Managing customer citizenship behaviour: The moderating roles of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Examines the influence of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards customer citizenship behaviour.
- Focuses on one aspect of CCB identified in extant literature: the policing of other customers.
- Applies a scenario-based experimental design in the context of a hotel.
- Employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance moderates guest satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT
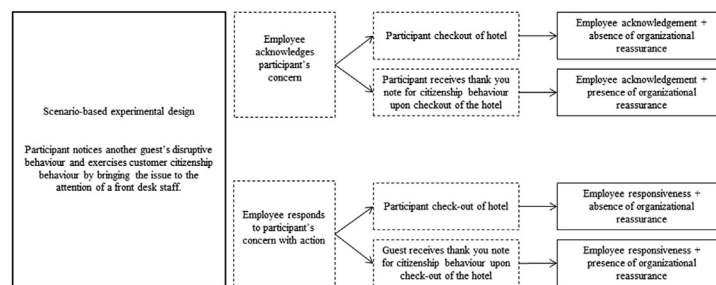
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ABSTRACT

This study examines the influence of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards customer citizenship behaviour (CCB) on building guest satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value. The study considers insights from concepts in psychology including attachment theory, self-congruity theory, affect infusion model, and social exchange theory which are relevant to the problematics of CCB. The scenario-based experimental design used in this study focuses on one aspect of CCB identified in extant literature: the policing of other customers. In a hospitality context, guests voluntarily participate in safeguarding an organization's quality when they identify areas that may be impacted by opportunistic behaviours of fellow guests. This context is highly relevant in hospitality and tourism settings where the behaviour of one individual may directly impact the experience of another given the co-creation of experience in a shared environment. Both employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance were found to significantly moderate guest satisfaction, loyalty and perceived value.

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1. Introduction

A concept garnering increased attention by tourism and hospitality researchers, and industry practitioners is customer citizenship behaviour (CCB). Customers, guests, and tourists can often be considered "partial employees" in many service-related businesses such as hotels and group packaged tours (Bove, Pervan, Beatty, & Shiu, 2009; Liu & Tsaur, 2014). They co-create and participate in both the production and consumption of services, and provide feedback on the firm's activities through their direct involvement in the service encounter before departure (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). As transient employees, customers can

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provide extra-role behaviours such as assisting other customers or suggesting areas for service improvements, which are voluntary and helpful behaviours offered to the organization but are not required for core service delivery (Groth, 2005; Lee, Law, & Murphy, 2011; Mudambi & Schuff, 2010; Namasivayam, 2003; Schuckert, Liu, & Law, 2015; Zhang & Tran, 2010). Customers are motivated by a desire to support service providers by giving feedback and to push for improvements in service quality, as well as supporting existing and/or future consumers and their experiences (Yoo & Gretzel, 2008).

Past research shows that CCBs can provide an organization with a potential source of competitive advantage. For example, it can improve organizational performance through enhanced relationships among participants in the service encounter (Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007; Yi, Nataraajan, & Gong, 2011). Past studies have also identified a significant positive relationship between CCB and perceived service quality (Yi & Gong, 2006).

Despite insights from previous research, few studies have examined CCB in a hospitality context. Past studies tend to focus on one specific service encounter between a customer and employee. In hospitality and tourism experiences, an entire service experience typically consists of multiple encounters through different points in time (Bitner, Booms, & Mohr, 1994; Ekinci, Dawes, & Massey, 2008; Liljander & Strandvik, 1995; Weiermair, 2000). For example, a hotel guest may exhibit CCB by providing a front desk staff with a suggestion after check-in. The immediate touch-point of this service encounter is the responsiveness of the employee towards the guest's suggestion. Other potential touch-points during the entire service delivery may include the guest's experience in the lobby, the hotel restaurant(s) or other facilities before finally demonstrating gratitude for the guest's suggestion upon check-out (Paraskevas, 2001; Wu & Liang, 2009).

The present study seeks to address this research gap through a scenario-based experimental design in a hotel context to examine the effects of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards CCB on guest satisfaction, loyalty and perceived value. The authors focus on one type of CCB identified in extant literature which is the "policing of other customers" (Bettencourt, 1997; Bove et al., 2009; Gruen, Summers, & Acito, 2000). This phenomenon refers to a customer observing and reacting to another customer's behaviour to ensure that appropriate behaviours occur or inappropriate behaviours are discouraged. This CCB is highly relevant in a hospitality setting as well as in many tourism contexts such as group tours, events or attractions where the behaviour of one customer may directly impact the experience of another given the shared environment and the co-creation of experience (Jo Bitner, Faranda, Hubbert, & Zeithaml, 1997; Huang, 2008; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Verhoef et al., 2009).

The study examines both employee responsiveness and organization reassurance towards this CCB in two different service encounters. First, the study considers the responsiveness of the employee: acknowledgement of the concern (e.g., "thank you for your feedback") versus responsiveness (e.g., attempts to take immediate action to address concern). Second, the study examines the influence of a follow-up service reassurance by the hotel (e.g., presence or absence of gratitude) towards the guest's citizenship behaviour.

The authors begin by drawing upon concepts in psychology that should be considered in this context including attachment theory (Bowlby, 1973), self-congruity theory (Landon, 1974; Sirgy, 1982), and affect infusion model (Forgas, 1995). These concepts are relevant to the problematics of CCB; for example, attachment theory in consumer research suggests the strength of the relationship or bond between the consumer and the organization's brand can define a consumer's willingness to make sacrifices (i.e., CCB) for an

organization. It is also important to consider self-congruity theory as guests assume identities as both "consumers" and "partial employees"; in this regard, self-congruity theory suggests the match (or mismatch) between a brand and an individual's self-identity could influence their attitudes and choices. As per the CCB context of this study — "policing of other customers" — guests may develop a sense of obligation and/or entitlement to express concerns to hotel representatives when fellow guests demonstrate unacceptable behaviours. The voluntary nature of CCB — as well as the study's scenario of expressing concerns, or negative affect — lends itself to the affect infusion model, which provides insight into how positive or negative affect could influence an individual's cognitive judgement into the risks and gains within a particular situation. In this vein, another contribution of this study is considering how these concepts could complement social exchange theory to address opportunities for capturing CCB, enabling guests to help and contribute to success of the organization.

The study is also informed by social exchange theory (Homans, 1958), showing that employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards CCB moderates guest satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards the organization — here the hotel. Social exchange theory (SET) involves a system of reciprocity between parties which includes not only material goods but also symbolic value (e.g., approval and prestige). The central essence of SET is contingent upon receiving reactions from others, which over time, result in mutually and rewarding transactions and relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In this regard, this study contributes to the theoretical understanding and development of CCBs in the hospitality and tourism management literature by examining the moderating effects of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance on customer satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value. Methodologically, the use of scenario-based experimental designs is growing in the field of tourism and hospitality, but remained relatively limited in the context of CCB. This study represents an opportunity to contribute to this stream of research by providing a detailed discussion of the considerations and steps of a scenario-based experimental approach. The authors conclude with practical managerial implications for industry by discussing how tourism and hospitality practitioners can capitalize on CCB opportunities.

