

CUSTOMER SERVICE RECOVERY IN HOSPITALITY: TOWARD AN
UNDERSTANDING OF THE ROLE OF THE SERVICE PROVIDER UTILIZING
RAWL'S JUSTICE THEORY

A Dissertation

by

STEVEN JOSEPH MIGACZ

Submitted to the Office of Graduate and Professional Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Chair of Committee,	James F. Petrick
Committee Members,	Gerard Kyle
	David Mataritta-Cascante
	Jane Sell
Head of Department,	Scott Shafer

August 2018

Major Subject: Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences

Copyright 2018 Steve Migacz

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the determinants and outcomes of service recovery and the utility of Rawls' (1971) justice theory with respect to service recovery in a hospitality context. Specifically, the study examined the dimensionality of the service recovery construct proposed by Tax, Brown and Chandrashekar (1998) and identified measures of service recovery satisfaction from a multidimensional perspective. In addition, the study incorporated the variables of "trust" and "commitment" in an attempt to better understand the impact of service recovery on the service provider – customer relationship. Finally, this study examined how respondents who identify as culinary travelers differ from non-culinary travelers in the context of service recovery.

In order to test the proposed research hypotheses, a quasi-experimental design was employed by having participants respond to a simulated service recovery, following a hypothetical service error. The 2 * 4 factorial between-subject design consisted of two independent variables: service error severity and the perception of justice (distributive justice, interactional justice and procedural justice). Participants were randomly selected to one of eight scenarios involving a hypothetical service error and subsequent recovery experience, and recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) crowdsourcing platform. Data collection was held from March 28th through February 2nd 2018.

The results revealed several key findings. First, it was found that respondents' recovery satisfaction is highest (with the exception of a "baseline" recovery) when

presented with a service recovery that prioritizes the perception of distributive justice, and to a lesser extent, the perception of procedural justice. Second, results suggest that while the severity of a service failure can influence the impact of justice on recovery satisfaction, the impact of severity was not found to be as critical as was previously suggested. Third, while recovery satisfaction was found to have a significant impact on overall satisfaction (with the firm), overall satisfaction was found to be a better predictor for post-recovery customer evaluations. Fourth, results indicated that one-time service failures had significant and negative impacts on both trust and commitment. These results provide both theoretical and practical implications for restaurant practitioners in terms of differential service recovery strategies based on practitioner objectives.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Throughout my time at Texas A&M University, I have often been reminded of a quote by John Jay McCloy. As a lawyer, banker, and diplomat, McCloy became recognized as one of the six “wise men” from the WWII era, and one of the most influential private citizens in the history of the United States. When asked of his many accomplishments, McCloy credited his success to his surroundings. His achievements were, according to him, a result of being lucky enough to be in the same room with people of immense talent and high quality of character. He called it “running with the swift”. My experiences here at Texas A&M will always be special, not for what I have achieved but for the lessons I have learned, and for the friendships that were forged with people who continue to inspire me each and every day. In short, I too am blessed to have run with the swift.

This experience would not have been possible without the encouragement, patience, and friendship of my mentor Dr. James Petrick. Jim, you have forever positively and significantly changed my life. I could never hope to repay you, but I sincerely plan to honor you by extoling the virtues you have always personified: positivity, kindness, generosity, and enthusiasm. I would also like to acknowledge the other distinguished members of my committee: Dr. Gerard Kyle, Dr. Jane Sell, and Dr. David Mataritta-Cascante. Your important contributions to my dissertation were invaluable, but I have gained so much more from my personal relationships with each of you. I would also like to thank my two department heads, Dr. Scott Shafer and Dr. Gary

Ellis. Dr. Shafer continues to guide me with equal parts warmth and wisdom, and Dr. Ellis has always been an enthusiastic supporter and contributor to my research. To Dr. Leonard Berry and Dr. John Crompton, both giants in their respective fields, thank you for being the chief architects of my teaching and research philosophies, and demonstrating the relationship between a great researcher and educator. I would also like to thank Dr. John Thomas, Dr. Michael Schuett, and Dr. Courtney Sues-Raeisinafchi for honoring me with their friendship and support.

I would also like to thank all of the members, past and present, of Team Petrick. I am eternally grateful to Dr. Matthew Stone, Dr. Sharon Zou and Dr. Angela Durko. Any success I have enjoyed at Texas A&M is directly attributable to you three special people- thank you for your support, your counsel and your friendship. I am also very grateful for my friends Sungeun Kang, SJ Yoon, and Jai Girard, who were also always there for me. I also wish to thank Irina, Debbie, and Ann for being so accommodating to my needs, as a student and a teacher.

To my parents, Thomas and Jean Migacz, in addition to your unconditional love and support, you have given so much more. Dad, you instilled in me an unquenchable thirst for learning and a healthy work ethic, both continue to serve me well in all of my endeavors. Mom, this experience has been a testament to how much I truly need you in my life, thank you for always believing in me. To my brother Tom, this experience has been a microcosm of our relationship- whether it is cheering me up or settling me down, you have always know exactly what to say. A special thanks to Nicky and my nephews

Alex and Chris, who always make me feel like a conquering hero. Also, thank you Bob O'Hara for inspiring me to be resilient and to find humor in all situations.

Of course, no one has sacrificed more or deserves more credit than my beautiful wife. Charlotte, not only did you give me the confidence to return to academia, your love and support continues to serve as my fountain of youth. It is the only thing I truly need to see the promise of the tomorrow.

CONTRIBUTORS AND FUNDING SOURCES

There are no outside contributors or funding sources to report.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
CONTRIBUTORS AND FUNDING SOURCES.....	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF GRAPHS.....	xvii
CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION	1
Justification	8
Financial Impacts of Service Recovery	11
Emotional Impacts of Service Recovery	12
Purpose of the Study	14
Objectives and Hypotheses	15
Delimitations	22
Definitions	23
Limitations	25
Organization of Dissertation	25
CHAPTER II CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT	27
Origins of Rawls Justice Theory	27
Justice Theory Conceptualized.....	30
Utility of Justice Theory.....	37
Proposed Conceptual Model	40
The Effect of Service Failure Severity on Post-Service Recovery Evaluations.....	40
Effects of the Three Justice Dimensions on Customer Satisfaction.....	50
The Effect of Justice-Based Satisfaction on Customer Evaluations	60
Relationship Marketing Defined	66
Origins of Relationship Marketing.....	67
Relationship Marketing and Service Recovery	68
The Effect of Trust and Commitment on Customer Evaluations	69

CHAPTER III LITERATURE REVIEW	80
Service Failure.....	80
Service Recovery.....	86
Justice Dimensions.....	91
Customer Satisfaction	100
Service Failure Severity	113
Relationship Marketing.....	123
Customer Trust.....	127
Commitment.....	138
Customer Loyalty	148
Repurchase Intentions	151
WOM Intentions.....	160
CHAPTER IV METHODOLOGY	171
Research Design.....	171
Data Collection Instrument	177
Data Collection Procedures.....	186
Sample Background and Size.....	191
Testing of Proposed Hypotheses	192
CHAPTER V DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS.....	194
Data Cleaning and Manipulation Checks.....	194
Description of the Sample	198
Profile of Respondents: Demographics	198
Characteristics of Culinary and Non-culinary Travelers	199
Characteristics of Respondents Based on High and Low Severity Scenarios ..	203
Characteristics of Respondents Based on Scenario	206
Preliminary Data Analysis	208
Summary Statistics Overall	209
Summary Statistics by Severity Type	212
Summary Statistics by Culinary Travel Type	214
Summary Statistics by Scenario	216
CHAPTER VI HYPOTHESIS TESTING	222
Study Objective One	222
Study Objective Two.....	240
Study Objective Three.....	258
Study Objective Four	268

CHAPTER VII CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	289
Inspection of the Findings	289
Theoretical and Practical Implications	306
Theoretical Implications and Discussions	306
Practical Implications and Discussions	318
Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research	326
REFERENCES	334
APPENDIX	376

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1.1: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective One	17
Figure 1.2: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective Two.....	19
Figure 1.3: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective Three.....	20
Figure 1.4: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective Four.....	22
Figure 2.1: Service Recovery Providing Three Dimensions of Justice	34
Figure 2.2: An Illustration of the Consumers' Zone of Tolerance	41
Figure 2.3: Theories Used to Examine Post-Recovery Customer Satisfaction	52
Figure 2.4: A Summary of the Relationship between Satisfaction with Recovery, Customer Trust, and Behavioral Intentions.....	72
Figure 2.5: A Summary of the Relationship between Satisfaction with Recovery, Customer Commitment, and Behavioral Intentions	76
Figure 2.6: Study Objectives and Hypotheses	77
Figure 3.1: Definitions of Service Recovery	89
Figure 3.2: Summary of Research Design and Findings of Previous Studies Grounded in Justice Theory	93
Figure 3.3: Construct Measurement of Procedural Justice in Hospitality Settings	96
Figure 3.4: Construct Measurement of Distributive Justice in Hospitality Settings	97
Figure 3.5: Construct Measurement of Interactional Justice in Hospitality Settings	98
Figure 3.6: Theoretical Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Satisfaction (Reprinted from Beardon & Teel, 1983)	104
Figure 3.7: Recent Satisfaction Scales.....	111
Figure 3.8: Summary of Research Design and Findings of Previous Service Recovery Studies Examining Severity	114
Figure 3.9: Severity Manipulated by Hess (Reprinted from Hess, 2008).....	119

