purpose of the present study is to contribute to earlier research and find ways in which the illegitimate complaining of the greedy customer type can be deterred, using the deterrence theory of Dootson et al. (2018). Therefore, the following research question will be addressed: *“How can organizations deter the illegitimate complaining of the greedy customer types, as described in the typology of Joosten (2021)?”*

1.2 Theoretical relevance

Currently, there is limited research about how the different forms of illegitimate complaints could be prevented or deterred. Mainly, there are no theories yet about how to prevent illegitimate complaining. Illegitimate complaining is a sensitive subject and is therefore hard to measure (Joosten, 2021). As mentioned before, previous research has studied the different types of illegitimate complainers. Given the increasing amount of illegitimate complaints, it is of importance to investigate how to deter this behavior. As already mentioned, the deterrence tactics of Dootson et al. (2018) have not yet been empirically studied. This research will contribute to knowledge about how to effectively decrease illegitimate complaining behavior by investigating the effectiveness of Dootson et al.'s (2018) deterrence tactics on the illegitimate complaining behavior of greedy customers. Therefore, this research extends the study of Joosten (2021) and fills the current gap in the literature.

1.3 Practical relevance

The increasing amount of illegitimate complaints is indirectly and directly influencing the firms financially (Harris & Reynolds, 2003). The negative consumer behavior results in either material loss or psychological damage, or both, to marketers, to marketing institutions, and to other consumers (Fullerton & Punj, 2004). The firms are not able to learn from the complaints, because the complaints are not legitimate. In conclusion, there are only disadvantages to the firms. Therefore, it is of importance that there will be new insights into how firms could deter this illegitimate behavior. The findings of this current study could contribute to a better understanding of how firms can deter illegitimate behavior, which helps managers in optimizing

their service recovery process. This way, firms can spend their resources (e.g. time, money, etc.) on the legitimate complainers. If the research finds that some tactics work effectively when matched to a specific neutralization technique, then companies could use these findings in practice and benefit from them.

1.4 Thesis outline

This thesis is structured as follows: the second chapter provides a theoretical background with regards to illegitimate complaints, cognitive dissonance, neutralization techniques the types of illegitimate complaining, and deterrence tactics. In chapter three there will be an elaboration on the methodology. The fourth chapter presents the analysis and the results, which is followed by chapter five containing the conclusion and discussion.

Chapter 2 Theoretical background

In this chapter, first, the concept of illegitimate complaints is explained. This is followed by an explanation of cognitive dissonance and an explanation of the neutralization techniques. Then there will be an elaboration of the four typologies of illegitimate complainers described by Joosten (2021). Thereafter, there will be a review of the deterrence tactics of Dootson et al. (2018), which eventually lead to the hypotheses of this thesis.

2.1 Illegitimate complaints

According to Ro & Wong (2012), most of the customer complaints are assumed to be legitimate in nature, and it is also assumed that dissatisfaction is one of the main causes of customer complaints. However, different studies have acknowledged the existence of complaints from customers who are deliberately fabricating problems, which is defined as ‘illegitimate customer complaints’ (Ro & Wong, 2012). This is comparable with Reynolds and Harris (2005) who mention that illegitimate complaining includes customers knowingly, and incorrectly reporting service failures. In Harris and Reynolds’ research (2005), respondents had to acknowledge moments wherein they had fabricated incidences of service or product failure. Such illegitimate complaints appeared to be rather common because the large majority of the respondents were able to recall at least two incidences in which they personally had made an illegitimate complaint within the last six months. This indicates that dysfunctional or deviant behaviors, including illegitimate complaining, are commonplace in today's society. Many customers take advantage of firms’ service recovery policies by making illegitimate claims to get a compensation (Baker et al., 2012), which is unethical behavior (Arora & Chakraborty, 2019).

Baker et al. (2012) define opportunistic behavior as: “individuals who voice fictitious complaints to service providers with the goal of receiving compensation for their make-believe service failures”, which is underlying the illegitimate behavior. According to the authors, there are different potential drivers of opportunistic behavior. There are customer-centric drivers, which include for example the extent to which a customer shows financial greed. There are firm-centric drivers, which include the firm’s processes and the firm size. Lastly, there are relationship-centric drivers, which include the customer's perceptions regarding the relationship, and one-time transactions. According to Joosten (2021), there are three dimensions of illegitimate complaining. Illegitimate complaints are complaints that are made up, exaggerated, or in which the firm or service provider is wrongly blamed. Hence, the goal of these complaints is to receive some form of compensation, which leads to the abuse of the firm’s recovery policies (Baker et al., 2012).

2.2 Cognitive dissonance

When people behave immorally, they feel bad. This could be because of the cognitive dissonance (Arora & Chakraborty, 2019). This term is used to describe the feeling of discomfort that results from holding two conflicting beliefs (Sharma, 2014). The cognitive dissonance theory proposes that when people experience psychological discomfort (dissonance), they strive to reduce it (Metin & Camgoz, 2011). The occurrence of dissonance is presumed to be unpleasant, and individuals strive to reduce it by either changing their behavior towards more legal practices or by adapting their attitudes towards the illegal activity (Aronson, 1969). Festinger (1957) has created the theory of cognitive dissonance. According to the author, individuals strive toward consistency within themselves. An example is that a person believes college education is a good thing and therefore encourages his children to go to college. What captures the attention are the exceptions to otherwise consistent behavior, for example, a person may know that smoking is bad for him, however, yet he continues to smoke. These exceptions are only rarely accepted as 'inconsistencies' by the person involved, and that is why they try to rationalize them. This theory involves three components: (1) an inconsistency exists and (2) generates an aversive arousal, that will then (3) motivate inconsistency-reduction strategies (Stephens, 2017). Additionally, Dootson et al. (2018) mention that according to the self-consistency model of cognitive dissonance theory, acting in a way that violates one's cognitions will likely cause cognitive dissonance (a psychological discomfort). For an individual to perform behaviors outside their deviance threshold, the associated discomfort needs to be reduced or removed. So: removing or reducing dissonance, 'rationalizing the inconsistencies', involves using a neutralization technique to justify their behavior (Stephens, 2017; Dootson et al. 2018).

2.3 Neutralization techniques

As mentioned above, in an attempt to justify this deviant behavior complainers often apply neutralizations (Vitell & Grove, 1987). Neutralization techniques are mechanisms for resolving the conflict of the individuals' intention to perform deviant consumer behavior (DCB) for benefit and not having to negatively update self-concept (an individual's perception of oneself) (Dootson et al., 2018). These neutralization techniques can help explain unethical behavior (Vitell & Grove, 1987). Neutralizations are considered an important, or even most important, explanation of deviant behavior (Kaptein & Helvoort, 2019). Sykes and Matza (1957) first introduced the more specific concept of neutralization techniques, to explain juvenile delinquency. The authors proposed five major types of neutralization techniques: 'denial of responsibility' ("*I didn't mean to do it*"), 'denial of injury' ("*No one is getting hurt*"), 'denial of the victim' ("*They deserved it*"), 'condemnation of the condemners' ("*They are just as bad*"), and 'the appeal to higher loyalties' ("*I did it to feed my family*") (Ball, 1966; Kaptein & Helvoort, 2019). Later on, investigations have expanded on the techniques and proposed additional techniques such as the 'defense of necessity' ("*I had no other choice but to do it*"), 'claim of entitlement' ("*I should get what I want, when I want it*"), 'normal practice (i.e. claim of normalcy)' ("*Everybody else is doing it*"), 'claim of relative acceptability' ("*There are much worse individuals than me*") (Dootson et al, 2018; Coleman 1994), 'postponement' ("*At the time I did not think about the consequences of my behavior, that only occurred later*"), and 'denial of the probability of punishment' ("*I won't get caught*") (Dootson et al. 2018). This set of cognitive response modes can provide valuable insights whenever individuals encounter inconsistencies between their beliefs and their actual behavior. Accordingly, neutralization techniques are suitable to explore why consumers refrain from socially desirable consumption behavior (Gruber & Schlegelmilch, 2014).

2.4 Types of illegitimate complaining

Joosten's (2021) study on illegitimate complaining describes four types of complainers which are based on two underlying factors (figure 1). The different types of illegitimate complainers can be distinguished on *attribution* and *intention*. With *attribution* meaning 'Who was to blame?' and 'Was the problem that led to illegitimate complaining created by the firm or the customer?' and *intention* meaning: 'Was it done on purpose to take advantage of the other party?' and 'Was the problem created on purpose or not?'. According to Hollyforde & Whiddett (2002, p.33), attribution theory is: "an explanation of the beliefs people have about why they behave in the way they do". According to the attribution theory, both attribution and intention affect someone's motivation and response.

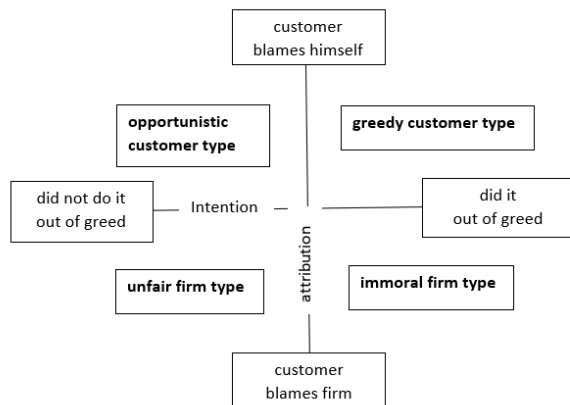


Figure 1. Typology of illegitimate complainers (based on intention and attribution) (Joosten, 2021)

Type 1: The immoral firm type: this type of complainer feels that the firm has deliberately cheated on him to make a profit. For this type, illegitimate complaining is his last cry for help. The complainer only slightly exaggerates, makes up complaints, and blames the firm. However, he does not feel very good about his own illegitimate complaining and therefore uses several neutralizations to justify his behavior. The neutralizations he uses are: ‘denial of responsibility’, ‘denial of victim’, ‘condemnation of condemner’, ‘appeal to higher loyalties’, and ‘defense of necessity’. This type refers to and blames the firm to justify his illegitimate behavior, not to other people. This is because he feels the firm has deliberately cheated on him to make a profit.

Type 2: The failing firm type: this type of complainer feels the firm has treated him unfairly. This might not be on purpose but for example due to lack of ability. This type exaggerates, makes up complaints, and blames the firm the least of all types. Additionally, they also feel less need to justify their behavior and therefore use only little neutralization techniques. Their highest scoring technique is “*the firm would not really suffer from my complaint*”.

Type 3: The greedy customer type: this type creates a problem himself to be able to complain illegitimately and take advantage of the firm. He exaggerates highly, makes up complaints, and blames the firm more than the other types. This type is the most harmful to firms. This type of complainer justifies their behavior by ‘claim of normalcy’ (i.e. normal practice) and ‘claim of entitlement’. Typically, this type refers to others to justify his behavior, not to the firm. He is not saying: “*I did this because the firm misbehaved*”, but “*I did this because others do it as well*”, or “*I did this because I also deserve a break (like others have had*

a break)". According to Joosten (2021), the greedy customers score lowest on 'denial of victim' and 'denial of injury'.

Type 4: The opportunistic illegitimate complainer: this last type of illegitimate complainer opportunistically takes advantage of the firm because it has a liberal redress policy. This type of complainant exaggerates and makes up complaints not as much as the greedy customer, but more so than the immoral firm type and the failing firm type. This type uses neutralizations like 'justification by postponement' and 'claim of relative acceptability'. This type scores lowest on 'condemnation of condemners'.

According to Joosten (2021), almost half of the illegitimate complainants admit that they were deceitful (the greedy customer type) without having experienced service failure or dissatisfaction. Meaning that even though the company does nothing wrong, they still complain and therefore are harmful to the company. This research is therefore focused on the greedy customer type (type 3). As mentioned above, the greedy customers mostly use neutralizations 'claim of normalcy' and 'claim of entitlement', and they use neutralizations 'denial of injury' and 'denial of the victim' the least. To confirm this, the following is hypothesized:

H1: The greedy customer type uses the neutralizations 'claim of normalcy' and 'claim of entitlement' more than 'denial of injury' and 'denial of victim'

2.5 Deterrence tactics

Since illegitimate customer complaining violates social norms and rules, it can be considered deviant behavior (Joosten, 2021). According to Dootson et al. (2018), deviant consumer behavior (DCB) is any behavior that violates consumer laws, policies, or accepted norms of conduct. It can be directed toward employees, merchandise, financial assets, physical or electronic premises, or other consumers. Dootson et al. (2018) mention that the deterrence theory proposes two ways to control behavior. First, the punishment of offenders aims to deter others from offending based on fear of punishment and follows the social learning theory principles. It suggests that when individuals see others being caught and punished for an action, they will avoid the same action to avoid punishment. Second, deterrence theory focuses on preventing reoffending. Punished and convicted offenders will refrain from reoffending as a result of their punishment. The authors offer the 'deterrence-neutralization-behavior' (DNB) framework, which is a conceptual framework to better understand how deviant consumer behavior can be deterred. It is grounded in self-concept maintenance theory and cognitive dissonance theory. Self-concept maintenance theory suggests that individuals will only be able

to engage in DCB which allows their positive self-concept to be maintained. Individuals may be able to lie or cheat while maintaining a positive self-perception, whereas a higher degree of DCB, such as fraud, may negatively update their self-concept to reflect their bad behavior. Acting in a way that violates one's cognitions will likely cause cognitive dissonance, which is a psychological discomfort that needs to be reduced. Reducing dissonance involves using a neutralization technique. The neutralization techniques enable DCB by distorting the link between the individual's actions and their consequences. This could cause an individual to engage in behaviors they originally considered unacceptable, without them experiencing much cognitive dissonance. The DNB framework illustrates the positive relationship between neutralization techniques and engagement in illegitimate behavior, as the techniques reduce the level of cognitive dissonance which will then lead to an increase in the intention to complain illegitimately. Additionally, the framework proposes the new moderating role of deterrence tactics. Deterrence tactics are mechanisms that will reintroduce cognitive dissonance (which has previously been reduced through neutralization techniques) by presenting the consumer information that challenges their attitudes, beliefs, or behavior. The authors propose seven deterrence tactics to deter six neutralization techniques. In other words: they weaken the effect of the neutralizations.