2. Literature review

2.1. Defining customer citizenship behaviour

Customer citizenship behaviour (CCB) comprises of extra-role behaviours that customers voluntarily engage in during or after the service delivery (Groth, 2005; Gruen, 1995). Other terms for CCB in the literature include customer voluntary performance and customer extra-role behaviours (Bailey, Gremler, & McCollough, 2001; Bettencourt, 1997; Rosenbaum & Massiah, 2007). Extra-role behaviours may involve a sacrifice on the customer's part (such as time and effort) which are outside the customer's required role for service delivery, but are provided as help, assistance or support to benefit an organization (Keh & Teo, 2001).

Bettencourt (1997) described CCB as consisting of three generic dimensions: loyalty, cooperation, and participation. Groth (2005) later identified three different aspects: making recommendations, providing feedback to the organization, and helping other customers based on citizenship behaviours in internet service deliveries. In an effort to consider a broader set of behavioural elements, Bove et al. (2009) developed eight conceptually distinct types of CCB from the organizational behaviour and marketing literature: (1) positive word of mouth, (2) displays of relationship affiliation, (3) participation in a firm's activities, (4) benevolent acts

of service facilitation, (5) flexibility, (6) feedback and suggestions for service improvement, (7) voice, and (8) policing of other customers.

Of particular relevance to this study is the CCB, "policing of other customers" (Bove et al., 2009, p. 699). Policing of other customers is considered an individual motive with the customer as the main beneficiary of the CCB (Bettencourt, 1997; Bove et al., 2009; Gruen, 1995). It is based on an individual's reaction to another customer's action so as to discourage opportunistic behaviours (Gruen et al., 2000). As Liu and Tsaur (2014) described, guests and tourists interact with service providers in a shared service environment over a prolonged period of time. The behaviour of one customer can directly and indirectly impact the experience of another customer given the nature of the shared environment and co-creation of experience.

2.2. Relevance of attachment theory, self-congruity theory, and affect infusion model to CCB

An in-depth analysis into the subject of CCB requires the consideration of a breadth of related concepts and theories in psychology which are relevant to the problematics of the subject matter. This study begins by considering three concepts which address the essence between customer-to-organizational brand, as well as employee-to-organization relationships. They are attachment theory, self-congruity theory, and affect infusion model.

Attachment theory suggests individuals are attached to, or committed to people whom they feel are supportive in order to protect against psychological or physical distress (Bowlby, 1980). The availability and responsiveness of supportive others can result in a sense of security for the individual (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). From a CCB perspective, understanding some of the factors that could influence the strength of a customer's commitment to an organization (i.e., the supportive other) can define his/her willingness to continue to make sacrifices (i.e., voluntary extra-role behaviours) for this customer-to-organization relationship. Here, the literature on attachment — and more specifically, brand attachment — could provide some insight.

Drawing on attachment theory, prior work in consumer behaviour suggests consumers can form relationships with brands they deem supportive just as they do with interpersonal relationships (Fournier, 1998). In this regard, organizational brand attachment describes the strength of the bond or commitment between a consumer and a brand (Whan Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010). There are two prominent assessments of brand attachment in the consumer behaviour literature: emotional attachment (Thomson, MacInnis, & Whan Park, 2005) and overall brand attachment (Whan Park et al., 2010). While the concepts both assess brand attachment, they complement each other by focusing on different components of attachment; for instance, emotional attachment examines feelings such as affection, passion and connection, suggesting attachments require multiple interactions with the brand to form (Dunn & Hoegg, 2014). A more recent study on overall brand attachment focuses on cognitive dimensions of brand accessibility and integration into a consumer's self-identity (Whan Park et al., 2010). Taken together, emotional and brand attachment are strong predictors of loyalty towards an organization (Thomson et al., 2005; Whan Park et al., 2010).

In light of these insights from attachment theory, it is relevant to extend this review into self-congruity theory as guests assume identities as both consumers and partial employees in CCB. It is also relevant to consider insights from the affect infusion model as emotions over multiple encounters in a typical hospitality and tourism experience (as per the scenario in this study) can influence a guest's judgement during a CCB situation (Ekinci et al., 2008).

Self-congruity refers to the match or mismatch between an individual's perception of him/herself and an organization's brand (Sirgy, 1982). Self-congruity theory suggests individuals have higher preferences for brands (i.e., in this case, hotel brands) which are similar to their self-image as the symbolic characteristics could reinforce their self-perceptions (Sirgy, 1982). Researchers in the field of tourism and hospitality have applied self-congruity theory in their studies. For example, Litvin and Goh (2002) investigated the influence of self-congruity on tourist satisfaction with the destination of Singapore. Their results suggest tourists with higher levels of self-congruity with the destination (i.e., those who felt the destination matched the way they saw themselves (i.e., actual self) with the way they would like to be seen (i.e., ideal self)) were more satisfied with their experience than those with lower levels of self-congruity. In another study, Beerli, Meneses, and Gil (2007) examined the role of self-congruity in destination choice. Their results showed a greater tendency for a tourist to visit the destination when there were higher levels of similarity between the image of the destination and the tourist's actual and ideal-self.

However, some researchers have suggested further studies are needed to investigate the relationship between destination brand, self-congruity, and tourist behaviour as contradictory results have been reported in hospitality and tourism research (Kastenholz, 2004). For example, in a study by Murphy, Moscardo, and Benckendorff (2007), it was found that a destination which had higher levels of self-congruity with tourists was actually lower on tourists' actual and intention to visit. In a study by Boksberger, Dolnicar, Laesser, and Randle (2011), the researchers sought to examine whether self-congruity theory holds in tourism by providing a detailed analysis of the measurement and operationalization of self-congruity through a dataset of actual trips taken by tourists over a single year. The use of actual behavioural data contrasts other studies in which assessments of destinations were based on intentions to visit in the future. The study concluded it was difficult to make recommendations on market segments that tourism destinations should target if they wish to communicate a congruity message. Nevertheless, despite differences in study findings, research into the relationship between brands, self-congruity, and consumer, guest and tourist behaviours are ongoing. Overall, in the context of this present study, self-congruity theory still serves as an important consideration which could be relevant to the problematics of CCB as consumers are both guests (i.e., actual self at a hotel) but temporarily assume the ideal role of an employee in which their voluntary behaviours could be driven by their level of self-congruity with the hotel brand.

The nature of CCB lends itself to the affect infusion model as emotions over multiple encounters in hospitality and tourism experiences could influence a guest's judgement during a CCB situation (Ekinci et al., 2008). Furthermore, given that CCB is in essence, voluntary behaviour, this study's scenario of expressing concerns, or negative affect, could influence an individual's cognitive judgement into the risks and gains within that situation.

According to the affect infusion model (AIM), emotions can guide information processing, influencing information that an individual attends to or ignores, or recalls and acts upon (Forgas, 1995). AIM identifies four distinct judgmental strategies characterized by the interaction of cognition and affect (Forgas, 1995): (1) direct access evaluation (i.e., requires little constructive processing); (2) motivated processing (i.e., involves predetermined and directed information search patterns); (3) heuristic processing (i.e., requires a degree of generative processing); and (4) substantive processing (i.e., involves open, constructive thinking to compute an outcome thereby expanding the scope of affect infusion). This "infusion" of emotions is a form of selective information processing which influences the considerations used in a decision-making

process, leading to an affective assessment of scenarios and potentially, a different decision than if the assessment occurred only under rationalization alone (Gaudine & Thorne, 2001). Affect infusion is particularly relevant when individuals make decisions under a situation of uncertainty and ambiguity (Huy, 2012).