Figure 3.10: Severity Scale Adapted by Wang, Wu, Lin, & Wang (2011)	122
Figure 3.11: The KMV Model of Relationship Marketing (Reprinted from Morgan & Hunt, 1994).....	125
Figure 3.12: Definitions of Trust	131
Figure 3.13: Construct Measurement of Trust.....	137
Figure 3.14: Definitions of Commitment	138
Figure 3.15: Relationship Life-Cycle	140
Figure 3.16: Measurement Items for Commitment	147
Figure 3.17: Loyalty Phases Proposed by Oliver (Reprinted from Oliver, 1999).....	149
Figure 3.18: Customer Loyalty Framework (Reprinted from Dick & Basu, 1994).....	150
Figure 3.19: Definitions of WOM	164
Figure 3.20: Construct Measurement of Positive WOM	166
Figure 3.21: Construct Measurement of Negative WOM.....	169
Figure 4.1: Sample Scenario.....	175
Figure 6.1: Results for Objective One	240
Figure 6.2: Results for Objective Two.....	257
Figure 6.3: Results for Objective Three.....	267
Figure 6.4: Results for Objective Four	287

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 2.1: Antecedents to Post-Recovery Satisfaction.....	53
Table 2.2: Most Influential Determinant of Post-recovery Satisfaction.....	54
Table 3.1: Justice Scale Provided by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998)	95
Table 3.2: Model Comparison Results (Reprinted from Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004)	146
Table 3.3: Repurchase Intentions Scale Adopted by Choi & Choi (Reprinted from Choi & Choi, 2014).....	156
Table 3.4: Behavioral Intentions Measured by Ok, Back, & Shanklin (Reprinted from Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005)	159
Table 4.1: The Experimental Design: 2 (service error severity) * 4 (perception of justice).....	172
Table 4.2: Variables Measured in this Study.....	177
Table 4.3: Original Items Prior to Modification.....	181
Table 4.4: Manipulation Checks.....	184
Table 4.5: A Summary of Methodological Concerns, Validity Threats, and Recommendations (Reprinted from Cheung et al., 2017)	190
Table 4.6: Data Analysis Steps.....	193
Table 5.1: Results of Manipulation Checks	197
Table 5.2: Valid Responses by Conditions (Severity and Justice Dimensions) after Manipulation Checks	198
Table 5.3: Participant Demographic Characteristics	199
Table 5.4: Valid Responses of Culinary and Non-culinary Travelers (by Severity and Justice).....	201
Table 5.5: Participant Profile by Culinary Travel Type	202
Table 5.6: Chi-Square Tests for Culinary and Non-culinary Travelers	203
Table 5.7: Participant Profile by Severity Type	205

Table 5.8:	Chi-Square Tests for High and Low Severity	206
Table 5.9:	Participant Profile for Baseline and DJ Omitted Conditions	207
Table 5.10:	Participant Profile for IJ Omitted and PJ Omitted Conditions.....	208
Table 5.11:	Summary Statistics (Overall)	211
Table 5.12:	Summary Statistics by Severity Type	213
Table 5.13:	Summary Statistics by Culinary Travel Type	215
Table 5.14:	Baseline Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity).....	218
Table 5.15:	Distributive Justice Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity).....	219
Table 5.16:	Interactional Justice Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity).....	220
Table 5.17:	Procedural Justice Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity).....	221
Table 6.1:	Summary Statistics for Recovery Satisfaction (AVERecoSAT)	225
Table 6.2:	Descriptive Statistics for Recovery Satisfaction by Severity	226
Table 6.3:	Descriptive Statistics for Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice	228
Table 6.4:	Two-Way ANOVA Results for Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice	231
Table 6.5:	Simple Main Effects of Severity and Justice on Recovery Satisfaction ...	232
Table 6.6:	Pairwise Comparisons of Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice	233
Table 6.7:	Summary Statistics for Repurchase Intentions (AveRepInt)	234
Table 6.8:	Descriptive Statistics for Repurchase Intentions by Severity	235
Table 6.9:	One-Way ANOVA Results for Repurchase Intentions by Severity	236
Table 6.10:	Summary Statistics of Positive WOM (AvePosWOM)	237
Table 6.11:	Descriptive Statistics for Positive WOM by Severity	238
Table 6.12:	One-Way ANOVA Results for Positive WOM by Severity	239

Table 6.13: Summary Statistics of Overall Satisfaction (AVEOVERSAT)	242
Table 6.14: Summary Statistics of Recovery Satisfaction (AveRecovSAT)	243
Table 6.15: One-Way ANOVA Results for Recovery Satisfaction by Justice	244
Table 6.16: Pairwise Comparisons of Recovery Satisfaction by Justice.....	245
Table 6.17: Descriptive Statistics for Overall Satisfaction by Justice.....	248
Table 6.18: One-Way ANOVA Results for Overall Satisfaction by Justice.....	249
Table 6.19: Pairwise Comparisons of Overall Satisfaction by Justice	251
Table 6.20: Correlation Analysis of Recovery Satisfaction and Overall Satisfaction .	253
Table 6.21: Summary Statistics of Culinary Travel (AveCulTrav)	255
Table 6.22: Summary Statistics for Satisfaction Levels by Culinary Travel Types	256
Table 6.23: Independent Sample <i>t</i> -Test for Recovery Satisfaction and Overall Satisfaction by Culinary Travel Types.....	257
Table 6.24: Summary Statistics of Positive WOM (AvePosWOM)	262
Table 6.25: Summary Statistics of Negative WOM (AveNegWOM).....	264
Table 6.26: Summary Statistics of Trust (AveTrust) and Commitment (AveCommit)	269
Table 6.27: Pairwise Comparisons of Commitment and Trust (Pre and Post Test).....	270
Table 6.28: Correlation Analysis among the Independent Variables.....	272
Table 6.29: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Trust on Repurchase Intentions	274
Table 6.30: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Trust on Positive WOM.....	276
Table 6.31: Interaction of Overall Satisfaction and Trust on Repurchase Intentions...	278
Table 6.32: Interaction of Overall Satisfaction and Trust on Positive WOM	280
Table 6.33: Interaction of Overall Satisfaction and Trust on Negative WOM.....	281
Table 6.34: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Trust on Negative WOM	283

Table 6.35: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Commitment on Repurchase Intentions	285
Table 6.36: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Commitment on Positive WOM.....	287
Table 7.1: Study Hypotheses and Results	290

LIST OF GRAPHS

	Page
Graph 6.1: Two-Way ANOVA for (Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice).	230
Graph 6.2: Histogram of Positive WOM.....	237
Graph 6.3: One-Way ANOVA Results for Recovery Satisfaction by Justice	243
Graph 6.4: One-Way ANOVA Results for Overall Satisfaction by Justice.....	247
Graph 6.5: Simple Scatterplot of Overall Satisfaction by Recovery Satisfaction	252
Graph 6.6: Histogram of Overall Satisfaction by Recovery Satisfaction.....	254
Graph 6.7: Scatterplot of Repurchase Intentions by Recovery Satisfaction	259
Graph 6.8: Normal Q-Q Plot of Repurchase Intentions by Recovery Satisfaction	261
Graph 6.9: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Recovery Satisfaction	263
Graph 6.10: Histogram of Negative WOM by Recovery Satisfaction.....	264
Graph 6.11: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Overall Satisfaction.....	266
Graph 6.12: Normal Q-Q Plot of Repurchase Intentions	273
Graph 6.13: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM.....	275
Graph 6.14: Partial Regression Plot of Repurchase Intentions	277
Graph 6.15: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Trust and Overall Satisfaction	279
Graph 6.16: Normal Q-Q Plot of Negative WOM	282
Graph 6.17: Partial Regression Plot of Repurchase Intentions by Recovery Satisfaction.	284
Graph 6.18: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Commitment and Recovery Satisfaction	286
Graph 7.1: Descriptive Statistics of Recovery Satisfaction.....	293
Graph 7.2: Comparison of Descriptive Results for Recovery Satisfaction (top) and Overall Satisfaction (bottom)	298

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

According to world-renowned restaurateur Danny Meyer (2006, p. 11), hospitality is “present when something happens *for* you. It is absent when something happens *to* you.” Research suggests that, while service providers endeavor to provide impeccable service during all service transactions (Cheung & To, 2016; Kim, Yoo, and Lee, 2012; Blodgett, Wakefield, and Barnes, 1995), committing service error is inevitable (Murphy, Bilgihan, Kubickova, & Boseo, 2015; Park, Kim, & O’Neill, 2014; McCollough & Bharadwaj, 1992). Services are inherently vulnerable to error due to their nature: service “benefits” are intangible, consumption and production occurs simultaneously, and customer expectations are both subjective and subject to inequalities among service employees (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013). Subsequently, service firms (including hospitality firms) cannot guarantee zero service defects to their customers.

Customers who have had bad things happen to them, or perceive that a service encounter has gone wrong, have experienced what service marketing researchers have dubbed a “service failure” (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016; Palmer, Beggs, & Keown-McMullan, 2000). As hospitality is designed to enhance the wellbeing of guests via food, drink, and accommodation (Brotherton, 1999), restaurant management is required to act (and react) with consideration to the dualistic nature of all hospitality

firms; they are for-profit entities, yet their profits are substantially tied to their ability to demonstrate authentic generosity (Teng, 2011).

To counter service failure, marketing researchers propose that service firms engage in service recovery, those actions and activities aimed to offset or minimize the damage originating with a service failure (La & Choi, 2012; Kuo, Chang, Cheng, & Lai, 2013; Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990). Due to the inevitable and pervasive nature of service failures (Kuo et al, 2013; McCollough, 2009), service recovery has been a popular topic in service marketing research for over forty years (Nibkin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016). Although investigations of service recovery have posed several potential implications of service recovery, the most salient aspect of service recovery research remains thus: successful service recovery strategies can have a direct effect on consumer attitudes and post-recovery behaviors (Murphy et al., 2015; Swanson & Hsu, 2011; Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012).