The first two of Dootson et al.'s (2018) deterrence tactics are 'communicating objective risk of formal sanctions', and 'communicating the risk of social sanctions'. These two tactics would be most effective to weaken the impact of the neutralization 'denial of punishment'. This can be achieved by communicating the objective risk of incurring formal sanctions from an authority, for example, the organization, or communicating the objective risk of incurring social sanctions from other consumers. Now, they are not able to claim, "*I won't get caught*", because the consumer is now presented with objective risk measures. So, in short: if the organization communicates the objective risk of incurring formal and social sanctions, it will challenge the denial of punishment probability neutralization technique by reintroducing cognitive dissonance, which will then lower the intention to perform deviant behavior such as complaining illegitimately.

The third deterrence tactic is 'humanize the organisation', which matches the neutralization 'denial of victim'. Here the aim is to trigger the empathic response some consumers have to a visible human victim by humanization. When an organisation is perceived to be more human, the perceived social distance between the organisation and the consumer will be smaller. Therefore, increasing the salience of the identifiable victim, and decreasing the social distance will challenge the denial of victim neutralization technique because the

humanization strategy reintroduces dissonance.

The fourth deterrence tactic is 'educate the consumers'. This tactic is meant to weaken the 'denial of injury' neutralization technique, by increasing the awareness of the outcomes of deviant consumer behavior. Individuals who are more likely to engage in deviant consumer behavior are more focused on the benefit they gain from the behavior than on acknowledging its negative outcomes. Therefore, educating the consumers about the harm caused to the victim would change consumers' perceptions. Organisations can do this for example by using personal stories that create empathy with the victim.

Then the fifth deterrence tactic of Dootson et al. (2018) is 'social proofs', which is aimed at challenging the 'claim of normalcy' neutralization technique. When people learn that most others are engaging in an activity, they are more likely to engage in it as well (Goldstein, Cialdini, Griskevicius, 2008). Successful social proofs are positively worded and highlight the prevalence of desirable behavior. The more specific the message is, and the more closely related it is to the individual's situation, the more effective it will be in altering that individual's behavior. According to Dootson et al. (2018), consumers need to be made aware that people similar to them responded with a particular behavior. If consumers see that everybody else is engaging in legitimate consumer behavior, they will be less likely to use the neutralization of 'normal practice' and also engage in this behavior.

The sixth deterrence tactic is 'transparency of the rules'. The authors conclude that to decrease the positive relationship between the 'claim of entitlement' and engaging in illegitimate consumer behavior, the tactic 'transparency, rules and law' will be most effective. Meaning that organizations have to be transparent about their rules to make sure that the consumers understand them correctly. They need to be specific and clear about why the rules are in place. Being transparent about why a rule is in place will help consumers understand the rule, and raise their likelihood of compliance. People are more compliant when they comprehend the reasons for engaging in a specific action (Dootson et al., 2018). According to Glik (2007), the communication process must contain elements of trust, credibility, honesty, transparency, and accountability for the sources of information.

The last deterrence tactic introduced by Dootson et al. (2018), is 'moral triggers'. This tactic differs from the others. While the other deterrence tactics seek to challenge one specific neutralization technique, this tactic challenges any neutralization technique. Moral triggers will increase the salience of moral values such as honesty to trigger self-sanctions, for example guilt or shame, to make people deter themselves from engaging in certain behavior.

For every neutralization technique, Dootson et al. (2018) propose a matching deterrence tactic, which will weaken the positive effect of the neutralization technique on the intention to perform deviant behavior if the tactic is used. The deterrence tactic will essentially convince someone that the neutralization is not true. The groups who receive a deterrence tactic that matches the neutralization they use should experience the greatest increase in cognitive dissonance, and should also experience a decrease in their intention to complain illegitimately. Therefore the following is hypothesized:

H2: If the deterrence tactic matches with the neutralization technique used by the greedy customer, then the score on cognitive dissonance is higher than when the deterrence tactic does not match the neutralization technique used

H3: If the deterrence tactic matches with the neutralization technique used by the greedy customer, then the score on intention to complain illegitimately is lower than when the deterrence tactic does not match the neutralization technique used

Additionally, as already mentioned, 'moral triggers' match with all neutralization techniques. This deterrence tactic should be effective in increasing cognitive dissonance and in decreasing the intention to complain illegitimately, regardless of which neutralization technique it is matched. Therefore the following is hypothesized:

H4: Deterrence tactic 5 (moral triggers) does not have to match with a specific neutralization to be effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance of greedy customers

H5: Deterrence tactic 5 (moral triggers) does not have to match with a specific neutralization to be effective in decreasing the intention to complain illegitimately of greedy customers

2.6 Conceptual model

The tactics to deter the illegitimate consumer behavior of the greedy customer type can be used to lower the impact of the specific matching neutralization technique that the illegitimate complainers use to resolve their cognitive dissonance. So, the goal of the deterrence tactics is to undermine the effectiveness of the neutralizations in reducing the cognitive dissonance of the customers. The deterrence tactics will affect the relationship between the dependent variables and the independent variable, meaning that it has a moderating effect. An example: the greedy customer type uses the neutralization technique ‘1. Claim of normalcy’ to lower their cognitive dissonance, which makes their intention to complain illegitimately higher. When the deterrence tactic, which matches the neutralization technique, is introduced (in this example tactic ‘1. Positive social proofs’) it will challenge the neutralization technique. The expectation is that, when introduced to the right deterrence tactic, the score on cognitive dissonance (psychological discomfort) will be higher, and the intention to complain illegitimately will be lower. There is one exception, that is tactic ‘5. Moral triggers’. This tactic does not have to be matched to a specific neutralization technique but instead will be effective for all of the neutralization techniques.

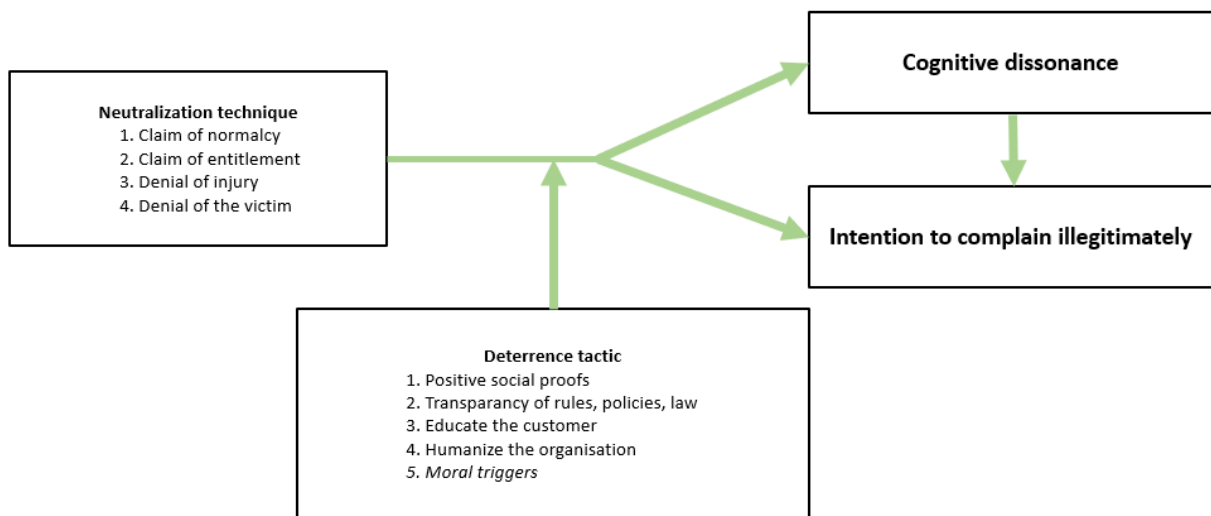


Figure 2. Conceptual model

Chapter 3 Method

This chapter explains the methodology used to test the hypotheses mentioned in chapter 2. First, the research design will be elaborated, followed by the information about the sample and procedure. Then the measures, manipulations, pre-test & manipulation checks, and research analysis are discussed, followed by the research ethics of this thesis.

3.1 Research design

This thesis aims to assess whether certain tactics are effective in trying to decrease the positive relationship between the neutralizations that the greedy customers use, and their cognitive dissonance and intention to complain illegitimately. This research tests if participants really change their complaining behavior when specific deterrence tactics are used. To test the hypotheses, a scenario-based experiment is conducted. Scenario-based experiments are especially an important method in the field of service failures and service recoveries (Kim & Jang, 2014). A questionnaire was created with a narrative scenario, in which two independent variables were manipulated on multiple levels. The behavior of those in one experimental condition were compared with the behavior of those in another, therefore, it is a between-subjects design (Charness, Gneezy & Kuhn, 2011). The independent variable 'Neutralization technique' contains four levels. The independent variable 'Deterrence tactic' contains five levels. The participants were first brought into a certain scenario by reading a narrative, which enabled them to put their selves in the given situation. The participants had to answer questions about how they would behave if they really were in that situation themselves, to assess if their behavior would change after being introduced to the tactic.

3.2 Scenario

In the scenario, the participants are asked to imagine themselves as being the personage in the scenario. The personage is planning to rent a car and travel through Spain for the holidays. Some friends tell the personage that they once filed a complaint after a similar holiday, and they received a refund of the costs. While searching for information on the website of that specific renting company, it indeed seems that they have a liberal redress policy. Now that the personage knows about this, he/she is planning to go rent a car from the same company, intending to make up an exaggerated complaint to get a refund. The scenario ends with the personage being in Spain and planning to go file the complaint and asking for the refund tomorrow when returning the car.

3.3 Sample

The participants were asked to imagine they find their selves in the specific scenario. The experiment was focused on Dutch customers from 16 years old. Anyone who ever buys something belonged to the target group and could participate in the experiment. Convenience sampling was used to gather the data. A convenience sample is also called a non-probability sample and is a sample drawn without any underlying probability-based selection method (Price, 2013). With convenience sampling participants are selected based on their ease of availability and their willingness to participate in the experiment, which means that the probability of gathering useful data increases. The survey was mostly distributed through online channels like Whatsapp, Facebook, LinkedIn, and some were distributed via Instagram and e-mail. The participants were asked to voluntarily participate in the experiment. To avoid bias due to foreknowledge, no reference was made to neutralizations, illegitimate complaining, or deterrence tactics. The goal was to have a minimum of 50 participants per group. To improve statistical power, larger sample sizes are recommended (Hair et al., 2019). The experiment has been randomized, each participant was randomly assigned to groups.

3.4 Procedure

The experiment consisted of different parts:

Introduction: First there was an introduction, which included a short description of the researcher, the research that was conducted, the experiment itself and it addressed the research ethics. The participants then had to consent to the use of the answers for research purposes.

Scenario: Subsequently, the participants were introduced to the scenario where they had to imagine their selves in a situation where they will complain illegitimately as a greedy customer.

Cognitive dissonance (CDI): The cognitive dissonance as a result of the scenario was measured (see paragraph 3.5 for measurement). The scenario should have manipulated the participants into experiencing cognitive dissonance.

Intention to complain illegitimately (ITCI): It was measured to what extent they (as a greedy customer) would go through with filing the claim.

Neutralization techniques: It was measured which neutralization the participants will most likely use. In this variable, the participants had to choose in which order they would place the (four) neutralization techniques when being in the situation of the scenario (1 = most applicable, and 4 = least applicable).

Deterrence tactic: At this point, the participants were randomly introduced to a deterrence tactic (either to the control group, social proofs, transparency of rules, humanize the

organization, educate the customers, or moral triggers).

Cognitive dissonance (CD2): The cognitive dissonance was again measured after the introduction of the deterrence tactic.

Intention to complain illegitimately (ITC2): It was measured again to what extent they, after the deterrence tactic, would still go through with filing the claim.

Manipulation check greedy customer: here three items should confirm that the participant is actually aware of being a greedy customer.

Manipulation check deterrence tactic: the participants received a multiple choice question with only one right answer to verify whether they have read and were able to recall the message they received.

Realism check: the participants had to judge whether they ought the scenario to be realistic.

After the manipulation and realism checks, the participants were asked to fill in a few general questions to receive information about the participants. They were asked about their gender, age, and the highest level of education. Because the participants were randomly assigned to groups, the questionnaire was not completely the same for all participants.

3.5 Measurements

In this paragraph, the measurement scales used in the questionnaire are mentioned.

Cognitive dissonance: this construct contained three dimensions and six items, obtained from Elliot and Devine (1994): three items are part of the dimension ‘discomfort’, one item is part of the dimension ‘negative-self’ and the last two items are part of the dimension ‘embarrassed’. The items are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from totally disagree – totally agree. The construct has been measured twice. The first time it measured the cognitive dissonance after the scenario, to measure if the participants were manipulated into greedy customers. The second time the cognitive dissonance was measured after the participants were introduced to the deterrence tactic. However, now the scale is adjusted to a 5-point Likert scale ranging from much less – much more, to be able to indicate differences after the deterrence tactic.

Intention to complain (ITCI): this construct is obtained from Joosten (2021) and contained four items, of which one has been measured separately. The first three items have been measured again on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from totally agree – totally disagree. The fourth item of the intention to complain construct is measured by an indication of the discount percentage the participants would ask from the company. Similar to cognitive dissonance, this construct was measured twice too. The first time it measured the intention to complain after the scenario, to measure if participants would indeed file a complaint. The second measure was included to be able to see differences in the behavior after the participants were introduced to the deterrence tactic. During the second measurement the first three items have been measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from much less – much more. The fourth item is again the discount percentage.

3.5.1 Measurement of manipulations

The experiment contained three different manipulations:

Manipulation check cognitive dissonance: The first manipulation was that the participants should experience cognitive dissonance, which is explained above. The extent to which the participants experience cognitive dissonance was measured at the beginning of the survey, right after the scenario.

Manipulation check greedy customer: Already at the beginning of the survey, in the scenario, the participants were asked to try imagine themselves as someone who is going to complain illegitimately, premeditated. These are characteristics of a greedy customer. The participants were probably not aware of the characteristics, because most of them were not familiar with the characteristics of the greedy customer. To measure if the participants were manipulated into greedy customers, the own-invented items ‘exaggerated’, ‘made-up’, and ‘pre-planned’ were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from not at all – completely.

Manipulation check deterrence tactic: the participants were randomly assigned to one of the deterrence tactics. To verify whether the participants have read and were able to recall the message, an own-invented multiple choice question with only one right answer was included.