Past research suggests individuals in negative affective states would likely take higher risks in order to obtain the higher potential associated gains which would allow them to repair their negative mood; in contrast, individuals in positive affective states would be less likely to take high risks due to their affectively enhanced sensitivity to losses (Isen, Nygren, & Ashby, 1988). For example, negotiators in a positive mood have been found more willing to make concessions in order to risk experiencing potential losses than negotiators who were not in a positive mood (Carnevale, 2008). Instead, negotiators in a negative mood would more likely shift their perceptions to losses and adopt risky strategies in order to experience a big personal win; however, this mindset could result in a loss of agreement, and both parties may lose the potential for future transactions together in the future (Johnson, Ilies, & Boles, 2012). This context is highly relevant to the CCB scenario of this study (i.e., policing of other customers) as guests in this negative valence state may develop a sense of obligation and take the risk to express their concerns to hotel representatives when other guests demonstrate unacceptable behaviours. However, the voluntary nature of CCB — and especially the situation of policing of other customers — could place the guest in the position of a negotiator in a negative mood (i.e., expressing the concern for the benefit of him/herself as well as other guests and even for the organization as a partial employee). In this case (or "negotiation" situation), if the guest is not reciprocated with a personal outcome he/she deems satisfactory for his/her CCB, the service provider (i.e., hotel) risks severing the relationship with this guest thereby putting future business (i.e., the guest's intention to revisit the hotel) in danger. By considering AIM in the perspective of a negotiation for a CCB that is likely to induce negative valence (i.e., policing of other customers), hotels are encouraged to "negotiate" (i.e., reciprocate in a positive affective manner) via multiple encounters during the service experience so guests are reassured that their CCBs have been duly considered by the organization. Here, social exchange theory can provide insight into this process.

2.3. Relevance of social exchange theory to employee responsive and organizational reassurance in the context of CCB

At a broad-level, social exchange theory has been a dominant theoretical framework used to explain organizational citizenship behaviour which has been adopted for CCB. The core tenant of this framework is the norm of reciprocity, which refers to the felt obligation to reciprocate when an individual perceives benefits from the actions of another party (Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958). Here, this study distinguishes between direct reciprocity and indirect reciprocity. The premise of direct reciprocity suggests individuals tailor their decision-making to enable gains through repeated interactions; that is, an important condition necessary for direct reciprocity is that interactions between pairs of agents such as individuals and organizations be sufficiently repeated (Axelrod & Hamilton, 1981). For direct reciprocity to hold, after an individual delivers a benefit, the recipient must forgo the immediate gain offered by "cheating" (i.e., not returning a comparable benefit) (Delton, Krasnow, Cosmides, & Tooby, 2011). The condition of repeat interaction is necessary because individuals would — from a rational perspective — incur the cost of reciprocating when they deem the net value with the recipient through foreseeable future exchanges (i.e., enabled by direct reciprocation from both parties) exceeds the benefit of cheating at the immediate moment (Delton

et al., 2011). If an individual considers the interaction as only one-time, then the rational strategy would be to cheat as there would be no foreseeable future exchanges.

In contrast to direct reciprocity, indirect reciprocity is not based on the repeated interaction between two agents, but rather, it is based on the repeated encounters in a group of "others", including agents, individuals, or organizations (Nowak, 2006). For instance, consider the following case of reputation as an example of motivation by self-interest for indirect reciprocity. When people's actions can be observed by others, reputation effects may take hold. Through formal and informal communication channels, reputation systems allow individuals to track the good and bad behaviours of others and to use this information to promote cooperation (Yoeli, Hoffman, Rand, & Nowak, 2013).

What constitutes as good behaviour or bad behaviour depends on social norms. For example, a common social norm typically prescribes a good reputation to individuals who have cooperated sufficiently with other parties in many previous interactions (Nowak & Sigmund, 1998). Other social norms could include defecting against those with bad reputations or free-riders (Ohtsuki & Iwasa, 2006). The observability of cooperation with social norms suggests the likelihood of reciprocity increases when reputation benefits are likely to accrue to individuals who actively participate and help others (Hippel & Krogh, 2003).

Even in the absence of personal acquaintance (e.g., distant relationships through electronic networks), past research has shown the expectation of personal (or organizational) reputations can motivate individuals (and organizations) to contribute knowledge and cooperate with others (Constant, Sproull, & Kiesler, 1996). Today, in hospitality and tourism management, while an encounter between a specific service employee and a customer, guest, or tourist could be one-time only, the reputation effects that stem from this experience could be long-lasting given the prevalence of online reputation management systems (Liu, Schuckert, & Law, 2015). Indeed, indirect reciprocity could also be motivated by other-oriented motivations to incentivize cooperation among parties. This example is just one particular case of indirect reciprocity in the form of reputation motivated by self-interest.

Studies in different fields consider reciprocity as a long-term, repeated interaction between the consumer and the service provider or organization. For example, in consumer-related research, studies have identified a direct relationship between reciprocity and commitment as well as customer loyalty (Bettencourt, 1997; Sierra & McQuitty, 2005). Other studies have shown that social exchanges between service providers and customers can enhance perceived satisfaction of the service encounter (Anaza & Zhao, 2013; Wang & Mattila, 2011). In the organizational behaviour literature, studies have applied insights from reciprocity to investigate employee organizational citizenship behaviour (e.g., Nadiri & Tanova, 2010; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Tang & Tang, 2012). In this view, this study considers the nature of direct reciprocity between guests and employees, as well as between guests and the hospitality organization (i.e., hotel) in the context of CCB. This study also assesses the influence of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance on guest perceptions using a measure of "star-rating", considered here as a relevant and practical measure of reputation in real-world hospitality management. While the following two sections focus on the nature of direct reciprocity between guests and employees and between guests and the hospitality organization, the long-term reputation effects stemming from these encounters are practical, suggesting the influence of direct and indirect reciprocity interact in hospitality and tourism settings.

2.3.1. Employee responsiveness to CCB

The importance of considering reciprocity as long-term, repeated interactions extends to the context of employee responsiveness to CCB. To re-emphasize, customers, guests, and tourists could often be considered partial employees in many service-oriented businesses when they participate in both the production and consumption of services, and provide feedback on the firm's activities through their direct involvement during the service experience (Bove et al., 2009; Liu & Tsaur, 2014; Vargo & Lusch, 2004). For example, as partial employees, customers may engage in citizenship behaviour in anticipation of reciprocal recognition or due to past benefits. Other motivations for CCB may also include previous work experience in the service industry, feelings of empathy for the service worker, and close customer-service worker relationship (Bove et al., 2009).

In addition to the role of customers, it is also important to consider how employees reciprocate when customers or guests provide valuable suggestions and comments. Research suggests CCB could depend on a consumer's perceived quality of the social exchange with employees during a service encounter (Bove et al., 2009). For example, if an employee considers the relationship with the guest as only one-time and reciprocates by cheating (i.e., not returning a benefit deemed comparable in the view of the guest), then the foreseeable future relationship between the guest and the employee, as well as between the guest and the hotel, would likely be strained. In this regard, the quality of the employee-customer relationship is crucial in the context of CCB in the long-term.