Origins of service recovery research can be traced back to earlier studies examining customer complaint behavior (Banks, 1951). By examining the relationship between consumer satisfaction and sales utilizing documented customer complaints, Landon (1980) concluded that customer complaints could provide critical insight into “discovering and eliminating product and marketing problems (p. 187)”, including product performance, marketing integration, channels of distribution and customer relations.

Goodwin and Ross (1990) were the first to provide empirical findings of service failures. Examining complaint-handling strategies, they focused on the procedural aspects of the complaint response. Their summations included suggestions for firms to demonstrate genuine concern for the customer, indicated by the “fairness” or justice of the resolution.

Research by Landon (1980) and Goodwin and Ross (1990) coincided with a marketing paradigm shift away from focusing on attracting new customers (O’Malley, 2014), to maintaining (and enhancing) relationships with current customers (Berry, 2002). This paradigmatic shift was coined by Berry (1983) as relational marketing, or RM. RM is grounded in the notion that relationship building is paramount to the sustainability of a service firm (Geiger & Kleinaltenkamp, 2015; Jung, Ineson, & Green, 2013). According to Berry (2002), a service opportunity is analogous to a promise given by service providers to their customers. By implication, a service failure resembles a promise given to a customer which has been broken. As customers and customer relationships have been argued to be the most important asset of a business firm (Cater, Zabkar, & Cater, 2011), service marketing researchers have included service recovery phenomena in their examinations of effective relationship-enhancing strategies (Kuo, Chang, Cheng, and Lai, 2013; McCollough, Berry, and Yadav, 2000; Bitner, Booms, and Tetreault, 1990).

Several theoretical frameworks have been used to examine customers’ service recovery evaluations. For example, Wen & Chi (2013) examined service recovery using social exchange theory. According to Wen & Chi (2013, pg. 308), people “tend to

assess the equity of an exchange in terms of outcome, procedure, and interactions between exchange parties.”

Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005) were two of the first researchers to empirically investigate the mediating effects of emotions on loyalty in service recovery. Incorporating affect control theory, they theorized that individuals experience negative emotions when a service recovery is perceived to be unfair. These emotions are instigated by disproportionately positive recovery outcomes (resulting in guilt) or disproportionately negative outcomes (resulting in anger). They ultimately found that only customers who perceived a service recovery to be fair experienced positive emotions.

In order to examine whether different types of service failure require different types of service recovery, Chuang, Cheng, Chang, & Yang (2012) integrated both resource exchange theory (Brinberg & Wood, 1983) and prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). They proposed that prospect theory (customers are highly influenced by prior service failure experiences) and mental accounting theory (individuals categorize service failures as either outcome-related or process-related) could further explain service recovery perceptions. They found that previous experiences with service failure had a significant influence on customer’s perceptions of subsequent service recovery efforts. In addition, they found customer satisfaction was higher when service failures perceived as outcome-related (process-related) were offset with tangible (psychological) service recovery efforts.

One of the most popular frameworks used to examine service recovery is Rawl's (1971) justice theory (Van Vaerenbergh, Orsingher, Vermeir, & Lariviere, 2014). Justice theory, first introduced in the relationship marketing literature by Tax, Brown, and Chandrashekar (1998), holds that the economic and social interactions inherent in service failures are evaluated in terms of justice or fairness.

Justice theory is a political philosophy derived from Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance and Adam's (1963) equity theory, and is most commonly described as being comprised of three dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Distributive justice is described as the outcome of the recovery effort (Swanson and Hsu, 2011). Procedural justice refers to a firm's policies, procedures, and decision-making used to resolve a conflict (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). Lastly, interactional justice is based on the "informal" interaction between a customer and a service provider during a service recovery effort (Jin, Lee, and Huffman, 2012).

The considerable use of justice theory as a theoretical underpinning for service recovery research is likely due to its strong predictive power. Since justice theory has been found to explain as much as 60% of the variance with respect to service recovery customer satisfaction (Siu et al., 2013; Hoffman & Chung, 1999), justice theory has been described as "a powerful predictor of customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction after experiencing service failure" (Kim, Yoo, and Lee, 2012, pg. 384). However, more research is needed, particularly within the context of restaurant settings. Although it has been suggested that individuals experiencing service recovery have one or more

preferences among the three justice dimensions (Nguyen, McColl-Kennedy and Dagger, 2012), there is little consensus among researchers as to which dimension(s) is “most impactful” on service recovery satisfaction (Zhao and Tu, 2013).

The potential impacts of service failures (and subsequent customer evaluations) have been suggested to depend, in part, on the customer-organization relationship and the failure context, as well as the type or degree of service procured (Hur & Jang, 2016; Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005; Wirtz & Mattila, 2004). The restaurant setting is uniquely personal compared to other services, as the act of eating “involves an extremely intimate exchange between the environment and the self (Rozin, Haidt, McCauley & Imada, 1997, pg. 68)”. Dining has thus been described as a total event (Jin, Lee, & Huffman, 2012), fraught with sociological, psychological, and politically symbolic meaning (Aarts, Dijksterhuis, & Custers, 2003).

Intuitively, a customer experiencing service failure at the checkout line of a grocery store will expect or require less of a recovery effort than a customer experiencing service failure at his or her wedding reception. In addition, effective service recovery is critical for restaurants because restaurant consumption “involves a tremendous amount of human interaction beginning with the greeting from the host, being assigned a table, and interacting with service providers (Namkung, Jang, Almanza, & Ismail, 2009, pg. 384).”

A number of researchers have also suggested that service recovery is rarely performed in a bubble (Blodgett, Granbois and Walters, 1993; Tax, Brown and

Chandrashekar, 1998; Mattila, 1999; McCollough, Berry and Yadav, 2000; Ok, Back and Shanklin, 2005). As service recovery efforts that take place in restaurants are usually performed “in public view”, the evaluation of a service recovery attempt has the potential to impact more customers than those directly involved in the service recovery process. Finally, it has also been suggested that, among service firms, service failures are most frequently experienced in restaurants (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013; Yoo, Shin, & Yang, 2006; Miller, Craighead, & Karwin, 2000).

The service industry, described as “the most important pillar of the global economy (Cheung & To, 2016, pg. 2524)”, is faced with consumers who enjoy more leverage with service providers than ever before (Chuang et al., 2012). Several world-changing events, including advances in technology (Ryan and Wessel, 2015) and globalization (Sharabi, 2014), have helped to reshape consumer expectations. An increase in customized services (Aflaki and Popescu, 2013) coupled with an increase in customer options (Astuti & Nagase, 2014) have contributed to the potential for customer “hopping” from one provider to another (Wu, 2011; Zhao and Tu, 2013). As it has been suggested that a firm's relationship with its customers is necessary for the firm's success (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016), it has become crucial for companies to identify not only customers' needs and wants but also their satisfaction or dissatisfaction after purchasing goods and “experiencing” services (Park, Kim, & O'Neil, 2014).

As customer participation has been deemed essential to the service delivery process (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998), it is important to better understand the implications of service recovery among those customers presumed to be among the most

affected. Culinary tourism has become one of the fastest growing forms of tourism worldwide (Getz & Robinson, 2014). In this study, culinary travelers are defined as those travelers who indicate food experiences as a primary motivation to travel (Stone & Migacz, 2016).

The increasing number of culinary travelers, those travelers who are highly motivated to travel in order to engage in food and beverage activities, have helped to underscore the importance of food-centric activities in travel destinations (Cohen & Avieli, 2004). As researchers suggest that food can be a significant factor in attracting tourists as well as enhancing travel satisfaction (Getz & Robinson, 2014), the need to better understand how service recovery impacts those customers who prioritize food is clear. Therefore, this study will include the culinary traveler as variable of interest, and will incorporate the culinary travel scale developed by Stone and Migacz (2016).

Justification

For nearly half a decade, the justification for examining service recovery has been largely shared by services marketing researchers alike: service failure is inevitable (Basso & Pizzutti, 2016; Park et al., 2014), thus service firms must devise successful service recovery strategies. However, empirical findings and subsequent theoretical and practical implications have been contradictory (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013; Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). Subsequently, a consensual approach for effective service recovery practices is currently lacking. In review of literature

examining customer complaints, a comparison between recent studies with similar studies conducted prior to 1990 suggest the following: more than half of service recovery attempts are unsuccessful, and the success (or failure) rate has not changed since service recovery became a primary focus of services marketing research (Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990; Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016). Therefore, additional research is needed to better understand the service recovery phenomena in order to increase post-recovery satisfaction among service customers.

As the impacts of service failures have been found to be context-specific (Xu, Tronvoll, & Edvardson, 2014), a further justification for this study is based on the study sample: restaurant patrons. Although service failures have been reported to plague services of all types (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016; Zhao & Tu, 2013), hospitality-oriented services (including restaurants) have been suggested to undergo intense scrutiny for their service recovery performance (Nibkin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016; Swanson and Hsu, 2011; Susskind, 2005). It has been suggested that, in the context of restaurants, service recovery efforts can have significant relational, financial and emotional impacts on patrons, managers and front-line employees (Petree, Broome, & Bennett, 2012; Mattila & Cranage, 2005; Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013). Although hospitality settings have been prominently featured in service recovery research grounded in justice theory (Choi & Choi, 2014; Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013; Mattila, 2001; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999), there is little agreement among services marketing researchers as to which dimension(s) is most responsible for positive post-recovery evaluations (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016; Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011).

A final justification for this study is to better understand the role of justice on relationships by examining service recovery and consumer trust and commitment. Trust and commitment are commonly recognized as the cornerstones of relationship marketing in services marketing literature (Nibkin et al., 2016; Alvarez, Casielles, & Martin, 2010). It has been suggested that these variables are antecedents of post-recovery customer satisfaction (Kim, Wang, & Mattila, 2010).