3.5.2 Measurement of realism

Realism check: To assess whether the participants found the scenario realistic, a realism construct was included in the questionnaire. This construct contained three items, which have been adapted from Maxham, 2001; Goodwin and Ross, 1992 & Ok, 2004.

3.6 Pre-test & manipulation checks

To make sure a stable, valid measurement instrument has been developed, the written scenarios and the survey were checked at forehand. Additionally, to make sure that the manipulations in the survey work, a pre-test on a smaller sample was conducted. Over thirty participants have evaluated the experiment. They were asked to test the questionnaire in Qualtrics and report any unclarities or questions. Consequently, there have been adjustments in the cognitive dissonance questions. The participants had to answer questions about their cognitive dissonance in the situation of the scenario. During the pre-test, it became clear that the participants were already experiencing maximum cognitive dissonance, while it was expected to see an increase in their cognitive dissonance after they were introduced to the deterrence tactic. However, when they were already feeling maximum cognitive dissonance, it could not increase anymore. That is why the scale of the second cognitive dissonance measurement has changed to ‘much less – much more’.

Because it was a scenario-based experiment, it had to be checked whether the participants really grasp the scenario. It could be that the scenario would not be realistic for the participants, so it was tested if that would be the case or not. It seemed that the participants did grasp the scenario and found it to be realistic. Additionally, it was checked if the participants really have noticed which deterrence tactic they were introduced to. It was checked if they answered the question about which message they received correctly, which they did. The final questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

3.7 Research analysis

To analyse the collected data, IBM SPSS Statistics was used. First, the data was prepared and cleaned in order to continue testing the hypotheses. Manipulation checks have been conducted and the validity and reliability were checked as well. Additionally, the descriptives and frequencies were constructed to analyse the data generally, describe the sample, and to check whether the data is normally distributed. After assessing the assumptions for ANOVA, multiple separate ANOVA's were used to analyse the data. According to Hair et al. (2019), ANOVA (and MANOVA) are most widely associated with experiments. The fundamental characteristic across all types of experiments is the treatment → outcome relationship (i.e. cause-and-effect). The focus was on differences between groups, to discover differences in scores, and to discover changes between behavior before introduced to a tactic and after being introduced to a tactic.

3.8 Research ethics

This research has been conducted according to an ethically desired code of behaviour. The participants were asked to participate voluntarily and were asked permission for the researcher to use the data for research purposes. They could quit at any time. The personal data was not traceable to the identity of the participants, being completely anonymous. The participants were informed in the introduction about the aim of the research and their opportunity to quit whenever they want. They also received the researcher's email address to contact the researcher concerning the study. The data was not used for anything other than for this study and the research will thereafter be deleted. Only the researcher had access to the data. After the research, if the participants would like, they could be informed about the results by e-mail. The participants were randomly assigned to groups in the Qualtrics survey tool. They were asked voluntarily to put themselves in a certain scenario. The experiment contained different manipulations, which could cause the participants to experience negative feelings. Therefore, it is a sensitive experiment and if any of the participants felt uncomfortable during the survey, they could contact the researcher or quit the survey at any time.

4 Analysis and results

This chapter presents the analysis and the results. First, there will be a description of the sample and the statistics, followed by the elaboration of the manipulation checks, an assessment of the validity and reliability, and the realism check. Then, the assumptions of ANOVA are checked and the hypotheses are tested. Finally, some additional analyses are performed and discussed.

4.1 Sample and descriptive statistics

In the total sample, there were 489 participants. However, because participants were included who did not finish the survey, it led to the deletion of 154 participants. Additionally, the participants who did not correctly answer the control question were deleted. That led to a deletion of 60 participants. One participant was remaining who answered all questions except the general ones, meaning that even though the participant did not finish the survey, the participant was still useful for the research. After deletion, 275 participants were remaining.

As shown in table 1 there were 275 remaining participants of which 89 were male, 183 were female, and 2 were non-binary. The mean age of the participants is 32 years old. Most of the participants (41,2%) have finished their HBO or WO (38,7%). Two constructs (cognitive dissonance and intention to complain) have been measured twice: prior to the deterrence tactic and after the deterrence tactics. Regarding the first measurement of cognitive dissonance, participants scored high given that the maximum score is 5 ($M = 4.53$, $SD = .627$). The intention to complain construct contained two different measurements. The first measurement contained three statements to which the participants had to assign a score. They scored relatively low, which indicated that the participants did not have the intention to file the complaint ($M = 1.58$, $SD = .805$). In the second part of intention to complain, the participants had to indicate what discount percentage they would ask from the company. The average discount percentage was around 9 % ($M = 9.38$, $SD = 13.393$).

The cognitive dissonance and the intention to complain were measured again (on a different scale ranging from much less – much more) after the participants received the deterrence tactic. The participants scored high on cognitive dissonance again ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 0.807$), meaning that the participants are experiencing even more cognitive dissonance than prior to the deterrence tactic. The first part of the second measurement of intention to complain was low again ($M = 2.10$, $SD = 0.851$), meaning that the participants do not intend to go through with filing the complaint. The second part of the second intention to complain measurement was on the same scale as the first measurement. The average discount percentage after the deterrence tactic is now around 6 % ($M = 6.16$, $SD = 11.133$).

		Frequency	Percentage	Mean	SD
Age				32	13,60
Gender	Man	89	32.5 %		
	Woman	183	66.8 %		
	Non-binary	2	0.7 %		
Highest education	Primary school	1	0.4 %		
	Secondary school	8	2.9 %		
	MBO	46	16.8 %		
	HBO	113	41.2 %		
	WO	106	38.7 %		
Cognitive dissonance 1				4.53	.627
Intention to complain 1				1.58	.805
ITC 1: Discount percentage				9.38 %	13.393
Cognitive dissonance 2				3.81	.807
Intention to complain 2				2.10	.880
ITC 2: Discount percentage				6.16 %	11.133

Table 1. Descriptives statistics

4.2 Manipulation checks

To check whether the manipulations evoked the desired mindset of the participants, three different checks were performed. The first manipulation check is to see whether the participants experience cognitive dissonance, in other words: if the participants were actually manipulated into greedy customers. Looking at table 1 it can be concluded that the score on the cognitive dissonance construct, (4.53) is high (see figure 3 for visualisation). This means it can be assumed that the participants actually experienced discomfort after reading the scenario.

Cognitive dissonance:

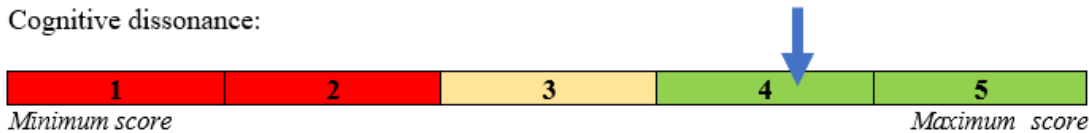


Figure 3. Average score on cognitive dissonance 1

The second manipulation check is if the participants did grasp that they were greedy customers in the scenario. To check if the participants were aware of the personage in the scenario, the participants were asked to what extent their complaint was exaggerated, made up, and planned (table 2). First the reliability of the scale was measured with Cronbach's alpha, indicating a reliable scale (3 items; $\alpha = .787$). The average of the items together is 4.10, meaning that they did grasp that they were greedy customers (see figure 4 for visualisation).

	Mean	SD
Exaggerated	4.26	1.03
Made-up	4.18	1.23
Planned	3.86	1.33
Total	4.10	1.01

Table 2. Mean greedy customer check

Greedy customer:

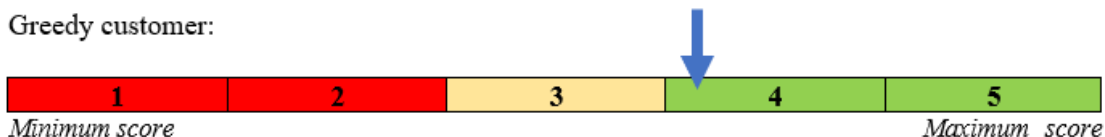


Figure 4. Average score on 'greedy customer'

The third and last manipulation was the message from the company (the deterrence tactic) to which the participants were randomly assigned to. To check if this manipulation actually worked, there was a control question added to the survey about the message from the company. All participants that did not answer this question correctly were deleted (60). Apparently, the experiment did not work on them because they were not able to memorize what message they

received. Meaning that they could not answer the questions in the mindset that we wanted them to answer them, which would have led to invalid results. See Appendix B for SPSS output.

4.3 Realism

To check if the participants thought the experiment to be realistic, three questions were included in the questionnaire about realism:

(Q1) “I think something similar could happen to me” (*very unlikely – very likely*)

(Q2) “The situation in the scenario is...” (*very unrealistic – very realistic*)

and (Q3) “Imagining myself in this situation is...” (*very difficult – very easy*).

First of all, Cronbach’s alpha has been measured for this construct to assess reliability and indicated a reliable scale (3 items; $\alpha = .828$).

The expectation was that there would be a difference between the scores: the second question was expected to score highest (and above 2.5) because it did not reflect on the participant him/herself. It was expected that the participants would still feel the cognitive dissonance, and therefore would answer the questions as if they would never complain illegitimately themselves because they would rather not admit that they do, but are aware that others do. In table 3 the statistics of the three questions and the averages are shown.

Realism	Mean	SD
Q1	1.86	1.089
Q2	2.40	1.246
Q3	2.19	1.157
Total	2.15	1.005

Table 3. Results realism

The results seem to be against the expectations because Q2 is below 2.5. To check if there are indeed still two dimensions within this construct, factor analysis has been performed (Appendix E). The factor analysis concludes that the construct only loads on one factor, which is again against expectations. It has to be concluded that the mean of the realism construct is low. The consequences of this result are to be found in chapter 5.4 (Limitations & Further research).

4.4 Validity and reliability

According to Hair et al. (2019), construct validity is the extent to which the items accurately reflect the constructs they are designed to measure. To assess the validity of the constructs, exploratory factor analysis has been performed. Principal axis factoring is chosen because this is the more confirmatory approach. The items associated with the constructs ‘Cognitive dissonance 1’, ‘Intention to complain 1’, ‘Cognitive dissonance 2’, and ‘Intention to complain 2’ were included in the factor analysis with oblique rotation (see Appendix C) because factors were allowed to correlate. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis as it was above the recommended .50 (Hair et al., 2019) (KMO = .897), and Bartlett’s test of sphericity confirmed it to be significant ($p < .05$) for the analysis to be considered appropriate (Pallant, 2001). All communalities were $> .20$. The factor correlation matrix showed that the oblique rotation method was approved as the correlations between two factors was $> |.30|$. There are no cross-loaders. Results of the initial analysis showed that three factors had eigenvalues > 1 . However, when looking at the reliability of these constructs, the third factor was not reliable (Appendix D). Additionally, deletion of the discount percentage items would lead to more reliable scales. The potentially fourth factor has an Eigenvalue of .925, which is very close to 1, and A priori it was expected that there would be four factors. Therefore, the (standardized) discount percentage items (Discount_percentage1 & Discount_percentage2) were deleted and the settings were changed to ‘Fixed number of factors to extract: 4’, which led to four factors which together explained 85.74% of the variance. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure has improved (KMO = .906) and Bartlett’s Test is still significant ($p < .05$).

KMO and Bartlett’s Test

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.906
Bartlett’s Test (Sig.)	.000

Table 4. KMO & Bartlett’s

Concludingly, the items used to measure each variable are valid. There are no other or new dimensions in the items which determine the constructs. Table 5 shows the final results of these analyses.

Item	Factor loading				Communalities
	1	2	3	4	
CD1: Ongemak		.850			.701
CD1: Bezwaard		.741			.616
CD1: Moeite		.891			.716
CD1: Ergeren		.762			.653
CD1: Schamen		.819			.693
CD1: Generen		.837			.709
ITC1: Zeker			.913		.864
ITC1: Vast			.974		.946
ITC1: Overtuigd			.914		.834
CD2: Ongemak	.923				.897
CD2: Bezwaard	.969				.914
CD2: Moeite	.901				.877
CD2: Ergeren	.903				.823
CD2: Schamen	.929				.856
CD2: Generen	.962				.902
ITC2: Zeker				.922	.912
ITC2: Vast				.979	.952
ITC2: Overtuigd				.982	.950

Table 5. Final results factor analysis (*Factor loadings below .30 were suppressed)

After the extraction of four factors, the reliability was assessed again with Cronbach's alpha. Scores lower than a value of 0.7 or 0.8 indicate an unreliable scale (Field, 2013). Looking at the results in table 6, it can be concluded that all factors are sufficiently high (for Item-Total Statistics see Appendix D). Deletion of items would not lead to a higher Cronbach's Alpha anymore. Therefore, it has been decided to continue the analysis with these constructs.

Construct	N of items	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Cognitive dissonance 1	6	.923
Intention to complain 1	3	.956
Cognitive dissonance 2	6	.977
Intention to complain 2	3	.978

Table 6. Results reliability analysis

4.5 Assumptions ANOVA

Before being able to perform an ANOVA, several assumptions have to be met (Pallant, 2001). The first assumption is that the dependent variable has to be measured at the ratio level of measurement. There are two dependent variables, cognitive dissonance and intention to complain, and both are ratio level measurements.

The next assumption is that the data are drawn from a population with a normal distribution. To check the normal distribution, a Test of Normality has been performed and the skewness, kurtosis, and normality histograms have been assessed. From the Test of Normality it could be concluded that the four groups are not normally distributed. Table 7 shows each of the skewness and kurtosis, which do not fall within the recommended limit values of (skewness/kurtosis divided by their standard errors) $< |2|$ (Hair et al., 2019). The population of the sample is not nicely normally distributed, and the variability of scores for each of the groups is not similar. Fortunately, according to Pallant (2001), with large enough sample sizes (30 per group) the violation of this assumption should not cause any major problems.

	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. Error of Kurtosis
Cognitive dissonance 1	-1.857	.147	5.160	.293
Intention to complain 1	.228	.147	-1.214	.293
Cognitive dissonance 2	1.574	.147	1.998	.293
Intention to complain 2	-.067	.147	-1.407	.293

Table 7. Skewness and kurtosis

The following assumption is that the residual variance is the same in all groups. The Levene test for equality of variances is significant, suggesting that variances for the groups are not equal and therefore the assumption of homogeneity of variances is violated. However, the analysis of variance is reasonably robust when the group sizes are reasonably similar (largest/smallest = < 1.5) (Pallant, 2001), which is the case here. Therefore, violating the assumption did not cause any problems and the analyses could proceed.