The nature in which an employee reciprocates to CCB during a service encounter could be impacted by the employee's customer orientation. Customer orientation refers to the importance an employee places on meeting customer needs (Liao & Subramony, 2008; Susskind, Kacmar, & Borchgrevink, 2003). The success of a customer's experience with an organization depends heavily on an employee's behaviour to match or exceed a customer's expectations. Research has shown customer orientation impacts sales performance (Brown, Mowen, Donavan, & Licata, 2002), perceptions of service quality (Brady & Cronin, 2001), and customer satisfaction (Stock & Hoyer, 2005).

For instance, employees who reciprocate to CCB by mindlessly responding within prescribed behavioural requirements set by their organization are less likely to have an impact on customers (e.g., chanting "thank you very much" because it is required rather than actually mean it when they receive suggestions). Employees may also fail to recognize the important cues from CCBs and miss opportunities to help customers above and beyond pre-specified procedures (Chebat & Kollias, 2000). Indeed, research has also shown that customers can detect employees who have little genuine interest in creating a positive service experience for customers (Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul, & Gremler, 2006).

From a practical perspective, it is unlikely that trained hotel employees would cheat by completely ignoring guests when they provide suggestions and comments. Well-traveled guests have an expectation that hotel staff would reciprocate by acknowledge their suggestions with gratitude at the very least. In this consideration, the real-world scenario in this study is not the presence or absence of employee responsiveness when hotel staff addresses CCB. Instead, a more realistic experimental manipulation is how an employee reciprocates when a guest demonstrates CCB; that is, by responding with a bare minimum, "thank you" (i.e., acknowledgement) versus a genuine attempt to go above-and-beyond to take immediate action (i.e., responsiveness) to address a guest's suggestion. This study posits that guests would assess lower levels of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards a hotel when an employee responds to CCB with basic acknowledgement (e.g., "thank you for your feedback") than when employees demonstrate responsiveness (e.g., attempts to take immediate action to address concern).

2.3.2. Organizational reassurance to CCB

Drawing from the organizational behaviour literature, social exchange has been used to explain why employees express loyalty to their organization and why they reciprocate with extra-role behaviours (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Ma & Qu, 2011). Research has shown that employees (or partial employees in the case of customers) can feel a sense of obligation to reciprocate with extra-role behaviours that are neither culturally required, formally rewarded or contractually enforceable by the organization when they value a long-term, repeated and high-quality exchange relationship with an organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). In the context of CCB, a crucial step in sustaining long-term customer-organization relationship is to reciprocate with high-value service quality beyond the employee-level by encompassing service performance reflected in all activities taken by managers and the organization (Prayag, 2009).

To measure customer perceptions of service quality, the service quality (SERVQUAL) model advanced by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) has been widely adopted in hospitality and tourism research despite criticisms of the applicability of the instrument due to validity, length and procedural concerns (Hwang, Lee, & Chen, 2005; Tribe & Snaith, 1998; Wan & Cheng, 2011). Of particular relevance to this study is the importance of service reassurance as one of the five dimensions of service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985). Service reassurance refers to efforts by employees and the organization to remove customer doubts during a service encounter. In the perspective of CCB, it represents acknowledgement of opinions and suggestions to reassure customers that feedback is seriously considered by the organization.

At the organizational level, the use of service scripts is a common method for reciprocating service reassurance to customers (Testa & Sipe, 2012). For example, hotels may provide welcome letters, cards or other amenities to guests in their rooms upon check-in and/or giveaways upon check-out. Service scripts are designed by the organization and formally used to guide and control the service delivery (Victorino, Verma, Boner, & Wardell, 2012). Service scripts have been conceptualized in the services marketing literature as an organizational control activity designed to increase the probability of desired outcomes (Jaworski & MacInnis, 1989). As such, many organizations implement scripts as a strategy for ensuring consistency during service delivery.

Past research has found that although there may be concerns associated with the perceived authenticity of organizational service scripts, the use of service scripts for individual recognition is highly valued by consumers (Surprenant & Solomon, 1987). For instance, studies have shown customers are capable of detecting the presence and absence of scripts, as well as the subtleties of scripts during a service experience (Johnston, 1999; Victorino et al., 2012). In this regard, from a practical perspective, an organization could demonstrate to consumers that they are treated individually instead of as "just another customer" by utilizing even a simple script to demonstrate reciprocity for their citizenship behaviour.

In the context of using service scripts for service reassurance at the organizational level, a guest who appreciates this approach of demonstrating reciprocity towards their CCB may perceive a high net value of exchange with the hotel. In other words, a guest may value this form of service reassurance and consider it as worthwhile for the cost of their extra efforts and behaviours required to provide suggestions. In this regard, this study posits that the use of

organizational service scripts to express gratitude (e.g., a thank you note by the hotel upon check-out) towards CCB behaviour will result in higher ratings of perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty towards the hotel.

2.4. Measuring guest satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value

A wealth of literature in hospitality and tourism has focused on the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty behaviours (e.g., Baker & Crompton, 2000; Heung & Gu, 2012; Jani & Han, 2015; Line & Runyan, 2012; Wu & Li, 2014). In recent years, researchers have included the notion of perceived value on both future behavioural intentions and behaviours, and studies have assessed perceived value as a distinct measure from satisfaction (Ha & Jang, 2010; Oh, 1999). Perceived value refers to a guest's overall appraisal of the net worth of a service based on the individual assessment of benefits and costs (Zeithaml, 1988). In contrast, satisfaction pertains to the overall pleasure or contentment from the experience to fulfill a guest's desires, expectations, and needs (Chen & Tsai, 2007). In this vein, this study continues this line of work in the literature by measuring guest satisfaction (Chen & Tsai, 2007), loyalty (Baloglu, 2002; Li, Browne, & Chau, 2006), and perceived value (Frías-Jamilena, Del Barrio-García, & López-Moreno, 2013) towards a hotel after a CCB scenario.

In this present study, participants were also asked to judge the conventional star-rating of the hotel in the scenario for several reasons. First, in addition to a more researched-oriented scale to assess perceived value (Frías-Jamilena et al., 2013), another highly relevant measure of reputation and perceived value for guests in the real-world is the star-rating of a hotel. A star-based ranking system is the most common method used to categorize hotels, touring clubs or other organizations. It provides customers with a frame of reference for both the functional quality of the premise as well as the service level they can expect from staff. There are no global standards in terms of hotel rating systems; they are subject to different regulations on government (e.g. tourism organizations), industry (e.g. hotel associations) or other private levels (e.g. online travel agents) where accommodation providers have been conventionally categorized and broken down into classes, grades or groups based on their common hardware and service characteristics (UNWTO & IHRA, 2004).

Second, guest perception of star-ratings could have interesting managerial implications for hospitality organizations as they are used within hotel groups and chains for market positioning and/or product differentiation (Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007). Stars as a standardized quality indicator for hotels were first used by the Michelin Guide in the 1920s based on a three-star level. A five-star level was later formalized and introduced by Hotelleriesuisse, the Swiss Hotel Association in the 1970s. In general, higher star-rated hotels are patronized for exceptional service, and lower star-categorized hotels stand not for their service quality but for their low cost (Hoque, 2013). Nevertheless, hotels and other accommodation providers can also be rated by using suns, crowns, diamonds, or flowers (Narangajavana & Hu, 2008). Rating systems can rate facilities and service quality differently, using different dimensions and scales (Su & Sun, 2007).