In line with Berry's (1983, pg. 25) description of RM, it has been suggested that restaurant management is highly motivated to "attracting, maintaining, and enhancing" relationships with restaurant patrons. Service recovery studies have traditionally examined repurchase intent and word-of-mouth advertising in tandem with post-recovery satisfaction related to post-recovery behaviors that help to define the relationship between service providers and customers. In previous literature focused on RM, customer trust and commitment have consistently been described as the two most influential factors on the relationship between customers and service providers (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013). Not surprisingly, both consumer trust and commitment have been suggested to have significant impacts on customer satisfaction following a service transaction (De Wulf & Odekerken-Schroder, 2000). Yet, few service recovery studies have included consumer trust and commitment within models attempting to explain service satisfaction (La & Choi, 2012; Kim et al., 2009; Karande, Magnini, & Tam, 2007).

Financial Impacts of Service Recovery

According to the National Restaurant Association (NRA), the restaurant (and foodservice) industry currently employs 14.7 million people (NRA, 2017), making it one of the largest public sector employers in the United States. Conversely, restaurant failures account for nearly 40,000 job losses per year (Parsa, Gregory, & Terry, 2011). Although the failure rate of restaurants has historically been exaggerated (and reported to be as high as 90%) by magazines like Forbes (Farrell, 2007) and Dunn and Bradstreet (2001), restaurants have long been recognized as having the highest business failure rate among all services (Parsa et al, 2011). Based on in-depth interviews with restaurant owners, findings from Parsa, Gregory, & Terry (2011) pointed to managerial incompetence (including employee and customer relations) as one of the primary agents of patronage loss and subsequent restaurant closures. However, an analysis of 151 Spanish restaurants found that a strong service recovery system had a strong correlation with improved sales and market share (del Río-Lanza, Vázquez-Casielles, & Díaz-Martín 2009). Additionally, for front-line restaurant employees, the financial impacts of service failure are tangible, as consumers unsatisfied with service recovery attempts have been found to tip less than those who are satisfied with their service recovery (Bujisic, Parsa, Bilgiham, Galloway, & Hern, 2014).

Switching behavior is another critical issue found in the services marketing literature (Berry, 2002; Christopher, Payne, & Ballantyne (2013); Gummesson, 2011), and one that is often included in service recovery research. Research suggests that the cost of keeping customers is considerably less than obtaining customers (Ok, Back, &

Shanklin, 2005) due to the following: loyal customers are more receptive to marketing efforts (Allaway, D'Souza, Berkowitz, & Kim, 2014; Brodie, Coviello and Winklhofer, 2008), existing customers ask fewer questions (Sheth, Parvatiyar and Sinha, 2012), are more familiar (and forgiving) with firms procedures and employees (Tadajewski & Saren, 2009), and are more willing to pay more for services (Reinartz and Kumar, 2000). In examining competitive advantages among restaurant operators, Nikbin et al. (2016) found a negative relationship with switching behavior and justice, which amplifies the importance for a better understanding of justice.

Emotional Impacts of Service Recovery

In addition to revenue and profits, it has been posited that post-recovery attitudes and behaviors can further impact customer loyalty (Murphy et al, 2015), corporate image (Chen & Chen, 2014), and word-of-mouth advertising (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985; Maxham, 2001; Swanson and Hsu, 2011; Zhao and Tu, 2013). Although recovery attempts have been likened to a “last resort” for firms that are eager to maintain strong customer relationships (Wen & Chi, 2013), not all service recovery outcomes are potentially negative. According to McCollough (1995), the existence of a service recovery paradox is possible when the service recovery attempt is perceived to be outstanding, and can result in increased customer loyalty and advocacy (La & Choi, 2012; De Matos, Henrique, & Rossi, 2007).

A service recovery paradox (SRP) refers to a service transaction in which a service error has occurred. In these instances, the perception of the recovery attempt is

exceedingly positive: the level of customer satisfaction resulting from the subsequent recovery attempt exceeds the level of satisfaction the customer would have experienced, had the initial service error been avoided (Michel & Meuter, 2008). While research in this area has found conflicting results (Kuo & Wu, 2012), empirical studies examining service recovery have suggested incidences of SRP (Krishna, Dangayach, & Jain, 2011; McCollough & Bharadwaj, 1992). Incidents of SRP's have also been empirically linked to positive and significant increases in customer loyalty (De Matos et al., 2007).

Alternatively, service recovery attempts perceived to be poor or unsatisfactory can lead to significantly (and sometimes irreversible) negative emotions (Astuti & Nagase, 2014; Vázquez-Casielles, Suárez-Álvarez, & del Río-Lanza, 2013). Customers who experience remarkably poor service recovery attempts, referred to as a “double-deviation” phenomena, have been found to develop strong feelings of sadness and anger (Kuo & Wu, 2012; Krishna, Dangayach, & Jain, 2011). It has been reported that these emotions, possessed by customers who have been “wronged not once but twice (Schminke, Caldwell, Ambrose, & McMahon, 2014, pg. 209)”, have culminated in legal acts of redress and illegal acts of sabotage (Lastner, Folse, Mangus, & Fennell, 2016; Choi & Mattila, 2008; De Matos et al., 2007).

Service recovery is also a pervasive emotional issue for restaurant employees. As the majority of restaurant employees are designated as frontline staff, they are responsible for facilitating the service transaction and thus have the most direct contact with restaurant patrons. Perceived by customers as the “face” of the restaurant, the frontline staff is typically presumed to be (at least in part) responsible for the initial

service error, as well as have the authority (by proxy) to make immediate amends via service recovery (Yoo, Shin, & Yang, 2006). Research suggests that poor service recovery strategies contribute to lower restaurant employee morale, thus resulting in lower employee performance (Swanson & Hsu, 2011). According to Bujisic et al., (2014), poor service recovery strategies significantly contribute to the restaurant employee turnover; the highest turnover rate among all services (Jaakkola, Meiren, Witell, Edvardsson, Schafer, Reynoso, Sebastiani, & Weitlaner, 2017).

Purpose of Study

Base on the above, the purpose of this dissertation is to gain a deeper understanding of the determinants and outcomes of service recovery and the utility of Rawls' (1971) justice theory with respect to service recovery. Specifically, the study will examine the dimensionality of the service recovery construct proposed by Tax, Brown and Chandrashekar (1998) and identify measures of service recovery satisfaction from a multidimensional perspective. In addition, the study will incorporate the variables of "trust" and "commitment" in an attempt to better understand the impact of service recovery on the service provider – customer relationship. Finally, this study will examine how those respondents who identify as culinary travelers differ from non-culinary travelers in the context of service recovery. Thus, the main purpose of this study is to gage the utility of justice theory as a means of examining attitudes and behaviors associated with service recovery in a hospitality context.

Objectives and Hypotheses

This study proposes the utilization of the justice-based service recovery model as the theoretical framework to better understand the relationship between justice dimensions and post-service recovery attitudes and behavior. Introduced by Goodwin & Ross (1990) as a means to examine the post-complaint satisfaction of service customers, this model has subsequently been modified and used extensively in empirically-tested research focused on service recovery (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011). According to the model, customer evaluations of a service recovery, including, but not limited to service recovery satisfaction, are predicated on the service providers' demonstration of justice or fairness during a service recovery as perceived by a customer who has experienced a service failure (La & Choi, 2012; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2003). In short, a service recovery attempt which exemplifies procedural justice (i.e. providing a prompt solution), interactional justice (i.e. providing a recovery delivery that is empathetic and warm), and distributive justice (i.e. providing a just tangible outcome) is a predictor of service recovery satisfaction, which in turn is a predictor of positive WOM advertising and repurchase intent. In this study, a lack of justice (omission of justice) will be used as a proxy to measure justice. Thus, the following objectives and their subsequent hypotheses are postulated below. Each of these will be more fully justified in the subsequent chapters, and presented again in Chapter II.

Objective 1: The first objective of this study is to better understand, with respect to justice, how the magnitude or severity of service failures impact customers' post-recovery evaluations.

Hypothesis 1a: Post-recovery satisfaction will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.

Hypothesis 1b: The perception of a lack of distributive justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.

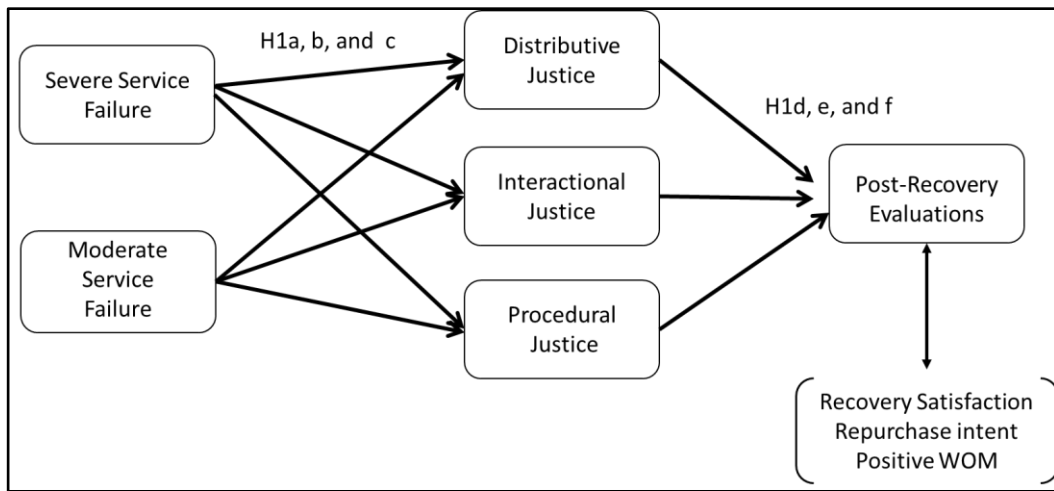
Hypothesis 1c: The perception of a lack of interactional justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.

Hypothesis 1d: The perception of a lack of procedural justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.