The last assumption is that the observations are independent of one another, they are not influenced by any other observation or measurement. This assumption could be considered met, since participants have completed the questionnaire in individual settings, and therefore could not be influenced by other observations or measurements.

4.6 Hypotheses testing

4.6.1 Hypothesis one

H1: *The greedy customer type uses the neutralizations ‘claim of normalcy’ and ‘claim of entitlement’ more than ‘denial of injury’ and ‘denial of victim’*

To either confirm or reject the hypothesis, the mean scores of the neutralization techniques were assessed in SPSS (SPSS output in Appendix F). Participants had to put in the order which neutralization technique they would most likely use (ranging from 1 most likely to 4 least likely). So the lowest mean score is the most used neutralization technique. As shown in table 8, ‘claim of normalcy’ and ‘claim of entitlement’ have scored the lowest, meaning that the participants will mostly use these two. Therefore, the hypothesis is confirmed.

	<i>Claim of normalcy</i>	<i>Claim of entitlement</i>	<i>Denial of injury</i>	<i>Denial of victim</i>
Mean	1.98	2.00	2.58	3.44

Table 8. Mean scores - neutralization techniques

4.6.2 Hypothesis two

H2: *If the deterrence tactic matches with the neutralization technique used by the greedy customer, then the score on cognitive dissonance is higher than when the deterrence tactic does not match the neutralization technique used*

First, ANOVA was used to look at the differences between the effects of the deterrence tactics on the ensuing cognitive dissonance (after the deterrence tactic → CD2). It was expected that the cognitive dissonance score is higher in all experimental groups in comparison with the control group which did not receive any deterrence tactics at all. Looking at the descriptives (table 9), it can be concluded that the minimum mean score of all deterrence tactics is 3.74. The deterrence tactic ‘Humanize the organisation’ shows the highest mean ($M = 4.19$, $SD = .781$) which indicates that this deterrence tactic will cause the highest cognitive dissonance.

	N	Mean	SD
0 Control group	48	3.14	.578
1 Social proofs	54	3.89	.695
2 Transparency	41	3.93	.831
3 Humanize	55	4.19	.781
4 Educate	36	3.97	.783
5 Moral triggers	41	3.74	.762
Total	275	3.81	.807

Table 9. Descriptives ANOVA (DT & CD)

ANOVA shows that there are significant differences ($F(5.269) = 11.726$; $p = .000$). Levene’s test is significant (5.232 ; $p = .000$), meaning that equal variances cannot be assumed. Therefore, Games-Howell should be used to assess the differences between groups. Post Hoc Tests show that only the control group shows significant differences with all deterrence tactics (table 10).

I	J	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
0 Control group	1 Social proofs	-.750	.000
	2 Transparency	-.796	.000
	3 Humanize	-1.059	.000
	4 Educate	-.832	.000
	5 Moral triggers	-.609	.001

Table 10. Control group and deterrence tactics on CD2

The next step is to look at the possible differences between three groups: (1) the group where the neutralization used matches with the deterrence tactic, (2) the group where the neutralization used does not match with the deterrence tactic, and (3) the control group. There is a match between the neutralization technique and the deterrence tactic when the neutralization technique used matches with the deterrence tactic and scored 1 or 2 in the survey, because then they are likely to use the neutralization technique. Additionally, the moral triggers tactic did not have to match with a specific neutralization technique and therefore the participants who received the moral triggers tactic are also included in the 'match group'. ANOVA shows that there are significant differences between the groups ($F(2,272) = 25.600; p = .000$). Levene's test is again significant ($12.737; p = .000$), meaning that equal variances cannot be assumed and again Games-Howell is most suitable to look at.

	N	Mean	SD
0 Control group	48	3.14	.578
1 Match	137	3.89	.738
2 No Match	90	4.06	.824
Total	275	3.81	.807

Table 11. Descriptives ANOVA (Match - NoMatch groups on CD2)

I	J	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
0 Control Group	1 Match	-.753	.000
	2 No match	-.923	.000
1 Match	0 Control Group	.753	.000
	2 No match	-.171	.250
2 No Match	0 Control Group	.923	.000
	1 Match	.171	.250

Table 12. Post Hoc results

Post Hoc Tests (table 12) show that again there is a difference between the control group and the match and no match group. However, there are no significant differences between the match and no match group, which is against the expectations. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

4.6.3 Hypothesis three

H3: *If the deterrence tactic matches with the neutralization technique used by the greedy customer, then the score on intention to complain illegitimately is lower than when the deterrence tactic does not match the neutralization technique used*

To test this hypothesis, the same process as hypothesis two will be followed. ANOVA is used to look at the differences between the effects of the deterrence tactics on the intention to complain (after the deterrence tactic → ITC2). It was expected that the intention to complain score is lower in all experimental groups in comparison with the control group which did not receive any deterrence tactics at all. Looking at the descriptives (table 13), it can be concluded that the mean of the control group is, as expected, higher than in the experimental groups ($M = 2.58$, $SD = .761$). Again, ‘Humanize the organisation’ ($M = 1.72$, $SD = .801$) seems to be most effective in decreasing the intention to complain.

	N	Mean	SD
0 Control group	48	2.58	.761
1 Social proofs	54	2.10	.770
2 Transparency	41	2.05	.912
3 Humanize	55	1.72	.801
4 Educate	36	2.01	.834
5 Moral triggers	41	2.16	.837
Total	275	2.10	.851

Table 13. Descriptives DT on ITC2

ANOVA shows again that there is a significant difference between the groups ($F(5.269) = 5.904$; $p = .000$). Levene’s test is not significant ($.733$; $p = .599$), meaning that equal variances are assumed. Groups are equal, therefore, Tukey should be used to assess the differences between groups. Post Hoc Tests (table 14) show that only the control group shows significant differences with all deterrence tactics, except the moral triggers tactic.

I	J	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
0 Control group	1 Social proofs	.491	.031
	2 Transparency	.535	.027
	3 Humanize	.862	.000
	4 Educate	.574	.019
	5 Moral triggers	.429	.136

Table 14. Control group and deterrence tactics on ITC2

Then again, the groups 'No match', 'Match', and the 'Control group' will be analysed to assess if the score on ITC is lower when matched in comparison with not matched.

	N	Mean	SD
0 Control group	48	2.58	.761
1 Match	137	2.04	.809
2 No Match	90	1.92	.872
Total	275	2.10	.851

Table 15. Descriptives Match – No Match → ITC2

ANOVA shows that there is a significant difference between the groups ($F(2,272) = 10.833; p = .000$). Levene is not significant ($2.132; p = .121$) and groups are equal, meaning that Tukey is most suitable analyse the differences.

I	J	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
0 Control Group	1 Match	.542	.000
	2 No Match	.665	.000
1 Match	0 Control Group	-.542	.000
	2 No Match	.123	.514
2 No Match	0 Control Group	-.665	.000
	1 Match	-.123	.514

Table 16. Post Hoc results

As shown in table 16, there are differences between the control group and the other groups, however, there are no differences between the match and no match group. While there are no significant differences between the match group and the no match group, the hypothesis cannot be accepted.

4.6.4 Hypothesis four

H4: *Deterrence tactic 5 (moral triggers) does not have to match with a specific neutralization to be effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance of greedy customers*

To analyse this hypothesis, it should be assessed if the ‘Moral triggers’ tactic results in a higher score on cognitive dissonance regardless of which neutralization technique the participant uses. To do that, there will first be a comparison of the control group with the ‘Moral triggers’ group with ANOVA. The expectation is that the score on cognitive dissonance of the ‘Moral triggers’ group is significantly higher than the control group, which is indeed the case (see table 17). ANOVA indeed shows that there is a significant difference between the groups ($F(5.269) = 11.726; p = .000$). Levene statistic is significant ($5.232; p = .000$), so Games-Howell Post Hoc Test is most suitable.

I	J	Mean difference (I-J)	Sig.
Moral triggers	0 Control group	.609	.001
	1 Social proofs	-.142	.937
	2 Transparency	-.187	.895
	3 Humanize	-.450	.062
	4 Educate	-.224	.802

Table 17. Mean CD2 of ‘Moral triggers’ in comparison to the other groups

Now that we know that there actually is a difference between the control group and the moral triggers group, further analysis will be performed to see if the ‘Moral triggers’ tactic is more effective with certain neutralization techniques. To do that, the ‘Moral triggers’ group has been divided into groups based on their primary chosen neutralization technique. Again, the groups are compared on their score on cognitive dissonance with ANOVA. The expectation is that there would not be a difference between the groups, because the ‘Moral triggers’ tactic should not have to match with a specific neutralization to be effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance. However, the averages should be above 2.5 because the scale is from decrease to increase. They should still be effective, even though they should not have to be matched to be effective.

In table 18 the means of the cognitive dissonance scores are shown, and it can be concluded that all neutralizations score above 2.5 and are therefore effective. ANOVA is not significant ($F(3,37) = 2.201; p = .104$), which shows indeed that there are no significant differences between the different groups of neutralization techniques. Therefore, the hypothesis can be accepted.

	N	Mean	SD
1 Claim of normalcy	14	3.69	.821
2 Claim of entitlement	13	4.10	.686
3 Denial of victim	5	3.77	.641
4 Denial of injury	9	3.30	.676
Total	41	3.74	.762

Table 18. Mean CD2 per neutralization technique

4.6.5 Hypothesis five

H5: Deterrence tactic 5 (moral triggers) does not have to match with a specific neutralization to be effective in decreasing the intention to complain illegitimately of greedy customers

To analyse this last hypothesis, the process is similar to hypothesis 4, except the cognitive dissonance will be replaced for intention to complain. So again, first, the control group will be compared with the ‘Moral triggers’ group with an ANOVA. Now, the expectation is that the score on intention to complain of the ‘Moral triggers’ group is significantly lower than the control group.

	N	Mean	SD
0 Control group	48	2.58	.761
1 Social proofs	54	2.10	.770
2 Transparency	41	2.05	.912
3 Humanize	55	1.72	.801
4 Educate	36	2.01	.834
5 Moral triggers	41	2.16	.837
Total	275	2.10	.851

Table 19. Descriptives DT on ITC2

Levene Statistic is not significant, and the groups are equal so Tukey Post Hoc Test has been used.

I	J	Mean difference (I-J)	Sig.
Moral triggers	0 Control group	-.429	.136
	1 Social proofs	.062	.999
	2 Transparency	.106	.992
	3 Humanize	.433	.107
	4 Educate	.145	.971

Table 20. Mean ITC2 of ‘Moral triggers’ in comparison to the other groups

ANOVA indicates that there is a significant difference ($F(5.269) = 5.904; p = .000$). When looking at Tukey’s Post Hoc test (table 20), it appears that there is no significant difference between the control group and the moral triggers group. That indicates that the moral triggers tactic is not effective in decreasing the intention to complain, and therefore it is not relevant to zoom into the different neutralizations. The hypothesis is rejected.

4.7 Additional analyses

In addition to the analyses related to the hypotheses, there are other interesting analyses possible (SPSS output to be found in Appendix K). It is interesting to see for example whether there are differences between males and females. Therefore, first, an independent-samples t-test has been conducted to compare the males and females on the first cognitive dissonance measurement (CD1 – prior to deterrence tactic). The difference between males ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .699$) and females ($M = 4.59$, $SD = .582$) was not significant ($t(270) = -1.960$; $p = .051$). Another independent-samples t-test has been conducted to compare males and females on the first measurement of their intention to complain (ITC1 – prior to deterrence tactic). The difference between males ($M = 1.54$, $SD = .794$) and females ($M = 1.60$, $SD = .807$) was not significant ($t(270) = -.543$; $p = .588$). Apparently, there is not a significant difference between males and females in their cognitive dissonance and intention to complain before they are introduced to a deterrence tactic.

In addition, it is assessed whether a difference does exist between males and females after receiving the deterrence tactic (CD2). The difference in scores for males ($M = 3.64$, $SD = .741$) and females ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .827$) was significant ($t(270) = -2.606$; $p = .010$). In addition, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the intention to complain after the deterrence tactic scores for males and females (ITC2). Again, there is a difference in scores for males ($M = 2.24$, $SD = .802$) and females ($M = 2.02$, $SD = .864$), which was significant ($t(270) = 2.062$; $p = .040$). Apparently females experience more cognitive dissonance and are less likely to complain in comparison to males after they receive a message (warning) from the firms.

To check whether there are differences between certain age categories and the cognitive dissonance after the deterrence tactic (CD2), an ANOVA has been performed. Between the age categories 16 – 35 years old ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .773$), 36 – 55 years old ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .881$), and 56 years and older ($M = 3.95$, $SD = .918$), there are no significant differences ($F(2,271) = .413$; $p = .662$). The same holds for their intention to complain, where the age categories 16 – 35 years old ($M = 2.15$, $SD = .818$), 36 – 55 years old ($M = 2.01$, $SD = .928$), and 56 years and older ($M = 1.83$, $SD = .917$), again do not indicate significant differences ($F(2,271) = .1855$; $p = .158$). It does not matter what age someone is. For example the oldest age category does not differ from the youngest category in their cognitive dissonance and intention to complain after receiving a message (warning) from the firms.

To check whether there are differences between education level and their cognitive dissonance after the deterrence tactic, two groups have been created: (1) low and (2) highly educated. Again an independent t-test has been performed, which indicated that the lower educated group ($M = 3.78, SD = .839$) and the highly educated group ($M = 3.83, SD = .801$) do not significantly differ ($F(272) = -.379; p = .257$). The same has been done to measure if there are differences between education level and their intention to complain. The independent t-test indicates that the lower educated group ($M = 1.95, SD = .931$) and the highly educated group ($M = 2.13, SD = .830$) do not significantly differ ($F(272) = -1.469; p = .143$) in their intention to complain. Higher educated people and lower educated people do not differ in their cognitive dissonance and intention to complain after receiving the message from the firm.

In conclusion, there is a significant difference between men and women in their cognitive dissonance and intention to complain after they are introduced to the message/warning from the firm.

5 Conclusion and discussion

In this chapter, there will first be an elaboration of the conclusions. Then the theoretical contribution of the research will be described, followed by the managerial implications. Lastly, the limitations and suggestions for further research will be discussed.