Finally, the star-based ranking system is one of the most important factors in customers' minds when it comes to selecting one hotel over the other; thus, it is imperative for managers to understand how guests perceive star-ratings and find ways to improve their perceptions as ratings can influence booking decisions, room sales and revenues (Guillet & Law, 2010; Law & Hsu, 2006; Ye, Law, Gu, & Chen, 2011). Today, the star-rating system maintains high priority in many e-commerce platforms as a critical classifier amid the introduction of online travel agents (OTAs) and social media where customers are able to give their own rankings for hotels (Guillet & Law, 2010). For example, leading OTAs and online travel communities such as booking.com, Ctrip, Expedia, Hotels.com, HRS, or Tripadvisor have star-rating systems, reflecting service quality from customers' perspectives (Guillet & Law, 2010; O'Connor & Piccoli, 2003; Schuckert et al. 2015).

3. Data and methods

3.1. Study context

The objective of this study is to examine the moderating roles of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards customer citizenship behaviour on building guest satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value. The study adopted a 2 (employee responsiveness: acknowledgement vs. responsiveness) × 2 (organizational reassurance: presence vs. absence) between-subjects, scenario-based experimental design. The use of scenario-based experimental designs is growing in the field of tourism and hospitality, but remains relatively limited in the context of CCB. This study represents an opportunity to contribute to this stream of research by providing a detailed discussion of the considerations and steps of a scenario-based experimental approach. Fig. 1 illustrates the scenario-based experimental procedures in this study.

At the beginning of the study, participants were directed to read a situation, which prompted them to imagine they were staying at a hotel. This prompt established the setting for the story, which is a familiar backdrop where subsequent interactions between the actor (e.g., hotel employee) and the participant took place. This setting was consistent across all conditions.

The second part of the scenario provided a situation within the setting. The goal of this prompt was to create a situation that motivated reactions from participants. The prompt read: "You noticed disruptive behaviour from another hotel guest that may affect the experience for other people." This prompt was consistent across all conditions. The context behind "disruptive behaviour" was purposely left undefined. The study allowed participants to construe their notion of "disruptive behaviour" as research has shown that consumers perceive and tolerate disruptive and questionable behaviours very differently (Yi & Gong, 2006). Introducing a specific example of a disruptive behaviour would induce experimenter bias as the selected behaviour would depend on the subjectivity of the researchers. Allowing participants to interpret from their experiences within the setting of the scenario could be more rich, vivid, and engaging for them.

The third part of the scenario represented the plan to convert participant attention into behaviour. More specifically, the plan directed participant concentration towards exercising one form of customer citizenship behaviour: the policing of other customers, defined as reaction to other customers' inappropriate behaviours to ensure these behaviours are discouraged. This prompt was also consistent across all conditions. It read: "You decided to share your concerns with a staff member at the front desk."

The next part of the design allowed participants to evaluate the response of the actor in the scenario. The actor in this situation was the hotel employee and the prompt described the reaction of the employee towards the CCB. Participants were randomly directed to one of two manipulations of employee responsiveness. In the first condition (i.e., acknowledgement), the prompt read: "The staff member acknowledges your concern." In the second condition (i.e., responsiveness), the prompt read: "The staff member takes immediate action to address your concern." The scenario deliberately excluded the outcome of the employee's action towards the disruptive behaviour. Participants were not told what happened next. This was an attempt to safeguard against conflict resolution
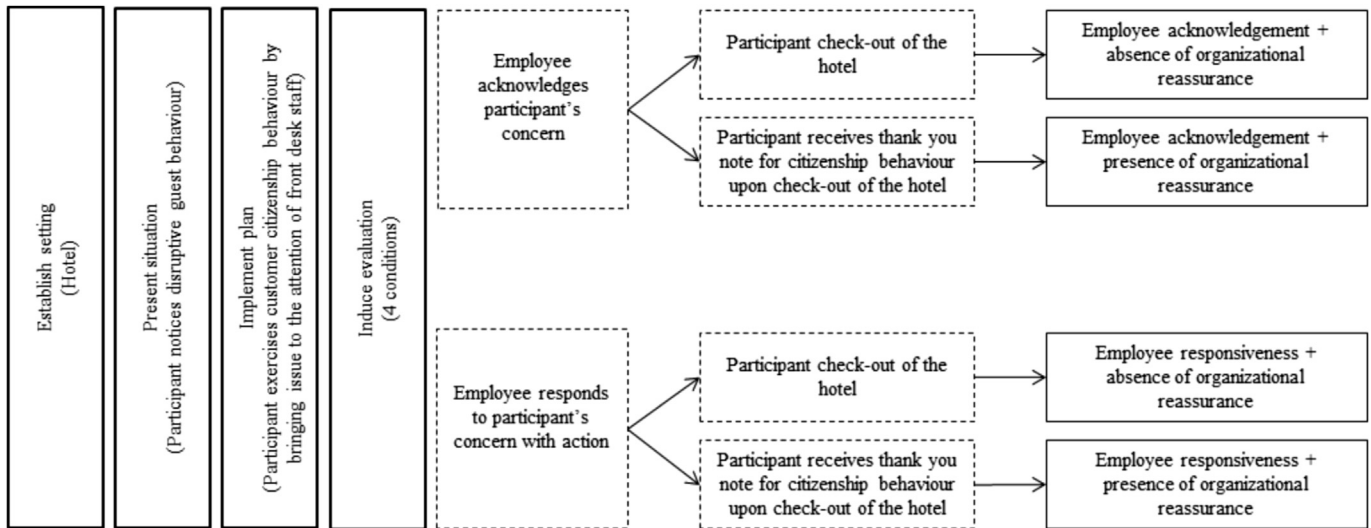
Fig. 1. Scenario-based experimental procedure.

becoming a confounding factor in the study.

Finally, in the last part of the scenario, the actor was the organization (e.g., hotel management) rather than the employee. The prompt allowed participants to evaluate the hotel's response towards their CCB and participants were randomly assigned to one of two manipulations: the absence or presence of organizational reassurance. In the first condition (i.e., absence), the prompt read: *"Several days later, you check-out of the hotel."* In the second condition (i.e., presence), the prompt read: *"Several days later, when you check-out of the hotel, you receive a thank you note from the hotel for bringing the situation to their attention."*

3.2. Justification of the methodology

There are justifications for the use of this methodology in the study. First, a randomized experimental approach with manipulations would be useful to test assumptions and contribute to findings about causal relationships among constructs. For example, Rodger, Taplin, and Moore (2015) tested the causal relationships between service quality, visitor satisfaction and loyalty using a randomized 2 × 2 experimental design in the context of a remote national park. Two service quality attributes (e.g., ranger presence and provision of information) were manipulated. Rodger et al. (2015) found that manipulating these two attributes significantly changed perceptions of service quality but did not have a statistically significant effect on visitor satisfaction and loyalty. In another experiment, Ert and Fleischer (2014) examined whether a hotel's position on an online list with other relevant hotels affects its likelihood of being selected. They manipulated the order of ten hotels on the list and found that hotels listed at the top and bottom were more likely to be chosen than those listed in the middle. They suggested that even trivial web design choices, such as the choice of presenting data in lists, might affect the behaviour of prospective customers.