Hypothesis 1e: Post-recovery repurchase intentions will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.

Hypothesis 1f: Post-recovery positive WOM will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.

Figure 1.1: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective One



Objective 2: The second objective of this study is to test the conceptual model proposed by Maxham & Netemeyer (2002). The focus of this objective is to examine both service recovery satisfaction and satisfaction with the firm via the three separate yet related justice dimensions (interactional justice, procedural justice, and distributive justice). In addition, the model will be expanded to test culinary and non-culinary travelers.

Hypothesis 2a: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2d: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.

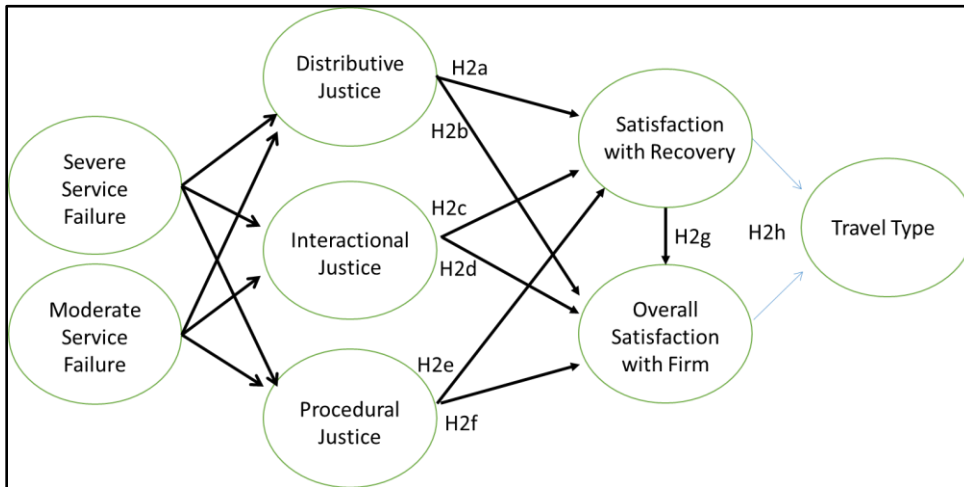
Hypothesis 2e: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2f: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2g: Satisfaction with recovery positively and significantly affects overall firm satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2h: Post-recovery satisfaction will be higher for non-culinary travelers compared to culinary travelers.

Figure 1.2: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective Two



Objective 3: A third objective is to determine the impact of satisfaction on customer evaluations.

Hypothesis 3a: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 3b: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on positive WOM.

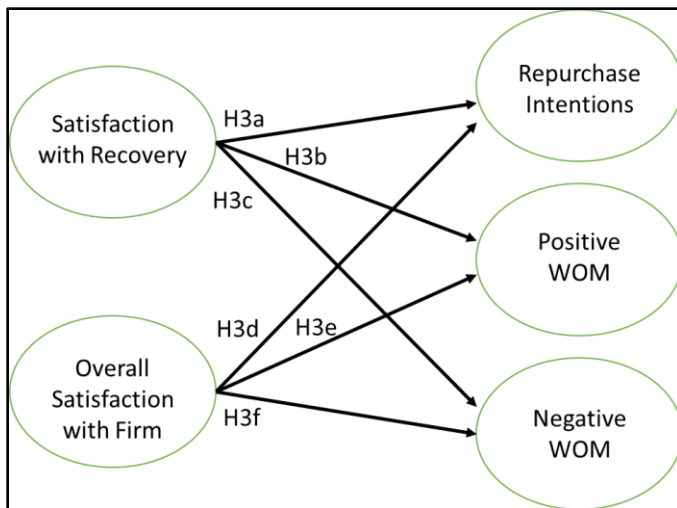
Hypothesis 3c: Post-recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on negative WOM.

Hypothesis 3d: Overall satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 3e: Overall satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on positive WOM.

Hypothesis 3f: Overall satisfaction with the firm has a negative effect on negative WOM.

Figure 1.3: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective Three



Objective 4: The final objective is to understand the role of trust and commitment between satisfaction (with recovery and the firm) and customer evaluations following a service recovery attempt.

Hypothesis 4a: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 4b: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.

Hypothesis 4c: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between overall satisfaction with the firm and repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 4d: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between overall satisfaction with the firm and positive WOM.

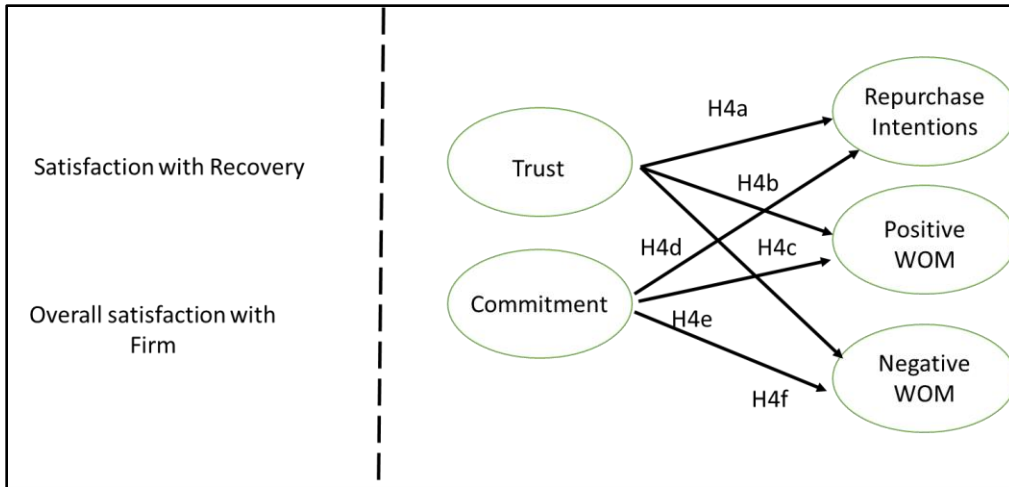
Hypothesis 4e: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and negative WOM.

Hypothesis 4f: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between overall satisfaction with the firm and negative WOM.

Hypothesis 4g: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 4h: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.

Figure 1.4: Illustration of Hypotheses Associated with Objective Four



Delimitations

The study is subject to the following delimitations:

- (1) Respondents of this study will be limited to United States citizens age 18 and older who have endured a restaurant-related service failure in the past two years;
- (2) Specific situational factors (such as individual service recovery preferences) will not be included in this study;
- (3) This research will only focus on the post-recovery evaluations based on the justice model, additional theories or models will not be included in this study

Definitions

COMMITMENT – “One's enduring desire to continue a relationship with a specific entity as well as the individual's willingness to make efforts at maintaining it (Li and Petrick, 2005, pg. 75.)”.

CULINARY TRAVELERS – Travelers who are motivated to travel for food experiences (Stone & Migacz, 2016).

OVERALL SATISFACTION WITH THE FIRM – The global judgment of a service provider across multiple service encounters (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016).

RELATIONSHIP MARKETING – “A behavior scheme that relies explicitly on the existence and the significance of lasting exchange (Kleinaltenkamp, Plinke, & Söllner, (2015, pg. 5))”.

REPURCHASE INTENT - Repurchase intention (RI) is defined as the individual's judgment about buying again a designated service from the same company, taking into account his or her current situation and likely circumstances (Hellier, Geursen, Carr, & Rickard, 2003).

SERVICE FAILURE - “Any service related incidents or problems including reality (objective) and perception (subjective) and actions that could produce negative impressions (Lin, 2011, pg. 12223)”.

SERVICE FAILURE SEVERITY – The magnitude of the loss suffered by consumers due to the service failure (Keininham, Morgeson, Aksoy, & Williams, 2014).

SERVICE RECOVERY – “The actions designed to resolve problems, alter negative attitudes of dissatisfied customers and to ultimately retain these customers (Miller, Craighead, & Karwan, 2000, pg. 388)”.

SERVICE RECOVERY SATISFACTION – The positive assessment customers make due to an effective service recovery experience (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016).

TRUST – An expectation (resulting from repeated, satisfactory transactions) that a service provider will deliver on its promise to consistently provide quality customer service (Wen & Chi, 2013).

WORD-OF-MOUTH COMMUNICAITON – An exchange of noncommercial information between individuals regarding a brand, a product, a service, or an organization (Anderson, 1998).

Limitations

- (1) The study is limited to those currently included in the Mechanical Turk (MTurk) database;
- (2) This research will adopt a scenario-based experimental design; the research design is consistent with other studies examining service recovery, but is limited in scope of service recovery situations, descriptions, and manipulations;
- (3) This research will adopt self-reported measures of post-recovery attitudes and behaviors. Although this is arguably an appropriate research method, it may involve some measurement errors.

Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is intended to examine the impact of justice on service recovery evaluations. Chapter I will provide an introduction of the research, as well as the justification for study. In addition, the proposed objectives and resulting hypotheses will be introduced.

Chapter II presents a review of Rawl's justice theory (1971), the theoretical underpinning of the proposed conceptual model for this study. In addition to detailing the development of the proposed conceptual model for this study, a brief synopsis of the study's variables and their linkages will be described.

Chapter III will provide a review of the existing literature related to this study. The literature review will describe the landmark studies as well as more recent studies germane to service recovery and justice theory.

Chapter IV will present the proposed methodological approach for this study. In addition to providing the research design, the survey instrument, data collection methods, and scale development will be discussed.

Chapter V will describe the results of the study as well as the hypothesis testing.

Chapter VI will summarize the study findings.

Finally, Chapter VII will provide the study implications and limitations. In addition, a proposal for future research will be provided.