5.1 Conclusions

As there is a growing amount of illegitimate complaints which are exaggerated or made up (Khantimirov & Karande, 2018), the costs for firms are also rising and firms are suffering from this illegitimate behavior. This research attempted to find empirical evidence supporting the propositions made by Dootson et al. (2018), proposing that illegitimate complaining can be deterred if the deterrence tactics match the neutralization techniques individuals use. To investigate those propositions, an experiment has been conducted to answer the research question: "*How can organizations deter the illegitimate complaining of the greedy customer types, as described in the typology of Joosten (2021)?*". Five hypotheses were developed to provide a solid answer to the research question, which are shown in table 21. As also indicated in the table, two of the hypotheses are to be accepted.

From the results we can conclude that the participants, who were manipulated into the greedy customer type, will mostly use the neutralizations 'Claim of normalcy' and 'Claim of entitlement'. This result is as expected from the theory of Joosten (2021), which suggests that the greedy customer type mostly uses those neutralization techniques and is less likely to use 'denial of injury' and 'denial of the victim'. Therefore, this hypothesis is accepted.

ANOVA was used to look at the differences between the effects of the deterrence tactic on the resulting cognitive dissonance. An interesting conclusion is that all deterrence tactics are indeed effective in increasing cognitive dissonance. All deterrence tactics cause the participants to experience feeling more discomfort. The deterrence tactic 'Humanize the organisation' is the most effective and 'Moral triggers' is the least effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance. However, when comparing the group 'No match' to 'Match' there are no significant differences. That means that when the deterrence tactic is matched with the neutralization technique, it won't increase the effectivity of increasing the cognitive dissonance. Consequently, hypothesis two is rejected.

The same process has been followed to analyse hypothesis three, which is focused on the differences between the effects of the deterrence tactic on the resulting intention to complain (instead of cognitive dissonance). Results show that the control group shows significant differences with all deterrence tactics except 'Moral triggers'. So 'Moral triggers' is not effective in decreasing the intention to complain. Again, 'Humanize the organization' is the

most effective deterrence tactic in decreasing the intention to complain. When analyzing the differences between the groups ‘No match’ and ‘Match’, again there are no significant differences. It does not make a significant difference when a deterrence tactic is matched to the used neutralization technique, in other words: being matched does not significantly increase the effectiveness in decreasing the intention to complain. Therefore, hypothesis three has been rejected as well.

As Dootson et al. (2018) concluded that 'Moral triggers' does not have to be matched with a specific neutralization technique to be effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance. The results of ANOVA showed that there are no significant differences between the different groups (groups based on the neutralization technique). Therefore, hypothesis four can be accepted.

While it has already been concluded that ‘Moral triggers’ does not have any significant impact on the intention to complain, hypothesis five has been rejected.

There is a significant difference between men and women in cognitive dissonance as well as their intention to complain after they were introduced to the deterrence tactic. After being introduced to the deterrence tactic, the mean score on cognitive dissonance of men was significantly lower than the mean of women. It is a small difference: men 3.639 and women 3.908, but it does indicate men experience a bit less discomfort than women. The same holds for their intention to complain. Men are a bit more likely to still file the complaint after being introduced to the deterrence tactic than women. The difference is again very small, men score a mean of 2.240 and women 2.015, but the difference is significant.

Hypothesis	Result
H1 <i>The greedy customer type uses the neutralizations ‘claim of normalcy’ and ‘claim of entitlement’ more than ‘denial of injury’ and ‘denial of victim’</i>	Accepted
H2 <i>If the deterrence tactic matches with the neutralization technique used by the greedy customer, then the score on cognitive dissonance is higher than when the deterrence tactic does not match the neutralization technique used</i>	Rejected
H3 <i>If the deterrence tactic matches with the neutralization technique used by the greedy customer, then the score on intention to complain illegitimately is lower than when the deterrence tactic does not match the neutralization technique used</i>	Rejected
H4 <i>Deterrence tactic 5 (moral triggers) does not have to match with a specific neutralization to be effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance of greedy customers</i>	Accepted
H5 <i>Deterrence tactic 5 (moral triggers) does not have to match with a specific neutralization to be effective in decreasing the intention to complain illegitimately of greedy customers</i>	Rejected

Table 21. Overview of hypotheses

5.2 Theoretical contributions

This research attempted to find empirical evidence supporting the propositions made by Dootson et al. (2018). Therefore, these findings contribute to the theoretical understanding of the effectiveness of deterrence tactics in decreasing illegitimate complaining. However, the results do not confirm that the groups who receive a deterrence tactic that matches the neutralization they use, experience the greatest increase in cognitive dissonance and the greatest decrease in their intention to complain illegitimately. Therefore, this research does not confirm the main propositions of Dootson et al. (2018). However, the results of this study confirm that all five deterrence tactics are effective in increasing the cognitive dissonance and decreasing the intention to complain.

At first, it is possible that the effect of the hypothesized main proposition of Dootson et al. (2018) simply does not exist. This study is a first attempt to empirically investigate the main proposition, however, there is a possible explanation for the contradicting result of the main proposition. Results show that whenever someone receives a message from to company, regardless of whether there is or there is not a match between the message and the neutralization technique they used, it triggers them. It seems that as long as they feel warned about their illegitimate behavior, every trigger could work. When they get warned, it activates their cognitive dissonance and they are less likely to complain. Therefore, it could explain why there were no differences between the group with a matching deterrence tactic to their neutralization technique and the group that did not have a match.

Another reason for the discrepancy in the results (H2, 3, and 5) could be because of the limitations of the research, which are elaborated on in paragraph 5.4. For example, it might be that the participants did not fully grasp the scenario because they did not ought it to be realistic. Or it could be that participants found it too hard to correctly order the neutralization techniques, which could also affect the groups of the match and no match.

This study provides new insights regarding Joosten's study (2021) about the types of illegitimate complaining. By confirming H1: "The greedy customer type uses the neutralizations 'claim of normalcy' and 'claim of entitlement' more than 'denial of injury' and 'denial of victim'", a contribution has been made to the knowledge about type 3, the greedy customer type.

Even though it was not hypothesized, this study found a few differences between men and women. First, there is a difference in the extent to which men and women experience cognitive dissonance after they have received the deterrence tactic. Women feel a little bit more discomfort than men. Additionally, they also differ in the same direction in their intention to

complain. Women are a little bit less inclined to file a complaint in comparison to men.

5.3 Managerial implications

Many customers take advantage of firms' service recovery policies by making illegitimate claims to get compensation (Baker et al., 2012), and the amount of illegitimate claims is still growing. This constantly leads to the abuse of the firm's recovery policies (Baker et al., 2012). These illegitimate complaints do damage to the firms and there are indirect financial costs and direct financial costs for the firms because of this dysfunctional behavior of the customers. This study tried to explore which deterrence tactics are most effective and how the deterrence tactics could be best deployed. The results of this study are helpful for firms and can be used to decrease the number of illegitimate complaints.

This research finds that all deterrence tactics are effective in increasing cognitive dissonance and in decreasing the intention to complain. 'Humanize the organisation' is the most effective deterrence tactic. When an organization is perceived as more human, the distance between the organization and the (deviant) consumer is smaller and more identifiable. According to Jenni & Loewenstein (1997), identifiable victims seem to produce a greater empathetic response, which makes the offender more willing to engage in behavior that will reduce the harm inflicted on the victim. As mentioned earlier, the deterrence tactic can be implemented (1) by firms by increasing the salience of the identifiable victim, and (2) by decreasing the social distance between the consumer and organization (Dootson et al., 2018).

The second tactic is 'Educate the consumer'. Educating the consumers about the harm could be one approach to changing consumers' perceptions about if the behavior is acceptable. Firms could for example use affective information campaigns that clearly highlight the harm that the illegitimate behavior causes to the people involved.

The transparency of rules tactic can be implemented by firms by being transparent about their rules to make sure that the consumers understand them correctly. They need to communicate why the rules are in place. According to Glik (2007), being transparent about why a rule is in place will help consumers understand the rule. People are more compliant when they comprehend the reasons for engaging in a specific action.

Implementing the social proofs tactic can be done by informing customers that people similar to them responded with a particular behavior. According to Goldstein, Cialdini, and Griskevicius (2008), people are more likely to engage in certain behavior when people learn that most others are engaging in an activity as well. Firms can use this in their communication

to the customers.

Dootson et al. (2018) mention that the goal of the deterrence tactic ‘moral triggers’ is to encourage reasoning ‘it’s just not the right thing to do’. It works by increasing the moral values to trigger self-sanctions so people deter themselves from engaging in certain behaviors.

To implement the different deterrence tactics, firms could for example create a message on their website on the page where customers have to file complaints. Or they could create a protocol for the employees when customers file complaints face to face or on the phone. Implementing those tactics will lead to a decline in illegitimate complaints, and therefore fewer costs for compensating the customers, and fewer costs for workloads for the employees which means that those resources can be spent on the valuable ‘good’ customers.

5.4 Limitations and further research

Although the research was carefully designed and executed, it does have some limitations. First of all, some of the assumptions for executing ANOVA had been violated. The data was not normally distributed, and variances for the groups were not equal which means that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated. This may result in a loss of power, and the results of the analysis may be incorrect or misleading. However, while the sample is large enough, and sample sizes for each group are approximately similar (largest/smallest = < 1.5), it should not have caused major problems.

Furthermore, the research is limited to only ANOVA’s. For testing the hypotheses ANOVA was most practical and provided the information needed. However, MANOVA could have been possible to perform too. When performing separate ANOVA tests, there is a chance that a significant difference will be found between groups while in reality this is not the case (type I error). Therefore, MANOVA would have had greater statistical power.

To verify if participants experienced the experiment as realistic, three questions were included in the questionnaire about realism. Expectations were that the scores would not be very high, because if it would be very high it could suggest that behavior in the scenario is accepted behavior which would indicate that there is no cognitive dissonance. However, the mean scores were expected to be above 2.5, which would indicate that the participants could imagine themselves in the scenario. From the results, it appeared that the scores are not above 2.5. This could be harmful to the results because apparently, it was hard for the participants to imagine themselves in the situation, which leads to invalid results. Only the belief that the result is due to the cognitive dissonance of the participants, and could exactly indicate the behavior in

the scenario to be amoral: without provable results is not enough to assume that this is actually the case. Therefore, further research should focus on this.

From the results, it is concluded that the neutralizations that were placed in the first and second answer category scored the highest. However, it could be that participants found it hard to decide which sequence to choose, and decided to leave the sequence as it was. Might the sequence have been different, and the results might have changed too. It might be interesting for further research to test if the results hold when changing the sequence (e.g. randomized), when adding other neutralization techniques, and when adding the option 'None of them'.

After the pre-test, a change has been made in the scale of the second measurement of cognitive dissonance and intention to complain because the participants were already scoring maximum cognitive dissonance while it was expected that it would increase in the second measurement. When the score was already at its maximum, there could not be a further increase. Therefore, the scale was changed to 'much less – much more', which improved the validity of the questions but unfortunately caused that 'within-subject measurement' was not possible anymore.

As stated in the results, most of the sample were female, most of the sample consisted of young adults, and most of the sample was highly educated. Additionally, convenience sampling was used to gather the data. As a consequence, the sample cannot be seen as representative of the entire Dutch population. As a result, further research should focus on obtaining a representative sample.

Different deterrence tactics are found to be effective in decreasing the intention to complain illegitimately. However, it is important to further investigate what impact the deterrence tactics will have on the 'good' and honest customers. Those customers should not be negatively affected, because those customers are important and should be valued by the firms.

In this research, the theory of Dootson et al. (2018) is used to test if it is effective in deterring illegitimate consumer behavior. However, multiple different theories could be useful in explaining how to influence deviant or illegitimate behavior. Grzeskowiak & Al-Khatib (2008) suggest that the set of moral standards determines opportunistic behavior in a relationship. They also say that retail managers can influence the role of moral standards for opportunistic behavior by creating an exchange environment. For example, a trusting atmosphere has been shown to reduce the risk of opportunistic behavior in an exchange dyad.

According to Kohlberg & Hersh (1977), the theory of moral development is a theory proposing that individuals go through different stages. There are six different stages through

which individuals can move. The stages are (1) punishment and obedience orientation, (2) instrumental relativist orientation, (3) interpersonal concordance orientation, (4) law and order orientation, (5) social contract legalistic orientation, (6) universal ethical-principle orientation. There are different stages which are also including different target groups, which therefore also need a different tactic to be able to influence their behavior. This theory could be of help in focusing on a specific target group in a specific stage to create a message that especially works for them.

The communication/persuasion model is used widely in communications and media studies, and posits that communication can change attitudes and behaviors that are linked in the same causal chain (Heimlich & Ardoin, 2008). “In this model, inputs include the source, the message itself, the channel, the recommended change or behavior, and the destination. Outputs of the model are changes in specific cognition and observed behaviors” (Heimlich & Ardoin, 2008, p.225). The authors assume that inputs lead to the desired cognitive outcomes and thus to the desired behaviors. This could help influence the illegitimate behavior through communication channels.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Final questionnaire

Introductie

Beste meneer/mevrouw,

Hartelijk dank voor uw deelname aan dit onderzoek! Wij zijn Nick, Sanne en Ingrid, masterstudenten van de Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen. Voor onze scriptie doen wij - onder begeleiding van onze docent Dr. Herm Joosten - onderzoek naar het klaaggedrag van consumenten.

In dit onderzoek vragen we u om zich te verplaatsen in een denkbeeldige situatie waarin u een klacht gaat indienen bij een ondernemer. Het is dus een scenario, een verzonnen verhaal, en we vragen u te denken en te doen alsof u de hoofdpersoon in dat verhaal bent. En de vragen daarna te beantwoorden alsof u het zelf meemaakt.

Het kan zijn dat u deze situatie in het echt nooit zult meemaken. Dat is voor het onderzoek niet erg. Wij vragen u om zich gewoon in te leven in het verhaal.

Deze enquête is volledig anoniem, wij gebruiken de gegevens uitsluitend voor dit onderzoek en deelname is uiteraard geheel vrijwillig. Er zijn geen goede of foute antwoorden, omdat het gaat om uw mening. De enquête zal ongeveer 10 minuten duren. Als u vragen of opmerkingen heeft kunt u ons of onze begeleidende docent mailen. De mailadressen staan hieronder.