Second, the use of scenario-based experimental designs is gaining attention in tourism and hospitality research. A scenario-based design is suitable for this study for several reasons. Scenarios can induce a participant's vivid interpretation of a problem situation in a real-time setting. They allow participants to make decisions that closely reflect their actual intentions and reactions in realistic situations (Elangovan, Auer-Rizzi, & Szabo, 2007). The context maintains flexibility as scenarios are based on simple language understood by participants. Scenario-based designs are participant-centered and allow participants to reflect on alternatives in the real-world (Rosson & Carroll, 2001).

Third, more specifically, scenario-based experimental designs have made recent strides in the study of customer citizenship behaviour. For example, in a study by Yi, Gong, and Lee (2013) in a retail context, the authors investigated the contagion effects of CCB; that is, whether the citizenship behaviour of one group of customers can influence the citizenship behaviours of another group of customers. Using a scenario-based experimental design, participants in the study read a scenario in which they imagined they were shopping for clothes in a department store and interacted with other customers to get product-related information. Yi et al. (2013) found that when customers saw other customers engaging in citizenship behaviour, they reciprocated with similar behaviours toward the firm and customers. Overall, this study contributes to this stream of research in the context of CCBs within the field.

3.3. Measures and data collection

The dependent variables in this study are participant ratings of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards a hotel. At the end of each scenario, participants answered a survey questionnaire to indicate their agreement for ten items on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Somewhat disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 5 = Somewhat agree; 6 = Agree; 7 = Strongly agree). A 7-point Likert-type scale has been used by previous studies on satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value (e.g., Al-Sabbahy, Ekinci, & Riley, 2004; Chi & Qu, 2008; Nam, Ekinci, & Whyatt, 2011). There were four satisfaction items (e.g., *"This hotel does a satisfactory job of fulfilling my needs"*; Chen & Tsai, 2007), four loyalty items (e.g., *"I will tell people positive things about this hotel"*; Baloglu, 2002; Li et al., 2006), and two perceived value items (e.g., *"Overall, the value of the experience is adequate"* and *"The experience has satisfied my needs and wants."*; Frías-Jamilena et al., 2013). Participants were also asked to judge the conventional star-rating of the hotel in the scenario (1 star as low to 5 stars as high) as well as to provide demographic data.

Prior to the actual experiment, three manipulation checks were conducted with a separate group of participants. Participants indicated their agreement for each manipulation check on a seven-point scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree). The first

check was a situational assessment to ensure that the scenario produced participant perceptions of citizenship behaviour across conditions. This was assessed using two-items: "*I gave constructive suggestions to the hotel to improve its service*" and "*I gave a useful idea to improve service for the hotel.*"

The second manipulation check (i.e., for employee responsiveness) examined whether participants felt the hotel was more responsive with their CCB compared to participants in the simple acknowledgement condition. This was assessed using two-items: "*The hotel took action to address my concern*" and "*The hotel was responsive with my suggestion.*"

The third manipulation check (i.e., for organizational reassurance) determined whether participants who were offered a "thank you note" felt more reassured by the hotel that their CCB was taken seriously compared to participants who simply checked-out of the hotel. This was assessed using two-items: "*The hotel reassured me that my concern was taken seriously*" and "*I feel reassured that the hotel considered my concern.*"

A total of 239 participants were randomly assigned to each of the four conditions (46 males, 183 females, and 10 cases where gender was not disclosed). Convenience sampling of students was employed at a large hospitality and tourism school at an international destination. Several implications of the use of student samples are that students may have less experience as employees, less familiarity with the industry and its practices, and potentially less experience as hotel customers. In this study, however, a majority of participants (72.6%) had previous work experience in the tourism and hospitality industry, and approximately two-thirds of participants (66.4%) had traveled at least once in the last 12 months while 25.7% had traveled at least 3—4 times in the same period. In this regard, although a limitation of this study is the use of students, by recruiting students who have work experience in the industry as well as recent travel experience, the experimental conditions were arguably subjected to careful examinations as these students are trained to be critical of what constitutes satisfactory hotel service experiences. Nevertheless, a sample generated from within a hospitality and tourism school may not be representative of most hotel customers.

4. Results

The results of the pre-study manipulation checks indicated the prompts were effective. The first manipulation check ($\alpha = 0.93$) indicated an above average mean score of 5.57 across all four conditions with no significant differences between groups. The above average mean score suggests the scenario successfully communicated CCB across all groups. The insignificant difference between conditions rules out degree of CCB as a potential confounding factor in the study; that is, no group considered itself as providing significantly higher levels of citizenship behaviour than any other group.

In the second manipulation check ($\alpha = 0.84$) for employee responsiveness, participants in the "responsive" condition felt the employee was significantly more engaged with their suggestion ($M = 5.86$; $SD = 0.72$) compared to participants who were in the simple acknowledgement condition ($M = 4.44$; $SD = 0.83$), t (28) = 4.96; $p < 0.001$.

There was also a significant difference between groups in the third manipulation check ($\alpha = 0.94$) for organizational reassurance. Participants who were provided with a "thank you" note upon check-out as a gratitude for their suggestion provided a higher rating for organizational reassurance ($M = 5.89$; $SD = 0.72$) compared to participants in the absence condition ($M = 4.19$; $SD = 0.83$), t (28) = 5.19; $p < 0.001$.

The mean scores for each condition are presented in Table 1. Findings in Table 2 suggest acceptable levels of reliability for measurements of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value. While

the assumptions of independence of random samples (i.e., participants randomly assigned to each condition with no participant being in more than one group) and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices were supported (e.g., Levene's test provides further support per dependent variable), the assumption of normality in the observations was not met ($p > 0.05$). Hence, nonparametric approaches were conducted with the Kruskal-Walls test and the Mann-Whitney U test as follow-up tests.

A Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to assess differences among the four experimental conditions as per Fig. 1 (i.e., (1) employee acknowledgement but absence of organizational reassurance; (2) employee acknowledgement with presence of organizational reassurance; (3) employee responsiveness but absence of organizational reassurance; (4) employee responsiveness with presence of organizational reassurance) on median evaluations of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards the hotel. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test indicated significant differences in the medians across these conditions for satisfaction, $\chi2$ (3, N = 239) = 16.438, $p = 0.001$; loyalty, $\chi2$ (3, N = 239) = 19.653, $p < 0.001$; and perceived value, $\chi2$ (3, N = 239) = 20.520, $p < 0.001$. Since the results were significant, pairwise comparison among the four conditions were conducted using the Mann-Whitney U test with Bonferroni correction to control for Type 1 error.

The follow-up tests indicated significant differences in (1) employee main comparison with the absence of organizational reassurance; (2) organizational reassurance main comparison in the employee acknowledgement condition; and (3) employee and organizational reassurance cross-comparison (see Table 3). More specifically, participants indicated higher scores in satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value (see Table 1) towards the hotel when employees were responsive — rather than simply acknowledge — their CCB despite the absence of organizational reassurance towards their CCB at the subsequent service encounter (i.e., checkout). Furthermore, participants also rated these dependent variables higher when they were exposed to organizational reassurance in the subsequent service encounter even though the employee only acknowledged their CCB at the onset. Finally, and not surprisingly, participants indicated significantly higher ratings in satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards the hotel when they perceived employees as responsive to their CCB and were reassured by the organization that their CCB was valued during the check-out stage of the service experience.