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

This study's primary objective is to combine two streams of services marketing research (RM and organizational justice) in order to examine service recovery following a service failure, with a focus on post-recovery customer evaluations. For this research, the development of the conceptual framework is steered by the service recovery justice model proposed by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998). This model was first utilized as a means to better understanding customer complaint handling effectiveness. Based on an extensive literature review, this model has been extended to examine how the severity of a service failure impacts post-recovery evaluations. In addition, this study incorporates RM by including two mediating variables considered to be essential to the forging of strong relationships between service providers and customers: trust and commitment.

Origins of Rawls Justice Theory

John Rawls' justice theory (1971) is presently the dominant theoretical framework used to examine the perception of economic and social interactions often enacted by firms to offset service failures (Stratemeyer, Geringer, & Canton, 2014; Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016; Ding, Ho, & Lii, 2015). Conceptualized as a means to remedy the institutional inequalities and subsequent demonstrations of unfairness found in modern society (Bonache, 2004), Rawls' political philosophy provides for an

objective definition *of* and the necessary procedures needed *to* ensuring social justice (Kliewer & Zackarakis, 2015). Rawls' justice theory is distinct from other ethical theories of justice, such as Mill's utilitarian justice (1901) or Nozick's libertarian justice (1974), in that Rawls' justice theory stipulates that the greatest expected benefits should be awarded to those afforded the least number of advantages (Schminke, Ambrose, & Noel, 1997).

Prior to the utilization of justice theory, post-recovery satisfaction had largely been underpinned by expectancy disconfirmation theories (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011; Oliver & Burke, 1999; Oliver, 1980; Swan & Trawick, 1993; De Matos, Henrique, & Rossi, 2007). According to this theory, customer satisfaction derived from a service transaction (or post-recovery attempt) is explained as the result of a comparative judgment between expectations (prior to the service transaction) and the evaluation of the service performance (Boshoff, 1999; Oliver, 1997). A service recovery attempt (an experience in which customers reevaluate the service process) which exceeds expectations would thus garner positive disconfirmation, or transaction-specific post-recovery satisfaction (McCollough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000). Alternatively, a service recovery attempt which does not exceed customer expectations is deemed to be negatively disconfirmed.

Adaptation level theory (Helson, 1964) has been used to show that expectations are influenced by factors including: prior experience, symbolic elements, brand connotation, the context of the transaction, and individual characteristics (Chan & Ngai, 2010). Researchers, however, have raised several concerns regarding the

disconfirmation paradigm as the sole underpinning for service recovery research (Tse & Wilton, 1988; Woodruff, Cadotte, & Jenkins, 1983).

First, the disconfirmation paradigm has been largely utilized to explain the cognitive aspects of consumer behavior (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005), and not the affective aspects commonly associated with service recovery (Choi & Choi, 2014). Second, according to the expectancy disconfirmation theory, a customer's evaluation of a service transaction will be positive as long as his or her expectations are met. However, there have been reports of service experiences in tourism that have fallen below expectations, yet have still resulted in customer satisfaction (Kelley & Davis, 1994, Pizam & Millman, 1993). Lastly, in contrast to the premise of disconfirmation paradigm, different customers have been found to use different comparative standards, or standards other than predictive expectations to assess their satisfaction (Yim, Gu, Chan, & David, 2003). According to Walker & Baker (2000, pg. 413), in addition to experienced-based norms, several expectation types have been suggested to influence satisfaction, including "ideal, minimum tolerable, deserved expectations, normative expectations, and desired expectations".

Thus, it has been posited that no single model can fully explain consumer satisfaction (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2001). However, given that consumers who experience a service failure are in essence experiencing inequity (Maxham, 2001), it has been suggested that normative equity-based expectations play a crucial role in the evaluation of service recovery (Yim et al., 2003). With the role of equity in customer satisfaction well-established (Bagozzi, 1975; Huppertz, Arenson, & Evan, 1978), Oliver and Swan

(1989) were the first researchers to propose an integrated model of justice-based equity within the expectation-disconfirmation model. Subsequently, Oliver (1997) reported that justice-based equity provided a far more comprehensive construct in the formation of comparison norms, as well as implementing additional service recovery input variables, including service quality. Subsequently, Rawls' justice theory (1971) has become the dominant theoretical framework used to examine service failures (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016; Ding, Ho, & Lii, 2015).

Justice Theory Conceptualized

Due to the complex nature of services (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1997), it is presumed that service customers also experience feelings of uncertainty or vulnerability during a service transaction (Maxham, & Netemeyer, 2002; Seiders & Berry, 1998). These feelings of vulnerability can be further exacerbated by a perceived injustice experienced during a service failure recovery (Chan & Ngai, 2010). As service recovery is an experience fraught with human interaction, it is naturally unpredictable (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013; Swanson & Hsu, 2011). According to Leung, Li, Au (1998, pg. 1732), "the concept of service seems to overlap substantially with the concepts of procedures and interpersonal treatment in justice research." Consequently, service marketing researchers introduced justice as a concept consistent with organizational and social psychology (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002) as a potentially useful tool for

explaining the happiness (or satisfaction) of service encounters (Gilly & Gelb, 1982; Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993; Goodwin & Ross, 1992).

Based on justice theory, post-recovery satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) is the result of a post-hoc appraisal of the recovery attempt (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013) which includes a normative comparison between preexisting justice-based expectations and the perceived recovery performance (Murphy et al., 2015). Service recovery attempts perceived to be adequately fair or just have been found to result in post-recovery satisfaction (Sengupta, Balaji, & Krishnan, 2015), which in turn has been suggested to provide for the restoration of confidence with the service provider (Chen & Kim, 2017).

So how is justice demonstrated by service providers? Early attempts to incorporate organizational justice into service recovery research focused on either distributive justice or distributive justice and procedural justice (Namkung et al., 2009; Mattila & Cranage, 2005; Boshoff, 1999; Oliver & Swan, 1989). Presently, the most common conceptual model of justice is based on three justice dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Cheung & To, 2016; Siu et al., 2013).

While some researchers have previously maintained that the three dimensions of justice are independent of each other (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012; Namkung et al., 2009), others have reported high correlations between all three justice dimensions (Liao, 2007; Davidow, 2003; Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005). Regardless, most marketing researchers agree that successful service recoveries are those which provide the perception of

satisfactory levels of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Murphy et al., 2015; Grewal, Chandrashekar, & Citrin, 2010; McCollough, 2009).

Distributive justice involves the resource allocation and perceived outcome of the recovery effort (Boshoff, 2012). Described as efforts of provider atonement, distributive justice is characterized by both tangible and intangible components. Tangible components provide compensatory benefits which can include: discounts, refunds, a modification of service charges, replacements, and/or coupons (Park et al., 2014). Intangible components have previously been identified as displays of regret or an apology (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005), and has been suggested to offset intangible costs associated with one's time and effort (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002), ego (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009), and emotions (Choi & Choi, 2014).

Procedural Justice has been described as the customers' evaluations of the policies, procedures, and methods of firms used to resolve a conflict (Maxham and Netemeyer 2002). According to Wen and Chi (2013), procedural justice is evaluated by the means in which decisions are made, the speed in which complaints are addressed, and the speed in which the service problem is resolved. Other researchers have emphasized straight-forwardness, or honesty and efficiency, as critical components of procedural justice (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011). According to Tax, Brown, and Chandrashekar (1998), the elements of procedural justice include: flexibility, timing/speed, accessibility, processes and decision control. With regard to restaurant service recovery, previous research has focused on the promptness of fielding complaints (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher 2016; Karatepe and Vatankhah 2014) as well

as the flexibility and promptness of solving the problem (Nikbin, Marimuthu, Hyun, & Ismail, 2015; Mattila & Cranage, 2005). Thus, the procedures examined have been found to be quite complex.

Interactional justice refers to the manners in which information is exchanged and how outcomes are delivered (Basso & Pizzutti, 2016). Previous researchers have identified customers' perception of the quality, courtesy, sincerity and appropriateness of the interaction provided by the staff during the recovery to be critical components of interactional justice (Park & Park, 2016). Therefore, interactional justice has been conceptualized as the perception of personal attention and willingness to undo what has been poorly done (Wirtz & Mattila, 2004). This perception has been found to be actualized through the physical and verbal cues provided by the service provider(s) (Wen and Chi, 2013). To this point, Clemmer (1993) found that customers use the following six principles in evaluating interactional justice during service recovery: honesty, friendliness, politeness, bias, sensitivity, and interest.

To demonstrate the conceptual model of justice theory, service recovery scenario which was created by the current author is displayed in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Service Recovery Providing Three Dimensions of Justice

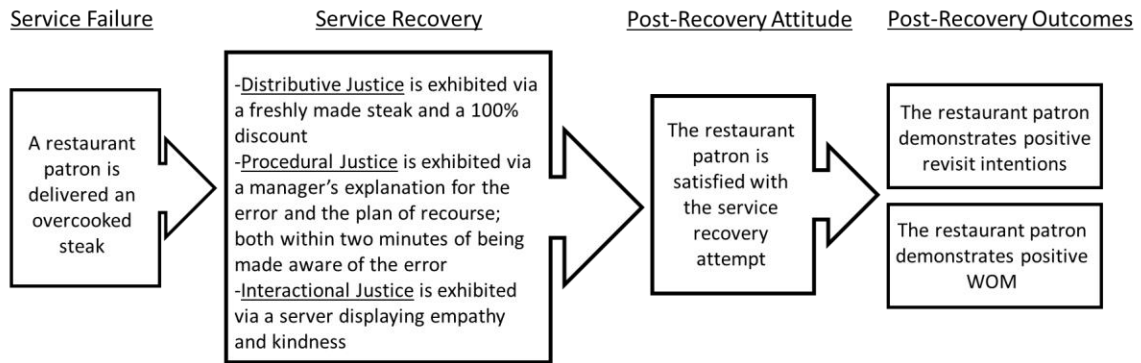


Figure 2.1 provides a visual description of a service recovery attempt incorporating all three justice dimensions (DJ, IJ, and PJ). In this scenario, the initial service failure occurs when the restaurant patron is delivered an overcooked steak (a prominent service failure in service recovery literature focused on restaurant settings). Following the service failure, a service recovery attempt is demonstrated, one in which all three dimensions of justice are provided as a means of mitigating the initial service error. The next step, labeled “Post Recovery Attitude”, represents a positive assessment of the service recovery attempt, resulting in a positive attitude regarding the recovery process. Thus, the satisfaction attributed to the recovery process is described as post-recovery satisfaction. Following the positive recovery assessment are the potential positive outcomes resulting from the recovery process, a process which began with the initial service failure.