Nogmaals hartelijk dank voor uw deelname! U helpt ons en de wetenschap een stap verder!

Ingrid Breunissen (ingrid.breunissen@ru.nl)

Sanne van Heumen

Nick Spierings

Dr. Herm Joosten (herm.joosten@ru.nl)

[scenario]

Stelt u zich voor dat u in deze situatie zit. Probeer u zo goed mogelijk in te leven.

U bent al 2 jaar niet op vakantie geweest, maar nu reizen naar het buitenland weer mogelijk is, bent u van plan een auto te huren en door Spanje te rijden. Terwijl u uw reisplannen met vrienden bespreekt, vertellen ze u dat ze vorig jaar een auto hebben gehuurd bij een bedrijf in Barcelona om 2 weken door Spanje te reizen. Ze vertellen u dat een keer - terwijl ze bij een tankstation stonden - de motor van de auto niet wilde starten. Ze vonden echter een bestuurder van een andere huurauto met verstand van auto's die wilde helpen. Hij maakte de accupolen weer goed vast en toen startte de auto weer. Uw vrienden vertellen u ook dat ze -na hun reis- een klacht hebben ingediend bij het autoverhuurbedrijf en een gedeeltelijke terugbetaling van de huurkosten hebben gekregen. Het autoverhuurbedrijf deed helemaal niet moeilijk.

U gaat zoeken naar informatie over dat verhuurbedrijf op beoordelingswebsites op internet (zoals Tripadvisor.com) en u vindt inderdaad veel reviews die suggereren dat dit verhuurbedrijf inderdaad heel gemakkelijk is met klachten van klanten.

U bent nu in Spanje en u heeft een auto gehuurd bij dat zelfde autoverhuurbedrijf. En u gaat proberen om - net als uw vrienden - uw huurkosten gedeeltelijk terug te krijgen door een klacht in te dienen. De klacht is helemaal verzonnen.

U bent van plan om ze morgen - als u de auto terugbrengt - te vertellen dat de motor meerdere keren weigerde te starten tijdens de reis en dat u het zelf moest repareren. Dan gaat u vragen om een korting op de huurprijs van de auto.

[Cognitive dissonance,]

Hoe zou u zich voelen als u om korting zou vragen naar aanleiding van een verzonnen klacht?

(5 puntenschaal van helemaal mee oneens – helemaal mee eens)

Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen als ik om een terugbetaling zou vragen.

Helemaal mee oneens Helemaal mee eens

Ik zou me bezwaard voelen als ik om terugbetaling zou vragen.

Helemaal mee oneens Helemaal mee eens

Ik zou er moeite mee hebben om geld terug te vragen.

Helemaal mee oneens Helemaal mee eens

Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf als ik om terugbetaling zou vragen.

Helemaal mee oneens Helemaal mee eens

Ik zou me schamen als ik om een terugbetaling zou vragen.

Helemaal mee oneens Helemaal mee eens

Ik zou me generen als ik geld terug zou vragen.

Helemaal mee oneens Helemaal mee eens

[intention to complain illegitimately]

Hoe zeker bent u ervan dat u de claim door gaat zetten en daadwerkelijk indient?

(5 puntenschaal van helemaal mee eens – helemaal niet mee eens)

Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen

Helemaal mee eens Helemaal mee oneens

Ik ben van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen

Helemaal mee eens Helemaal mee oneens

Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen

Helemaal mee eens Helemaal mee oneens

Hoe hoog is het kortingspercentage dat u gaat vragen van de camperverhuurder? Geef een percentage van de autohuurkosten.

..... %

[Neutralisaties]

Veel mensen proberen hun gedrag in zo'n situatie voor zichzelf en anderen te rechtvaardigen. Welke rechtvaardiging zou u gebruiken in deze situatie waarin u een onterechte klacht gaat indienen?

Zet de rechtvaardigingen in volgorde van belangrijkheid, waarbij 1= meest van toepassing en 4 is minst van toepassing.

“Iedereen overdrijft wel eens”

“Ik mag ook wel eens een meevallertje hebben”

“Het autoverhuurbedrijf verdient het door wat ze gedaan hebben”

“ Het autoverhuurbedrijf ondervindt geen schade door mijn onterechte claim”

1 = ...

2 = ...

3 = ...

4 = ...

[Deterrence tactic,]

Vlak voordat u uw claim indient bij het verhuurbedrijf, ziet u de volgende boodschap:
(Gerandomiseerd)

(controlegroep, deze boodschap werkt nergens tegen) score 0

"Geachte klant. Vergeet niet de sleutels van uw huurauto en de verzekeringspapieren en handleiding in het dashboard compartiment achter te laten. Zonder die zaken kunnen we de camper niet aan de volgende klant verhuren. Dank u!"

(social proof werkt tegen claim of normalcy) score 1

"Geachte klant. Wij danken u dat u eerlijke klanten bent. We hebben geen enkele overdreven of verzonnen klacht van een klant ontvangen sinds we ons bedrijf een paar jaar geleden begonnen. Onze autoverhuur kan alleen gedijen als onze eerlijke diensten worden gewaardeerd door eerlijke klanten. Wij danken u dat u een eerlijke klant bent, net als al onze klanten"

(transparency rules and law werkt tegen claim of entitlement) score 2

"Geachte klant. Houd er rekening mee dat het indienen van een verzonnen of overdreven klacht een schending is van onze klantovereenkomst en van de toepasselijke Spaanse wetgeving. Het schaadt ons bedrijf en het schaadt onze klanten als u onterechte klachten indient. Ons bedrijf kan alleen gedijen als u deze regels niet overtreedt."

(educating customers werkt tegen denial of injury) score 3

"Geachte klant. Houd er rekening mee dat overdreven of verzonnen klachten van klanten ons bedrijf, onze medewerkers en onze klanten ernstig kunnen schaden. Ons bedrijf kan failliet gaan, onze werknemers kunnen worden ontslagen en klantenprijzen kunnen stijgen als klanten onterecht klagen. "

(Humanize the organization werkt tegen denial of victim) score 4

"Geachte klant. Onze familie werkt elke dag hard in ons familie-bedrijf om onze klanten tevreden te houden. Daarmee verdienen we ons brood en kunnen we onze kinderen naar school sturen. Wij zijn blij en tevreden als u dat bent. Wij zijn ontevreden en ongelukkig als u dat bent. Laat het ons weten als u echt en oprecht ontevreden bent".

(Moral triggers en self-sanctions) = zou tegen elke neutralisatie moeten werken volgens Dootson) = score 5

"Geachte klant, we doen eerlijk zaken en we zijn er zeker van dat u een eerlijke klant bent. We zijn er zeker van dat u het met ons eens bent dat u alleen moet klagen als u een oprechte klacht heeft en oprecht ontevreden bent".

[cognitive dissonance,] verschil in CD vóór versus ná de boodschap

(5 puntenschaal van veel minder tot veel meer)

Hoe zou u zich voelen als u om korting zou vragen naar aanleiding van een verzonnen klacht?

Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen als ik om een terugbetaling zou vragen.

Veel minder Veel meer

Ik zou me bezwaard voelen als ik om terugbetaling zou vragen.

Veel minder Veel meer

Ik zou er moeite mee hebben om geld terug te vragen.

Veel minder Veel meer

Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf als ik om terugbetaling zou vragen.

Veel minder Veel meer

Ik zou me schamen als ik om een terugbetaling zou vragen.

Veel minder Veel meer

Ik zou me generen als ik geld terug zou vragen.

Veel minder Veel meer

[intention to complain illegitimately]

(5 puntenschaal van veel minder tot veel meer)

Hoe zeker bent u ervan dat u de claim door gaat zetten en daadwerkelijk indient?

Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen

Veel minder Veel meer

Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen

Veel minder Veel meer

Ik weet zeker dat ik deze klacht ga indienen

Veel minder Veel meer

Hoe hoog is nu, na de boodschap van het bedrijf, het kortingspercentage dat u gaat vragen van de camperverhuurder? Geef een percentage van de autohuurkosten.

.....%

[Manipulation check greedy customer]

(5 puntenschaal 1 – 5)

In hoeverre is uw klacht overdreven?

Helemaal niet Helemaal wel

In hoeverre heeft u de klacht verzonnen?

Helemaal niet Helemaal wel

In hoeverre was de klacht van tevoren gepland?

Helemaal niet Helemaal wel

[Manipulation check deterrence tactic]

Weet u nog waarover het bericht ging dat u las voordat u een claim indiende?

(3 antwoordmogelijkheden, de juiste, controlegroep, en één andere)

0. controlegroep. Het bericht vroeg de klant om sleutels en papieren in het dashboard achter te laten
1. Social proofs: Het bericht wees op het feit dat de klanten van de autoverhuurder eerlijk zijn.
2. Transparency rules: Het bericht wees erop dat verzonnen klachten de klantovereenkomst en Spaanse wetgeving schenden
3. Educating customers: Het bericht wees erop dat verzonnen en overdreven klachten het bedrijf, werknemers en klanten veel schade kunnen berokkenen
4. Humanize organization: Het bericht wees erop dat de autoverhuurbedrijf een familiebedrijf is waarmee een gezin haar brood verdient
5. Moral triggers: Het bericht wees erop dat men er vanuit gaat dat u eerlijk bent en alleen klaagt als dat terecht is.

[Realism check]

Hoe realistisch is dit scenario? Kunt u zich voorstellen dat u zich nu of in de toekomst in zo'n situatie bevindt?

Ik denk dat mij iets soortgelijks kan gebeuren:

Zeer onwaarschijnlijk Zeer waarschijnlijk

De situatie in het scenario is:

Zeer onrealistisch Zeer realistisch

Mezelf in deze situatie voorstellen is:

Heel moeilijk Heel gemakkelijk

Tenslotte nog een paar algemene vragen over wie u bent

[Leeftijd]

Wat is uw leeftijd? (vul leeftijd in jaren in)

[Geslacht]

Wat is uw geslacht?

- Man
- Vrouw
- Anders/wil niet zeggen

[Opleiding]

Wat is uw hoogst genoten opleiding (met of zonder diploma)?

- Lagere school/basisonderwijs
- Voortgezet onderwijs
- MBO
- HBO
- WO

Dit waren de vragen. We willen nogmaals benadrukken dat de gegevens uitsluitend voor dit onderzoek gebruikt zullen worden en anonimiteit verzekerd is.

Nogmaals hartelijk dank voor uw medewerking! Indien u geïnteresseerd bent in de resultaten van het onderzoek of anderzijds vragen heeft kunt u een e-mail sturen naar ingrid.breunissen@ru.nl

Appendix B: Manipulation checks

Statistics

	Q1_ongemak _1 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk kvoelen	Q1_bezwaard _1 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen	Q1_moelte_1 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben	Q1_eigeren_ _1 Ik zou me eigeren aan mezelf	Q1_schamen _1 Ik zou me schamen	Q1_generen_ _1 Ik zou me generen	GemCD1 Gemiddelde CD 1	Q8_scenario _overdreven Scenario: In hoeveer was uw klacht overdreven?	Q8_scenario _verzonnen Scenario: In hoeveer had u de klacht verzonnen?	Q8_scenario _gepland Scenario: In hoeveer was de klacht van tevooren gepland?	GemScenario Check Gemiddelde Scenario
N	Valid Missing	275 0	275 0	275 0	275 0	275 0	275 0	275 0	275 0	275 0	275 0
Mean	4,67	4,61	4,55	4,40	4,51	4,45	4,5321	4,26	4,18	3,86	4,1018
Median	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	5,00	4,8333	5,00	5,00	4,00	4,3333
Mode	5	5	5	5	5	5	5,00	5	5	5	5,00
Std. Deviation	,608	,676	,699	,850	,775	,792	,62740	1,031	1,234	1,325	1,00734

Appendix C: Factor analysis

Initial factor analysis:

Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Principal Axis Factoring, Oblique rotation

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,906
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6244,605
	df	153
	Sig.	,000

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	7,701	42,784	42,784	7,490	41,611	41,611	7,222
2	5,484	30,466	73,250	5,244	29,131	70,742	5,279
3	1,324	7,358	80,607	1,142	6,344	77,086	4,419
4	,925	5,136	85,744				
5	,505	2,806	88,550				
6	,390	2,167	90,717				
7	,320	1,779	92,495				
8	,230	1,277	93,772				
9	,208	1,156	94,928				
10	,169	,939	95,867				
11	,155	,861	96,728				
12	,139	,772	97,499				
13	,122	,676	98,175				
14	,086	,476	98,651				
15	,080	,446	99,097				
16	,068	,379	99,476				
17	,054	,298	99,774				
18	,041	,226	100,000				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor		
	1	2	3
Q1_ongemak_1 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen		,856	
Q1_bezwaard_1 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen		,745	
Q1_moeite_1 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben		,889	
Q1_ergeren_1 Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf		,764	
Q1_schamen_1 Ik zou me schamen		,819	
Q1_generen_1 Ik zou me generen		,833	
Q2_zeker_1 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen.			,913
Q2_overtuigd_1 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.			,975
Q2_vast_1 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.			,915
Q5_ongemak_2 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen 2	,938		
Q5_bezwaard_2 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen 2	,936		
Q5_moeite_2 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben 2	,927		
Q5_ergeren_2 Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf 2	,881		
Q5_schamen_2 Ik zou me schamen 2	,910		
Q5_generen_2 Ik zou me generen 2	,926		
Q6_zeker_2 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen 2	-,820		
Q6_overtuigd_2 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	-,831		
Q6_vast_2 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	-,826		

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3
1	1,000	,127	-,111
2	,127	1,000	-,634
3	-,111	-,634	1,000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Final attempt factor analysis:

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,906
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6244,605
	df	153
	Sig.	,000

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	7,701	42,784	42,784	7,575	42,084	42,084	6,940
2	5,484	30,466	73,250	5,256	29,200	71,284	5,272
3	1,324	7,358	80,607	1,143	6,348	77,632	4,410
4	,925	5,136	85,744	,844	4,687	82,319	6,024
5	,505	2,806	88,550				
6	,390	2,167	90,717				
7	,320	1,779	92,495				
8	,230	1,277	93,772				
9	,208	1,156	94,928				
10	,169	,939	95,867				
11	,155	,861	96,728				
12	,139	,772	97,499				
13	,122	,676	98,175				
14	,086	,476	98,651				
15	,080	,446	99,097				
16	,068	,379	99,476				
17	,054	,298	99,774				
18	,041	,226	100,000				