Table 4 shows the percentage of responses towards CCB on hotel star-ratings. One and two-star ratings represented less than 5% of responses. For a 5-star rating, no significant differences were found across conditions. Indeed, a 5-star rating requires luxury with regards to both the physical facility and service quality (Lau, Akbar, & Fie, 2005; Mohsin & Lockyer, 2010; Wilkins, Merrilees, & Herington, 2007; Ye, Li, Wang, & Law, 2014).

The results of this study are particularly interesting when comparing the findings of 3 and 4-star ratings. The ratings significantly improved from 3-star to 4-star in the presence of organizational reassurance (χ^2 (1, N = 176) = 5.42, $p = 0.02$, Cramer's V = 0.19). This result indicates — based on odds ratio — guests were 2.36 times more likely to rate the hotel as a 4-star than a 3-star hotel if they received organizational reassurance from the hotel.

5. Discussion

This study examines the moderating effects of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards CCB on guest satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value. Using a scenario-based experimental design, the findings demonstrate that necessary actions should be taken when guests express concerns about the behaviour of other customers. When participants perceived

Table 1
Mean scores for satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value across four experimental conditions.

Employee responsiveness	Organizational reassurance	Satisfaction		Loyalty		Perceived value	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Acknowledgement	Absence	4.35	1.00	4.01	0.93	4.28	0.90
	Presence	4.91	0.85	4.61	0.82	4.73	0.90
Responsiveness	Absence	4.86	1.04	4.47	0.98	4.78	1.06
	Presence	5.23	0.97	4.84	0.87	5.01	0.95

Table 2
Assumptions in the observations.

	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Perceived value
Cronbach's α	0.93	0.86	0.89
Test of normality (Shapiro-Wilk)	$p < 0.001$	$p = 0.007$	$p < 0.001$
Box's test of equality of covariance matrices	Box's M = 14.731 $F = 0.799$ $p = 0.703$		
Levene's test	$F(3, 235) = 0.504$ $p = 0.68$	$F(3, 235) = 0.097$ $p = 0.961$	$F(3, 235) = 0.240$ $p = 0.869$

Table 3
Pairwise comparison test results.

Employee	Organizational reassurance	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Perceived value
Employee main comparison				
Acknowledgement versus responsiveness	Absence	*1173.0* $p = 0.005^*$	*1153.0* $p = 0.003^*$	*1087.0* $p = 0.001^*$
Acknowledgement versus responsiveness	Presence	*1454.0* $p = 0.027^{**}$	1580.5 $p = 0.118$	*1567.0* $p = 0.097$
Organizational reassurance main comparison				
Acknowledgement	Absence versus presence	*1312.5* $p = 0.002^*$	*1222.5* $p < 0.001^*$	*1329.5* $p = 0.003^*$
Responsiveness	Absence versus presence	1270.5 $p = 0.032^{**}$	1304.0 $p = 0.051$	1462.5 $p = 0.281$
Employee and organizational reassurance cross-comparison				
Acknowledgement and absence versus Responsiveness and presence		*908.0* $p < 0.001^*$	*909.5* $p < 0.001^*$	*1010.50* $p < 0.001^*$
Acknowledgement and presence versus Action and absence		*1768.0* $p = 0.899$	*1715.5* $p = 0.686$	*1682.5* $p = 0.553$

Note: italics represent *Mann-Whitney U* results; single asterisk indicates significant results; double asterisks indicate non-significance at $p < 0.008$, which is the corrected p-value using the Bonferroni approach with six follow-up, pairwise comparisons to control for Type I error (i.e., these results are significant at $p < 0.05$ but not $p < 0.008$). Parametric tests typically require an adequate sample size of at least 5—10 observations per group if the data are normally distributed; in contrast, nonparametric tests are typically less powerful than parametric tests, requiring a larger sample size to have the same power to find differences between groups (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). In this study, a total of 239 participants were randomly assigned to each of the four conditions. This was an adequate sample size for the *Mann-Whitney U* test to identify significant differences in the pairwise comparisons.

actions were taken, and when the hotel expressed gratitude towards their CCB, they provided higher ratings of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards the organization. As informed by social exchange theory, customers who demonstrate CCB expect responses either from the service employee or the hospitality organization as a means of confirming their contribution to the organization's service delivery. A hospitality organization's

acknowledgement of CCB is necessary to retain the relationship with the customer as a way of reciprocal reinforcement (Anaza & Zhao, 2013; Sierra & McQuitty, 2005).

It is also important, however, to note interesting insights from the three sets of non-significant results. First, there was no significant difference between participant scores across all dependent variables in the employee acknowledgement versus employee responsiveness conditions when organizational reassurance was presented afterwards. The scores across the dependent variables were highest in the presence of organizational reassurance, suggesting there is an opportunity for hotels to reassure guests upon checkout although employees may not have been responsive to their CCB at the start. Second, there was no significant difference between participant scores across all dependent variables in the absence versus presence of organizational reassurance when employees were responsive at the onset. This suggests when employees are responsive, organizational reassurance towards guests' CCB could be viewed as complementary, but not a necessarily a co-

Table 4
Employee and organizational reassurance towards CCB on hotel star-rating.

		Star-rating (% of response[a])				
		1	2	3	4	5
Employee	Acknowledgement	1.7	0.8	24.2	57.5	15.8
	Responsiveness	1.8	0.9	17.4	54.1	25.7
Organizational reassurance	Absence	2.7	0.9	27.3	48.2	20.9
	Presence	0.8	0.8	15.1	63.0	20.2

[a] Values may not total to 100% of sample due to rounding.

requisite, for inducing positive evaluations of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards the hotel.

The study also shows the practical effects of the presence of organizational reassurance for inducing favorable guest perceptions. The findings indicate guests were twice as likely to rate a hotel as a 4-star than a 3-star hotel if they received organizational reassurance from the hotel for their CCB. Hospitality organizations at the three star-level should take advantage of this effect as past research related to online feedback indicates high-class hotels do not perform better in terms of response efficiency, and there is no significant difference in response rate between different classes of hotels (Liu et al., 2015).

5.1. Theoretical implications

A significant contribution of this study is its investigation into a relatively understudied area in hospitality service research by focusing on the "policing of other customer" aspect of CCB. In the "policing of other customer" context, guests voluntarily participate in safeguarding organizational service quality when they identify areas of a service experience that could be impacted by the opportunistic behaviours of fellow guests. A fellow guest's opportunistic behaviour may directly influence an individual's experience during the service delivery process. This is especially critical when the service occurs in a shared environment such as the hotel lobby or in common areas including restaurants, pools, or other facilities. In this regard, all customers participating in the vicinity are co-creators of a shared, service experience (Liu & Tsaur, 2014).

This study also adds to the field's understanding of CCB from a broader perspective by integrating insights from concepts in psychology including attachment theory, self-congruity theory, and affect infusion model which are relevant to the problematics of CCB. Furthermore, this study contributes to the literature by reviewing how these concepts could complement social exchange theory to address opportunities for capturing CCB, enabling guests to help and contribute to success of the organization. For instance, as informed by attachment theory, the strength of the relationship or bond between the consumer and the organization's brand can define a consumer's willingness to make sacrifices (i.e., CCB) for an organization. Self-congruity theory suggests guests assume identities as both consumers and partial employees, which could influence their attitudes and choices. The affect infusion model provides insight into how positive or negative affect could influence an individual's cognitive judgement into the risks and gains within a particular situation. Finally, social exchange theory and the concept of direct reciprocity suggest one's felt obligation to reciprocate when he/she perceives benefits from the actions of another party. Taken together, this study demonstrates how these concepts can be integrated to inform research in the context of CCB within the tourism and hospitality literature.