Within the scenario, interactional justice is demonstrated by the server's keen interest and empathy for the customer, combined with assurances to rectify the service

failure. Procedural justice is corroborated by one or more service providers through a timely meal replacement, an explanation as to how the error occurred, and the steps that will be carried out to offset the service error. Finally, distributive justice is substantiated with a new steak, cooked properly, combined with a discount of 100% of the customer's meal. Upon experiencing a satisfactory recovery attempt, the restaurant provider is thus presumed to exhibit positive post-recovery attitudes and behaviors. This scenario exemplifies the logical underpinning of justice theory: a service recovery attempt, one in which perceptions of all three justice dimensions (hopefully) exceed expectations and results in post-recovery satisfaction, which in turn results in positive impacts on both repurchase intentions and WOM (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016; Murphy et al., 2015; Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011; Namkun, et al., 2009).

One of the first empirical examinations of the three dimensions of justice or fairness on customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction was performed by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998). Focused on customer complaints, they described customer complaint handling as a sequential process (procedural justice) initiated via communication of a complaint. They suggested the process is advanced through communication (interactive justice) between the consumer and service provider, resulting in some outcome (distributive justice). A total of 257 service employees of four distinct services (hospitality services were not included) who had experienced a service failure in the past six months were asked to complete a cross-sectional survey. With the dual goals of understanding how service complaints were evaluated, and determining what (if any) relationship existed between satisfaction with complaint

handling and the provision of justice, the authors found that a firm's favorable actions had a direct and positive impact on customer evaluations.

Why is justice important to customers, particularly after a service error has occurred? According to previous research, service evaluations made prior to a service failure are not homogenous to service evaluations made during a service recovery attempt (Wen & Chi, 2013). Customer responses to unjust service experiences are generally stronger than those perceived as just (Schneider & Bowen, 1999). Berry and Parasuraman (1993) suggested that service customers are more emotionally involved during the recovery process compared to the original service, and therefore are more "aware" of the quality of the service being rendered.

In addition, customer assessments only account for the individual's subjective evaluation (Swanson & Hsu, 2011). As customers' expectations are influenced by previous experiences, personal needs, and the service promise (Yim, Chan, & Lam, 2012; McDougal & Levesque, 2000) recovery attempts are judged by customers' with distinct recovery preferences (Nguyen, McColl-Kennedy, & Dagger, 2012). It has also been suggested that the relative importance of each justice dimension is predicated on the nature of the service (Nadiri, 2016), as well as the failure context (Homburg, Stierl, & Bornemann, 2013) and the preexisting type/strength of the relationship a customer has with a service firm (Park, Kim, & O'Neil, 2014).

Utility of Justice Theory

Visualized through a hypothetical “veil of ignorance” as a means to ensure objectivity over personal circumstances (Arvan, 2014), Rawls’ justice theory is predicated on the notion that a society built on justice provides for higher levels of happiness and common good (Jacobson, 2008). It has been suggested that justice is important to members of a society due to motivations that can be classified as relational, moral or instrumental (Cuguero-Escofet & Fortin, 2014). Lind (2001) suggested that relational theorists contend that justice provides a foundation for which individuals can ascertain their standing among fellow group members. Moral motivations of justice, those actions geared towards leading a meaningful life (Turillo, Folger, Lavelle, Umphress, & Gee, 2002), include examples of individuals who demonstrate a preference for justice over personal gain, even when their “identity” is hidden and the benefactors are strangers (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Finally, it has been suggested that justice has instrumental utility, for justice can be used to reduce uncertainty, as well as attain outcomes (both tangible and intangible) that we perceive to be satisfactory (Sacconi & Faillo, 2008; Tyler, 1987).

Service failures have previously been categorized as being either outcome or process failures (Park et al., 2014), with both types considered common and critical to the perception of hospitality firms (Silber, Israeli, Bustin, & Zvi, 2009). Outcome failures are service issues that impact things customers expect to receive. Process failures are service failures associated with the manner in which the service is rendered. According to Nikbin, Marimuthu, Hyun, & Ismail (2015, pg. 242), “justice theory

acknowledges the significance of both instrumental and relational aspects of one's affiliation with others". In the context of restaurant service recovery, one of the most common types of outcome service failures are associated to issues with food (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016).

The increasing popularity of service recovery research coincided with the dual applications of expectation disconfirmation theory and justice theory (Wen & Chi, 2013). Several early studies, including those by Clemmer (1993) and Seiders and Berry (1998), suggested that in addition to disconfirmation, justice or fairness had a positive impact on post-recovery customer satisfaction. Studies by Oliver & Swan (1989) and Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999) provided comparisons of the predictive utility of post-recovery satisfaction via disconfirmation and justice. While Oliver and Swan (1989) only examined the distributive dimension of justice theory, Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999) examined all three justice dimensions. The results of both studies confirmed the following: although disconfirmation complements perceived justice, it is the lesser of the two determinants.

One reason justice theory emerged is that expectation theories were found to be limited to explaining *why* customers are satisfied or dissatisfied (Kuo & Wu, 2012; Ok, Back & Shanklin, 2005; Smith & Bolton., 2002; Seiders & Berry, 1998), yet they do not adequately provide for *how* to apply specific service provider/management enhancements (Sparks & McColl-Kennedy, 1998; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). Further, they do not demonstrate how recovery satisfaction is linked to behavioral outcomes (XiaoRan & Omar, 2014; Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997). Alternatively, justice

dimensions have been found to provide service firms with specific recovery strategies (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012; Hocutt, Chakraborty, & Mowen, 1997), including the allocation of the necessary resources needed to conduct a proper service recovery (La & Choi, 2012; Lee & Park, 2010).

Over the past twenty plus years, justice theory has been used to better understand recovery practices and has been suggested to be an “effective evaluative tool and a powerful predictor of service recovery satisfaction among consumers” (Kim, Yoo, and Lee 2012, 4). Additional outcomes found to be influenced by justice include positive WOM communication (Nadiri, 2016), loyalty (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009), and revisit intentions (Casidy & Shin, 2015).

In contrast, a perception of no justice or a substandard amount of justice has been found to induce post-recovery dissatisfaction (Nikbin et al., 2016), ultimately leading to a loss of confidence (Park, Kim, & O’Neil, 2014), defection (Jin, Lee, & Huffman, 2012), and negative WOM (Keiningham et al., 2014). Although previous research has found that justice accounts for over 60% of service recovery evaluations (Siu, Zhang, and Yau 2013), a consensus on the effect size of the three justice dimensions on satisfaction, WOM, and repurchase intent have yet to be identified (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016).

Proposed Conceptual Model

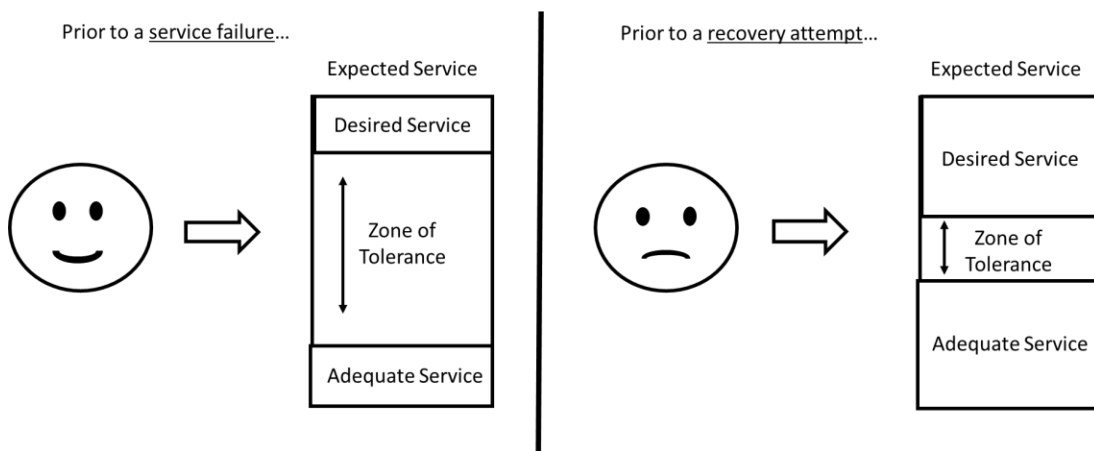
The Effect of Service Failure Severity on Post-Service Recovery Evaluations

For customers of service firms, not all service failures are alike (Silber et al., 2009); expectations, as well as individual and situational factors, contribute to moderating perceptions of the service recovery process (Swanson & Hsu, 2011; Ha & Jang, 2009; Sparks & Fredline, 2007). Service failures are further distinguished by the severity of the service error, or service failure magnitude (Murphy et al., 2015). Several researchers have suggested that, the greater the magnitude of the service failure, the greater the dissatisfaction associated with the initial service transaction, and thus the greater the challenge for the service provider to enact a successful service recovery (Hur & Jang, 2016; Magnini, Ford, Markowski, & Honeycutt, 2007). Subsequently, the magnitude of the service failure should be a consideration when service recovery attempts are appropriated (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011).