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Q1_ongemak_1 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen		,850		
Q1_bezwaard_1 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen		,741		
Q1_moeite_1 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben		,891		
Q1_ergeren_1 Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf		,762		
Q1_schamen_1 Ik zou me schamen		,819		
Q1_genereren_1 Ik zou me generen		,837		
Q2_zeker_1 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen.			,913	
Q2_overtuigd_1 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.			,974	
Q2_vast_1 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.			,914	
Q5_ongemak_2 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen 2	,923			
Q5_bezwaard_2 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen 2	,969			
Q5_moeite_2 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben 2	,901			
Q5_ergeren_2 Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf 2	,903			
Q5_schamen_2 Ik zou me schamen 2	,929			
Q5_genereren_2 Ik zou me generen 2	,962			
Q6_zeker_2 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen 2				,922
Q6_overtuigd_2 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2				,979
Q6_vast_2 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2				,982

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4
1	1,000	,091	-,079	-,756
2	,091	1,000	-,631	-,167
3	-,079	-,631	1,000	,145
4	-,756	-,167	,145	1,000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix D: Reliability analysis

First attempt with three proposed factors from factor analysis: (CD2 & ITC2 combined)

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,477	9

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Q5_ongemak_2 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen 2	3,80	,857	275
Q5_bezwaard_2 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen 2	3,82	,839	275
Q5_moeite_2 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben 2	3,84	,842	275
Q5_ergeren_2 Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf 2	3,75	,876	275
Q5_schamen_2 Ik zou me schamen 2	3,86	,856	275
Q5_generen_2 Ik zou me generen 2	3,80	,844	275
Q6_zeker_2 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen 2	2,10	,857	275
Q6_overtuigd_2 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	2,09	,871	275
Q6_vast_2 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	2,10	,880	275

Second attempt with (standardised) discount percentage included:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,903	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q2_zeker_1 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen.	3,1163636	5,338	,878	,839
Q2_overtuigd_1 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.	3,1454545	5,456	,870	,843
Q2_vast_1 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.	3,2363636	5,796	,852	,854
ZQ3_kortingspercentage_1 Zscore: Hoe hoog is het kortingspercentage dat u gaat vragen van de autoverhuurder?	4,7490909	5,838	,583	,956

Difference $.956 - .903 = .053$, which is $> .05$ (rule of thumb). So item is deleted.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,843	4

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q6_zeker_2 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen 2	4,1854545	4,893	,860	,723
Q6_overtuigd_2 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	4,2000000	4,851	,854	,724
Q6_vast_2 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	4,1890909	4,776	,867	,717
ZQ7_kortingspercentage_2 Zscore: Hoe hoog is nu het kortingspercentage dat u gaat vragen van de autoverhuurder? 2	6,2872727	6,519	,268	,978

Difference $.978 - .843 = .136$, which is $> .05$ (rule of thumb). So item is deleted.

Third attempt with a priori factors:

-Cognitive dissonance 1:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,923	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q1_ongemak_1 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen	22,53	10,652	,794	,910
Q1_bezwaard_1 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen	22,58	10,471	,741	,915
Q1_moeite_1 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben	22,64	10,114	,802	,907
Q1_ergeren_1 Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf	22,79	9,413	,774	,912
Q1_schamen_1 Ik zou me schamen	22,68	9,706	,800	,907
Q1_genereren_1 Ik zou me generen	22,74	9,594	,804	,906

-Intention to complain 1:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,956	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q2_zeker_1 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen.	3,12	2,548	,903	,939
Q2_overtuigd_1 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.	3,15	2,563	,931	,916
Q2_vast_1 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen.	3,24	2,845	,890	,949

-Cognitive dissonance 2:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,977	6

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q5_ongemak_2 Ik zou me ongemakkelijk voelen 2	19,07	16,265	,932	,971
Q5_bezwaard_2 Ik zou me bezwaard voelen 2	19,06	16,354	,941	,970
Q5_moeite_2 Ik zou er moeite mee hebben 2	19,03	16,433	,923	,972
Q5_ergeren_2 Ik zou me ergeren aan mezelf 2	19,13	16,355	,892	,975
Q5_schamen_2 Ik zou me schamen 2	19,01	16,387	,913	,973
Q5_generen_2 Ik zou me generen 2	19,07	16,345	,935	,971

-Intention to complain 2:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,978	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q6_zeker_2 Ik ga deze klacht zeker indienen 2	4,19	2,991	,943	,974
Q6_overtuigd_2 Ik ben er van overtuigd dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	4,20	2,912	,958	,964
Q6_vast_2 Het staat voor mij vast dat ik deze klacht ga indienen 2	4,19	2,884	,957	,965

-Realism construct:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,828	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q10_realisme_soortgelijks Ik denk dat mij iets soortgelijks kan gebeuren onwaarschijnlijk/waarschijnlijk	4,59	4,675	,689	,763
Q10_realisme_realistisch De situatie in het scenario is onrealistisch/realistisch	4,04	4,057	,696	,756
Q10_realisme_voorstellen Mezelf in deze situatie voorstellen is moeilijk/makkelijk	4,26	4,449	,680	,769

-Scenario/greedy customer construct:

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
,787	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q8_scenario_overdreven Scenario: In hoeverre was uw klacht overdreven?	8,04	5,261	,594	,755
Q8_scenario_verzonnen Scenario: In hoeverre had u de klacht verzonnen?	8,12	4,101	,702	,626
Q8_scenario_gepland Scenario: In hoeverre was de klacht van tevoren gepland?	8,44	4,109	,609	,742

Appendix E: Factor analysis (Realism construct)

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,723
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	305,772
	df	3
	Sig.	,000

Total Variance Explained

Component	Total	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
		% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2,239	74,632	74,632	2,239	74,632	74,632
2	,394	13,117	87,749			
3	,368	12,251	100,000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix^a

	Component 1
Q10_realisme_soortgelijks Ik denk dat mij iets soortgelijks kan gebeuren onwaarschijnlijk/waarschijnlijk	,864
Q10_realisme_realistisch De situatie in het scenario is onrealistisch/realistisch	,869
Q10_realisme_voorstellen Mezelf in deze situatie voorstellen is moeilijk/makkelijk	,858

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Appendix F: Output hypothesis 1

Statistics

		Q4_claimofno rma1cy "Iedereen overdrijft wel eens" - claim of normalcy	Q4_claimofen titlement "Ik mag ook wel eens een meevallertje hebben" - claim of entitlement	Q4_denialofvi ctim "Het autoverhuurb edrijf verdient het door wat ze gedaan hebben" - denial of victim	Q4_denialofin jury "Het autoverhuurb edrijf ondervindt geen schade door mijn onterechte claim" - denial of injury
N	Valid	275	275	275	275
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		2,00	1,98	3,44	2,58
Std. Error of Mean		,054	,057	,052	,065
Median		2,00	2,00	4,00	3,00
Mode		2	1	4	3
Std. Deviation		,898	,940	,867	1,072
Minimum		1	1	1	1
Maximum		4	4	4	4

Appendix G: Output hypothesis 2

Descriptives

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0 Controlegroep	48	3,1354	,57802	,08343	2,9676	3,3033	2,00	5,00
1 Social Proofs	54	3,8858	,69501	,09458	3,6961	4,0755	3,00	5,00
2 Transparency	41	3,9309	,83081	,12975	3,6687	4,1931	2,33	5,00
3 Humanize	55	4,1939	,78092	,10530	3,9828	4,4051	3,00	5,00
4 Educate	36	3,9676	,78257	,13043	3,7028	4,2324	3,00	5,00
5 Moral triggers	41	3,7439	,76203	,11901	3,5034	3,9844	3,00	5,00
Total	275	3,8127	,80699	,04866	3,7169	3,9085	2,00	5,00

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	Based on Mean	5,232	5	269	,000
	Based on Median	6,099	5	269	,000
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	6,099	5	257,418	,000
	Based on trimmed mean	5,677	5	269	,000

ANOVA

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	31,931	5	6,386	11,726	,000
Within Groups	146,508	269	,545		
Total	178,439	274			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

Games-Howell

(I) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	(J) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0 Controlegroep	1 Social Proofs	-,75039*	,12612	,000	-1,1169	-,3839
	2 Transparency	-,79548*	,15426	,000	-1,2475	-,3434
	3 Humanize	-1,05852*	,13435	,000	-1,4490	-,6680
	4 Educate	-,83218*	,15483	,000	-1,2875	-,3768
	5 Moral triggers	-,60849*	,14534	,001	-1,0337	-,1832
1 Social Proofs	0 Controlegroep	,75039*	,12612	,000	,3839	1,1169
	2 Transparency	-,04509	,16056	1,000	-,5143	,4241
	3 Humanize	-,30814	,14154	,257	-,7190	,1027
	4 Educate	-,08179	,16111	,996	-,5541	,3905
	5 Moral triggers	,14190	,15201	,937	-,3017	,5855
2 Transparency	0 Controlegroep	,79548*	,15426	,000	,3434	1,2475
	1 Social Proofs	,04509	,16056	1,000	-,4241	,5143
	3 Humanize	-,26305	,16710	,618	-,7505	,2244
	4 Educate	-,03670	,18397	1,000	-,5748	,5014
	5 Moral triggers	,18699	,17606	,895	-,3272	,7012
3 Humanize	0 Controlegroep	1,05852*	,13435	,000	,6680	1,4490
	1 Social Proofs	,30814	,14154	,257	-,1027	,7190
	2 Transparency	,26305	,16710	,618	-,2244	,7505
	4 Educate	,22635	,16763	,756	-,2639	,7166
	5 Moral triggers	,45004	,15891	,062	-,0130	,9131
4 Educate	0 Controlegroep	,83218*	,15483	,000	,3768	1,2875
	1 Social Proofs	,08179	,16111	,996	-,3905	,5541
	2 Transparency	,03670	,18397	1,000	-,5014	,5748
	3 Humanize	-,22635	,16763	,756	-,7166	,2639
	5 Moral triggers	,22369	,17656	,802	-,2930	,7404
5 Moral triggers	0 Controlegroep	,60849*	,14534	,001	,1832	1,0337
	1 Social Proofs	-,14190	,15201	,937	-,5855	,3017
	2 Transparency	-,18699	,17606	,895	-,7012	,3272
	3 Humanize	-,45004	,15891	,062	-,9131	,0130
	4 Educate	-,22369	,17656	,802	-,7404	,2930

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

- Part 2 hypothesis 2:

Descriptives

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0 Control group	48	3,1354	,57802	,08343	2,9676	3,3033	2,00	5,00
1 Match	137	3,8881	,73823	,06307	3,7634	4,0128	3,00	5,00
2 No Match	90	4,0593	,82347	,08680	3,8868	4,2317	2,33	5,00
Total	275	3,8127	,80699	,04866	3,7169	3,9085	2,00	5,00

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	Based on Mean	12,737	2	272	,000
	Based on Median	15,868	2	272	,000
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	15,868	2	261,500	,000
	Based on trimmed mean	14,123	2	272	,000

ANOVA

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	28,268	2	14,134	25,600	,000
Within Groups	150,171	272	,552		
Total	178,439	274			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

Games-Howell

(I) Match_NoMatch_DT Match NoMatch DT	(J) Match_NoMatch_DT Match NoMatch DT	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0 Control group	1 Match	-,75266*	,10459	,000	-1,0013	-,5040
	2 No Match	-,92384*	,12040	,000	-1,2094	-,6383
1 Match	0 Control group	,75266*	,10459	,000	,5040	1,0013
	2 No Match	-,17118	,10730	,250	-,4248	,0824
2 No Match	0 Control group	,92384*	,12040	,000	,6383	1,2094
	1 Match	,17118	,10730	,250	-,0824	,4248

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Appendix H: Output hypothesis 3

Descriptives

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0 Controlegroep	48	2,5833	,76105	,10985	2,3623	2,8043	1,00	4,00
1 Social Proofs	54	2,0926	,77003	,10479	1,8824	2,3028	1,00	3,67
2 Transparency	41	2,0488	,91153	,14236	1,7611	2,3365	1,00	4,00
3 Humanize	55	1,7212	,80063	,10796	1,5048	1,9377	1,00	3,00
4 Educate	36	2,0093	,83376	,13896	1,7272	2,2914	1,00	3,00
5 Moral triggers	41	2,1545	,83698	,13071	1,8903	2,4187	1,00	3,00
Total	275	2,0958	,85110	,05132	1,9947	2,1968	1,00	4,00

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	Based on Mean	,733	5	269	,599
	Based on Median	1,996	5	269	,079
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,996	5	211,544	,080
	Based on trimmed mean	,787	5	269	,560

ANOVA

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19,628	5	3,926	5,904	,000
Within Groups	178,850	269	,665		
Total	198,478	274			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2
Tukey HSD

(I) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	(J) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0 Controlegroep	1 Social Proofs	,49074*	,16175	,031	,0264	,9550
	2 Transparency	,53455*	,17340	,027	,0368	1,0323
	3 Humanize	,86212*	,16106	,000	,3998	1,3244
	4 Educate	,57407*	,17978	,019	,0580	1,0901
	5 Moral triggers	,42886	,17340	,136	-,0689	,9266
1 Social Proofs	0 Controlegroep	-,49074*	,16175	,031	-,9550	-,0264
	2 Transparency	,04381	,16890	1,000	-,4410	,5286
	3 Humanize	,37138	,15621	,168	-,0770	,8198
	4 Educate	,08333	,17545	,997	-,4203	,5869
	5 Moral triggers	-,06188	,16890	,999	-,5467	,4229
2 Transparency	0 Controlegroep	-,53455*	,17340	,027	-1,0323	-,0368
	1 Social Proofs	-,04381	,16890	1,000	-,5286	,4410
	3 Humanize	,32757	,16824	,376	-,1553	,8105
	4 Educate	,03952	,18624	1,000	-,4951	,5741
	5 Moral triggers	-,10569	,18009	,992	-,6226	,4112
3 Humanize	0 Controlegroep	-,86212*	,16106	,000	-1,3244	-,3998
	1 Social Proofs	-,37138	,15621	,168	-,8198	,0770
	2 Transparency	-,32757	,16824	,376	-,8105	,1553
	4 Educate	-,28805	,17481	,568	-,7898	,2137
	5 Moral triggers	-,43326	,16824	,107	-,9162	,0497
4 Educate	0 Controlegroep	-,57407*	,17978	,019	-1,0901	-,0580
	1 Social Proofs	-,08333	,17545	,997	-,5869	,4203
	2 Transparency	-,03952	,18624	1,000	-,5741	,4951
	3 Humanize	,28805	,17481	,568	-,2137	,7898
	5 Moral triggers	-,14521	,18624	,971	-,6798	,3894
5 Moral triggers	0 Controlegroep	-,42886	,17340	,136	-,9266	,0689
	1 Social Proofs	,06188	,16890	,999	-,4229	,5467
	2 Transparency	,10569	,18009	,992	-,4112	,6226
	3 Humanize	,43326	,16824	,107	-,0497	,9162
	4 Educate	,14521	,18624	,971	-,3894	,6798