Additionally, this study contributes to the literature in the field by identifying and demonstrating employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance as key moderators of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards a hotel in a CCB scenario. The study also provides initial evidence for the conditions under which there is still an opportunity for a hotel to recover guests' satisfaction, loyalty and perceived value if it provides subsequent organizational reassurance towards CCB even if employees were not responsive at the onset. Finally, there was no significant difference in ratings between participants in the employee acknowledgement with the presence of organizational reassurance condition than those in the employee responsiveness but absence of organizational reassurance condition. This suggests it is crucial for guests to perceive their CCB is valued during at least one encounter in a service experience, whether they are valued during an initial contact with a responsive employee, or reassured by the organization at the end of a service experience.

5.2. Managerial implications

This study provides several practical implications to hospitality and tourism organizations. Hospitality organization can significantly influence overall guest satisfaction by responding to guest CCB driven requests and/or concerns relating to the behaviour of other guests. Hospitality organizations are encouraged to reciprocate with gratitude in creative ways consistent with their organizational brand. In this regard, future research could identify examples of best practices or specific approaches for employees and organizations to demonstrate reciprocity towards CCB. Indeed, there are only missed opportunities to demonstrate reciprocity, which puts the responsibility across the full organization from top-to-bottom, and vice versa. The findings suggest the importance of sound guest service management and communication protocols for employees to take action to address CCB. In the labour-intensive hospitality industry, employees could be understood as a particularly important part of the product and the core of the service experience (Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Hospitality staff is a key factor to deliver competitive advantage in terms of quality, building guest loyalty, and maintaining a good host-guest relationships (Onsøyen, Mykletun, & Steiro, 2009). Highly motivated and engaged employees are critical to the success of service organizations and enterprises (Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2011). Research in service management has shown the relationship between employee performance and management support with customers' perceived quality towards an organization (Chen, Yen, & Tsai, 2014).

In addition to intrinsic psychological factors that may impact employee attitudes and behaviours, external factors such as work conflicts, work-life balance, career planning, leadership styles at the organization, and corporate culture could also influence employee behaviour, feeling and performance (Kara, Uysal, Sirgy, & Lee, 2013; Karatepe, Beirami, Bouzari, & Safavi, 2014; Yang & Lau, 2015). Other human resource-related issues in hospitality could include suboptimal work environments, non-fitting personal settings, and inadequate leadership, leading to employee burn-out (Pienaar & Willemse, 2008; Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010). Hence, an employee's emotions and mental awareness of the external situation can influence their responsiveness to CCB, impacting the overall service climate and subsequent customer satisfaction (Karatepe, 2014; Paek, Schuckert, Kim, & Lee, 2015; Salanova, Agut, & Peiró, 2005).

In this regard, organizations should ensure adequate training for employees so they are able to identify and respond to CCB raised by guests. For example, employee training could involve communication with guests, documentation of incident reports and guest feedback. At the organizational-level, employee training and communication protocols could include reporting CCB to departmental guest relationship management. With a bottom-up mechanism in place, related departments and management can follow-up with guests with written acknowledgements, expressing appreciation for their involvement with the hotel.

6. Conclusion

This study examines the moderating effects of employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards CCB on guest satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards a hotel. Using a scenario-based experimental design, the findings demonstrate when participants perceived actions were taken, and when the hotel expressed gratitude towards their CCB, they provided higher ratings of satisfaction, loyalty, and perceived value towards the organization. Overall, this study adds to the field's

understanding of CCB from a broader perspective, integrating insights from attachment theory, self-congruity theory, and affect infusion model which are relevant to the problematics of CCB. Furthermore, as informed by social exchange theory, a hospitality organization's acknowledgement of CCB is necessary to retain the relationship with the customer as a way of reciprocal reinforcement (Anaza & Zhao, 2013; Sierra & McQuitty, 2005).

Several limitations are associated with this study. First, this study presented organizational reassurance expressed through service scripts. This represents an important limitation of this study as hotels can express organizational reassurance through other strategies, including the use of rewards such as gift certificates. Indeed, there could be more innovative ways to respond to CCB during other service encounters throughout the entire experience. Second, this study only considered responses to CCB in a traditional, "offline" format; in reality, hospitality organizations are also using online channels to interact with guests (e.g., email, messaging), allowing them to potentially communicate online responses to CCB behaviours. A third limitation of this study is the lack of consideration of consumer-related elements that are potentially relevant in a CCB context. These could include the socio-economic background, culture, personality, and membership affiliation of guests with the hospitality organization. Fourth, there are other situational factors that were not considered in this study; for example, the purpose of a guest's visit and a guest's past experience with the services offered by the hotel. These factors could influence hotel evaluations.

There are also methodological limitations in this study. For example, the use of students as participants is a fifth limitation for which future work could seek to replicate these findings using a different sample. Sixth, the use of self-reports in the form of survey questionnaire could expose the findings to respondent bias as participant response could be influenced by political correctness. Respondent bias could limit the generalizability of the results and caution must be taken when interpreting the findings. Seventh, this study examined CCB in a scenario-based experimental design, which could also limit the generalizability of the findings. To address this limitation, future work could seek to collect data through field cases, adding real-life exposures and interpretations into CCB research. Finally, this study did not carry out repeated interactions, which is an important consideration in direct reciprocity. Future research could examine the influence of repeated interactions between pairs of agents, such as a guest and a service employee, or a guest and a hotel brand.

Future research could also extend this work and investigate the effects of online organizational reassurance towards CCB as hotels may maintain contact with guests through various online approaches including email, text messaging, chats, and blogs. Past research has shown responding to negative customer feedback can significantly improve the reputation of a hotel (Liu et al., 2015). Future research could investigate the effectiveness of organizational reassurance towards CCB on guest ratings via online approaches. Industry can learn from the adoption of online response tools through the management of hotel reviews, which have become more sophisticated, and coordinated (Liu et al., 2015).

Additionally, future research could examine the effects of a non-response or failed response to CCB requests. For instance, the authors posit that a failed response to guest CCB at a five-star hotel may elicit more negative outcomes, impacting guest satisfaction, loyalty and perceived value, as guests may have heightened expectations at this level compared to three and four-star settings. In this sense, in contrast to the positive effects of responding to CCB for a three-star hotel, a failed response could suggest a reversed and detrimental effect for five-star organizations. Future research could consider employee responsiveness and organizational reassurance towards CCB in the context of other hotel-rated factors such as the type of hospitality organization (e.g., hotels, inns).

Finally, future research could explore citizenship behaviours in an online environment. For example, how do guests exhibit CCBs in various travel communities and travel rating portals? Future studies could methodically categorize the different types of CCBs in electronic word-of-mouth, and benchmark management responses to these posts and comments. The analysis of blogs and rating sites has the advantage of historical data storage and hundreds of thousands of posts of almost every accommodation category.

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