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

- Part 2 hypothesis 3:

Descriptives

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0 Control group	48	2,5833	,76105	,10985	2,3623	2,8043	1,00	4,00
1 Match	137	2,0414	,80890	,06911	1,9047	2,1780	1,00	4,00
2 No Match	90	1,9185	,87168	,09188	1,7359	2,1011	1,00	3,67
Total	275	2,0958	,85110	,05132	1,9947	2,1968	1,00	4,00

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	Based on Mean	2,132	2	272	,121
	Based on Median	5,232	2	272	,006
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	5,232	2	220,813	,006
	Based on trimmed mean	2,564	2	272	,079

ANOVA

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14,644	2	7,322	10,833	,000
Within Groups	183,835	272	,676		
Total	198,478	274			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

Tukey HSD

(I) Match_NoMatch_DT Match NoMatch DT	(J) Match_NoMatch_DT Match NoMatch DT	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0 Control group	1 Match	,54197*	,13789	,000	,2170	,8669
	2 No Match	,66481*	,14694	,000	,3185	1,0111
1 Match	0 Control group	-,54197*	,13789	,000	-,8669	-,2170
	2 No Match	,12284	,11155	,514	-,1400	,3857
2 No Match	0 Control group	-,66481*	,14694	,000	-1,0111	-,3185
	1 Match	-,12284	,11155	,514	-,3857	,1400

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Appendix I: Output hypothesis 4

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2
Games-Howell

(I) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	(J) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0 Controlegroep	1 Social Proofs	-,75039*	,12612	,000	-1,1169	-,3839
	2 Transparency	-,79548*	,15426	,000	-1,2475	-,3434
	3 Humanize	-1,05852*	,13435	,000	-1,4490	-,6680
	4 Educate	-,83218*	,15483	,000	-1,2875	-,3768
	5 Moral triggers	-,60849*	,14534	,001	-1,0337	-,1832
1 Social Proofs	0 Controlegroep	,75039*	,12612	,000	,3839	1,1169
	2 Transparency	-,04509	,16056	1,000	-,5143	,4241
	3 Humanize	-,30814	,14154	,257	-,7190	,1027
	4 Educate	-,08179	,16111	,996	-,5541	,3905
	5 Moral triggers	,14190	,15201	,937	-,3017	,5855
2 Transparency	0 Controlegroep	,79548*	,15426	,000	,3434	1,2475
	1 Social Proofs	,04509	,16056	1,000	-,4241	,5143
	3 Humanize	-,26305	,16710	,618	-,7505	,2244
	4 Educate	-,03670	,18397	1,000	-,5748	,5014
	5 Moral triggers	,18699	,17606	,895	-,3272	,7012
3 Humanize	0 Controlegroep	1,05852*	,13435	,000	,6680	1,4490
	1 Social Proofs	,30814	,14154	,257	-,1027	,7190
	2 Transparency	,26305	,16710	,618	-,2244	,7505
	4 Educate	,22635	,16763	,756	-,2639	,7166
	5 Moral triggers	,45004	,15891	,062	-,0130	,9131
4 Educate	0 Controlegroep	,83218*	,15483	,000	,3768	1,2875
	1 Social Proofs	,08179	,16111	,996	-,3905	,5541
	2 Transparency	,03670	,18397	1,000	-,5014	,5748
	3 Humanize	-,22635	,16763	,756	-,7166	,2639
	5 Moral triggers	,22369	,17656	,802	-,2930	,7404
5 Moral triggers	0 Controlegroep	,60849*	,14534	,001	,1832	1,0337
	1 Social Proofs	-,14190	,15201	,937	-,5855	,3017
	2 Transparency	-,18699	,17606	,895	-,7012	,3272
	3 Humanize	-,45004	,15891	,062	-,9131	,0130
	4 Educate	-,22369	,17656	,802	-,7404	,2930

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

- Part 2 hypothesis 4:

Descriptives

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1 Claim of normalcy	14	3,6905	,82134	,21951	3,2162	4,1647	3,00	5,00
2 Claim of entitlement	13	4,1026	,68563	,19016	3,6882	4,5169	3,00	5,00
3 Denial of victim	5	3,7667	,64118	,28674	2,9705	4,5628	3,00	4,67
4 Denial of injury	9	3,2963	,67586	,22529	2,7768	3,8158	3,00	5,00
Total	41	3,7439	,76203	,11901	3,5034	3,9844	3,00	5,00

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	Based on Mean	,804	3	37	,500
	Based on Median	,759	3	37	,524
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	,759	3	31,579	,525
	Based on trimmed mean	,878	3	37	,461

ANOVA

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3,518	3	1,173	2,201	,104
Within Groups	19,710	37	,533		
Total	23,228	40			

Appendix J: Output hypothesis 5

Descriptives

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0 Controlegroep	48	2,5833	,76105	,10985	2,3623	2,8043	1,00	4,00
1 Social Proofs	54	2,0926	,77003	,10479	1,8824	2,3028	1,00	3,67
2 Transparency	41	2,0488	,91153	,14236	1,7611	2,3365	1,00	4,00
3 Humanize	55	1,7212	,80063	,10796	1,5048	1,9377	1,00	3,00
4 Educate	36	2,0093	,83376	,13896	1,7272	2,2914	1,00	3,00
5 Moral triggers	41	2,1545	,83698	,13071	1,8903	2,4187	1,00	3,00
Total	275	2,0958	,85110	,05132	1,9947	2,1968	1,00	4,00

Tests of Homogeneity of Variances

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	Based on Mean	,733	5	269	,599
	Based on Median	1,996	5	269	,079
	Based on Median and with adjusted df	1,996	5	211,544	,080
	Based on trimmed mean	,787	5	269	,560

ANOVA

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19,628	5	3,926	5,904	,000
Within Groups	178,850	269	,665		
Total	198,478	274			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

Tukey HSD

(I) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	(J) Ontvangentactiek Welke tactiek ontvangen	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
0 Controlegroep	1 Social Proofs	,49074*	,16175	,031	,0264	,9550
	2 Transparency	,53455*	,17340	,027	,0368	1,0323
	3 Humanize	,86212*	,16106	,000	,3998	1,3244
	4 Educate	,57407*	,17978	,019	,0580	1,0901
	5 Moral triggers	,42886	,17340	,136	-,0689	,9266
1 Social Proofs	0 Controlegroep	-,49074*	,16175	,031	-,9550	-,0264
	2 Transparency	,04381	,16890	1,000	-,4410	,5286
	3 Humanize	,37138	,15621	,168	-,0770	,8198
	4 Educate	,08333	,17545	,997	-,4203	,5869
	5 Moral triggers	-,06188	,16890	,999	-,5467	,4229
2 Transparency	0 Controlegroep	-,53455*	,17340	,027	-1,0323	-,0368
	1 Social Proofs	-,04381	,16890	1,000	-,5286	,4410
	3 Humanize	,32757	,16824	,376	-,1553	,8105
	4 Educate	,03952	,18624	1,000	-,4951	,5741
	5 Moral triggers	-,10569	,18009	,992	-,6226	,4112
3 Humanize	0 Controlegroep	-,86212*	,16106	,000	-1,3244	-,3998
	1 Social Proofs	-,37138	,15621	,168	-,8198	,0770
	2 Transparency	-,32757	,16824	,376	-,8105	,1553
	4 Educate	-,28805	,17481	,568	-,7898	,2137
	5 Moral triggers	-,43326	,16824	,107	-,9162	,0497
4 Educate	0 Controlegroep	-,57407*	,17978	,019	-1,0901	-,0580
	1 Social Proofs	-,08333	,17545	,997	-,5869	,4203
	2 Transparency	-,03952	,18624	1,000	-,5741	,4951
	3 Humanize	,28805	,17481	,568	-,2137	,7898
	5 Moral triggers	-,14521	,18624	,971	-,6798	,3894
5 Moral triggers	0 Controlegroep	-,42886	,17340	,136	-,9266	,0689
	1 Social Proofs	,06188	,16890	,999	-,4229	,5467
	2 Transparency	,10569	,18009	,992	-,4112	,6226
	3 Humanize	,43326	,16824	,107	-,0497	,9162
	4 Educate	,14521	,18624	,971	-,3894	,6798

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Appendix K: Additional analyses

Independent t-test: Gender → CD1

Group Statistics

	Q12_geslacht Wat is uw geslacht?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
GemCD1 Gemiddelde CD 1	1 Man	89	4,4307	,69894	,07409
	2 Vrouw	183	4,5883	,58177	,04301

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
GemCD1 Gemiddelde CD 1	Equal variances assumed	2,594	,108	-1,960	270	,051	-,15763	,08043	-,31598	,00072
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,840	149,109	,068	-,15763	,08566	-,32690	,01164

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
GemCD1 Gemiddelde CD 1	Cohen's d	,62239	-,253	-,507	,001
	Hedges' correction	,62412	-,253	-,506	,001
	Glass's delta	,58177	-,271	-,525	-,016

- a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Independent t-test: Gender → ITC1

Group Statistics

	Q12_geslacht Wat is uw geslacht?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
GemITC1 Gemiddelde ITC 1	1 Man	89	1,5393	,79377	,08414
	2 Vrouw	183	1,5956	,80698	,05965

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
GemITC1 Gemiddelde ITC 1	Equal variances assumed	,136	,713	-,543	270	,588	-,05630	,10373	-,26053	,14792
	Equal variances not assumed			-,546	177,071	,586	-,05630	,10314	-,25985	,14724

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
GemITC1 Gemiddelde ITC 1	Cohen's d	,80270	-,070	-,323	,183
	Hedges' correction	,80493	-,070	-,323	,183
	Glass's delta	,80698	-,070	-,323	,184

- a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Independent t-test: Gender → CD2

Group Statistics

	Q12_geslacht Wat is uw geslacht?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	1 Man	89	3,6386	,74078	,07852
	2 Vrouw	183	3,9080	,82701	,06113

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	Equal variances assumed	1,572	,211	-2,606	270	,010	-,26944	,10338	-,47296	-,06591
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,708	192,770	,007	-,26944	,09952	-,46572	-,07316

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	Cohen's d	,79993	-,337	-,591	-,082
	Hedges' correction	,80216	-,336	-,590	-,081
	Glass's delta	,82701	-,326	-,581	-,070

- a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Independent t-test: Gender → ITC2

Group Statistics

	Q12_geslacht Wat is uw geslacht?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	1 Man	89	2,2397	,80244	,08506
	2 Vrouw	183	2,0146	,86431	,06389

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	Equal variances assumed	,305	,581	2,062	270	,040	,22513	,10915	,01023	,44003
	Equal variances not assumed			2,116	186,597	,036	,22513	,10638	,01526	,43499

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

		Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	Cohen's d	,84465	,267	,012	,521
	Hedges' correction	,84700	,266	,012	,519
	Glass's delta	,86431	,260	,005	,515

- a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Independent t-test: education level → CD2

Group Statistics

	Education_level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Education level				
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	1,00 Low	55	3,7788	,83890	,11312
	2,00 High	219	3,8250	,80046	,05409

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	Equal variances assumed	1,292	,257	-,379	272	,705	-,04617	,12190	-,28616	,19382
	Equal variances not assumed			-,368	80,475	,714	-,04617	,12538	-,29568	,20333

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

	Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2	Cohen's d	,80823	-,057	,239
	Hedges' correction	,81047	-,352	,238
	Glass's delta	,80046	-,353	,238

- a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

Independent t-test: education level → ITC2

Group Statistics

	Education_level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Education level				
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	1,00 Low	55	1,9455	,93131	,12558
	2,00 High	219	2,1339	,82970	,05607

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	Equal variances assumed	5,394	,021	-1,469	272	,143	-,18849	,12833	-,44113	,06415
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,371	76,916	,174	-,18849	,13753	-,46234	,08536

Independent Samples Effect Sizes

	Standardizer ^a	Point Estimate	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower	Upper
GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2	Cohen's d	,85084	-,222	,075
	Hedges' correction	,85319	-,221	,075
	Glass's delta	,82970	-,227	,069

- a. The denominator used in estimating the effect sizes.
 Cohen's d uses the pooled standard deviation.
 Hedges' correction uses the pooled standard deviation, plus a correction factor.
 Glass's delta uses the sample standard deviation of the control group.

ANOVA: age category → CD2

Descriptives

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1,00 16 thru 35 years old	194	3,7947	,77271	,05548	3,6853	3,9041	2,00	5,00
2,00 36 thru 55 years old	56	3,8304	,88048	,11766	3,5946	4,0662	2,00	5,00
3,00 56 thru 99 years old	24	3,9514	,91746	,18728	3,5640	4,3388	3,00	5,00
Total	274	3,8157	,80697	,04875	3,7197	3,9117	2,00	5,00

ANOVA

GemCD2 Gemiddelde CD 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,540	2	,270	,413	,662
Within Groups	177,236	271	,654		
Total	177,776	273			

ANOVA: age category → ITC2

Descriptives

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1,00 16 thru 35 years old	194	2,1529	,81797	,05873	2,0371	2,2687	1,00	4,00
2,00 36 thru 55 years old	56	2,0119	,92761	,12396	1,7635	2,2603	1,00	4,00
3,00 56 thru 99 years old	24	1,8333	,91683	,18715	1,4462	2,2205	1,00	3,00
Total	274	2,0961	,85264	,05151	1,9947	2,1975	1,00	4,00

ANOVA

GemITC2 Gemiddelde ITC 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2,680	2	1,340	1,855	,158
Within Groups	195,789	271	,722		
Total	198,469	273			