According to Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman (1996), service failures are one of the crucial factors contributing to a customer's zone of tolerance (see Figure 2.2). Zone of tolerance, the area that represents the difference between acceptable and desirable service expectations, has been suggested to increase and decrease depending on the service scenario like an accordion. Presumably, an initial service failure results in the narrowing of this zone. However, severe service failures have been suggested to narrow the zone of tolerance further during the service recovery process (Ha & Jang, 2009). This narrowing of the zone increases the likelihood of customer dissatisfaction (Hess,

2008). Thus, it has been posited that a more serious service failure will require a more robust recovery effort in order to avoid post-recovery satisfaction (Sajtos, Brodie, & Whittome, 2010).

Figure 2.2: An Illustration of the Consumers' Zone of Tolerance



The magnitude of service failures has been classified in a number of ways. Yi & Lee (2005) differentiated levels of service failure severity by documenting the customers' stated frustration, ranging from annoyance to victimization. In the context of air travel, Sajtos, Brodie, & Whittome (2010) provided respondents with a time delay ranging from less than an hour to 10 hours. Hoffman, Kelley, & Rotalsky (1995) categorized service failures within the restaurant industry by asking respondents to provide examples of service failures. These responses were subsequently ranked in terms of severity. Thus, service issues related to mischarges were identified by

respondents as least severe, while problems associated with delayed seating were identified as most severe.

More recently, Susskind & Viccari (2011) conducted a study in which 802 respondents were asked to recall their most recent service failure experienced in a restaurant. They were then asked to rank this error on a 5 point scale (1= very minor and 5= very problematic). It was determined that service failures related to issues with food were deemed most severe and issues related to service delivery were deemed the least severe.

Several studies have empirically examined the influence of service failure severity on post-recovery satisfaction, and have posited an approximation of the following: the more serious the service failure, the greater the perceived loss and the greater the impact on the evaluation of the service provider (Cho, Jang, & Kim, 2017; Chuang et al., 2012; De Matos, Vieira, & Veiga, 2012; Hess, Ganeson, & Klein; 2003; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002). Within the context of restaurants, Mattila (1999) proposed that serious service failures (e.g. failing to honor a reservation) would garner significantly lower post-recovery satisfaction ratings than service failures perceived to be minor (being served the wrong dish). She further posited that service recovery attempts resulting from serious service failures would produce significantly lower customer satisfaction than if no service failure been experienced. ANOVA results indicated that serious failures were significantly less likely to result in post-recovery satisfaction as compared to minor service failures. Similarly, it was found that serious service failures did not result in post-recovery satisfaction levels higher than had the

initial service failure been avoided. This phenomenon has been termed the “service recovery paradox” (McCullough & Bharadwaj, 1992).

Not all studies have produced results as conclusive as those described above. Susskind & Viccari (2011) examined the correlations among service issue severity, satisfaction with service recovery, and repurchase intentions. Results of a one-way ANOVA revealed that post-recovery satisfaction was negatively related to the severity of the service failure (satisfaction, $r = -.04$, $p = .27$). This finding suggests that restaurant patrons who experienced more severe service failures reported lower levels of satisfaction with the outcome of the service recovery. However, the correlation was small and not statistically significant. Given the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1a: Post-recovery satisfaction will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.

Several studies suggest that, service failure severity plays a critical role in customers’ post-recovery attitudes and behavior, particularly customer satisfaction (Swanson & Hsu, 2011; Harris, Grewal, Mohr, & Bernhardt, 2006; Weun, Beatty, & Jones, 2004; Hess, Ganeson, & Klein, 2003). It has also been stated that severe service failures result in more negative consequences (Wang, Wu, Lin, & Wang, 2011; McQuilken, 2010; Goodwin & Ross, 1992). However, few studies have empirically examined service failure severity within the context of justice theory (Chuang et al., 2012; Mattila, 1999). Specifically, few studies have attempted to explain which justice

dimension or dimensions are most responsible for influencing post-recovery attitudes and behaviors (Cho, Jang, & Kim, 2017; Weun, Beatty, & Jones, 2004; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999).

One study that did examine the impact of all three justice dimensions on service recovery and service failure severity was conducted by Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999). They conducted identical experiments in two hospitality contexts: hotels and restaurants. In the context of hotels, they found that both distributive justice and procedural justice had significant effects on a minor service failure (supporting the important role that service failure magnitude plays in service recovery). However, while procedural justice also had a significant effect on a minor service failure in the context of a restaurant, compensation (distributive justice) had a greater negative effect when the severity of the service failure was perceived to be severe. These results suggest that, in certain situations, overcompensation may produce diminishing returns in terms of increased customer evaluations. They further found no significant relationship between the severity of a service failure and interactional justice on either hotel guests or restaurant patrons.

Examining the role of negative emotions on post-recovery satisfaction, Nikbin, Iranmanesh, Hyun, Baharun, & Kim (2015) focused on the interaction between service failure severity and all three justice dimensions. Results of a hierarchical regression analysis produced a significant relationship between negative emotions (angry, offended, and disappointed) with failure severity and both interactional justice ($\beta = 1.46, p < .05$) and procedural justice ($\beta = .77, p < .05$). Plotted linear regression lines indicated that

interactional justice and procedural justice significantly lessened negative emotions for service failures deemed to be minor. Due to the seemingly important relationships between service failure magnitude and the three justice dimensions and the lack of research in the area, it is proposed:

Hypothesis 1b: The perception of a lack of distributive justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.

Hypothesis 1c: The perception of a lack of interactional justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.

Hypothesis 1d: The perception of a lack of procedural justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.

Service failures have been suggested to negatively influence customers repurchase intentions (Casado, Nicolau, & Mas, 2011; Silber et al., 2009; Hellier et al., 2003). Furthermore, it has been suggested that severe service failures, regardless of the success of the service recovery, has a negative moderating effect on repurchase intentions (Sparks and Fredline, 2007). This contradicts the service recovery paradox (SRP) discussed above, and lends further importance to studying the phenomena. Although there is great debate concerning the plausibility of SRP's (De Matos, Henrique, & Rossi, 2007), researchers agree that the potential for a SRP is possible only

when the service error is perceived be moderate, and not severe (Krishna, Dangayach, & Sharma, 2014).

Severe service issues most pertinent to repurchase intentions have previously been identified as core service failures (Hart, Heskett, Sasser, 1990). Core services are those which satisfy the most basic service promise (Kelley, 1993; Seiders & Berry, 1998). It has been suggested that when service providers fail at providing what is most expected from the service transaction, they are most likely to result in customer defection. Due to the consequences the importance of repurchase intentions for service firms, the relationship between service failure magnitude and repurchase intent has been well-researched.

For example, Levesque & McDougall (2000) provided respondents with one of two hospitality scenarios (restaurant or hotel). Faced with a serious service failure (reservation cancellation) or a minor service failure (a short delay), each respondent was then provided with one of four possible recovery attempt scenarios (an apology, an apology with compensation, an apology and assistance, or an apology with assistance and compensation). The results confirmed that the effect of high severity was greater than that for low severity for repurchase intentions for all four recovery attempt scenarios. When confidence intervals (set at 90%) were calculated for the difference of high and low severity effects on restaurant repurchase intentions, the hypothesis of no difference was rejected. Service failure severity was also found to be a moderator of the effect of recovery for repurchase intentions for both the hotel experiment ($F_{3,586} = 6.051$, $p < 0.001$) and the restaurant experiment ($F_{3,586} = 4.049$, $p = 0.007$).

Wang et al. (2011) examined customer loyalty and switching behavior in the context of online retail, and how those concepts were impacted by both service failure severity and the three justice dimensions. Testing a structural model, they found that service failure severity had a significant and negative relationship with switching intentions ($\beta = -0.194$). Although nearly 41% of the variance in switching intentions was explained by the research model, interactional justice was the only justice dimension to produce a significantly lower negative relationship between switching intention and service failure severity ($\beta = 0.207$). Based on these results, Wang et al. (2011) concluded that high severity service failures can have a significant and negative relationship with switching intentions, and high levels of interactional justice can offset the negative relationship between switching intentions and service failure severity. The findings of Wang et al. (2011) and Levesque & McDougall (2000) support the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1e: Post-recovery repurchase intentions will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.

Although it has been suggested that purchase decisions are often made without additional information (Abratt & Goodey, 1990; Olshavsky & Granbois, 1979), the presumed high risks associated with certain services may compel customers to seek credible sources of information (Murray, 1991). One of the most powerful sources of information regarding services is WOM (Evanschitzky, Brock, & Blut, 2011). As such, WOM intentions have been found to be a key component of service recovery (Bonifield & Cole, 2008) and play a prominent role in customer information searches and business

evaluations (Choi & Choi, 2014). Put simply, customers satisfied with service recovery attempts have been found to be more likely to give positive reviews and recommendations (Chen & Law, 2016).

Alternatively, a poorly assessed service recovery, one that has been perceived to be unfair, has been found to result in public criticism (Choi & Choi, 2014). This is important because negative WOM has been found to be more influential than positive WOM (Yoon, Polpanumas, & Park, 2017). Furthermore, it has been found that customers are more likely to engage in negative WOM as the severity of the service failure increases (Kim & Jang, 2014; Casidy & Shin, 2015). Therefore, service firms need to understand the relationship between post-recovery WOM intentions and service failure severity. However, few studies have examined the effects of failure severity on post-recovery WOM behaviors in the hospitality industry (Vaerenberg & Orsingher, 2016; Swanson & Hsu, 2011).

Although not directly related to service recovery and justice dimensions, McQuilken (2010) examined the impact of employee effort and failure severity on service guarantees. Equity theory (Adams, 1965), which argues that higher levels of dissatisfaction are a result of perceptions of more serious service failures, was used as the underpinning for his study alongside prospect theory. Prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) suggests that losses associated with severe service failures are weighted more heavily than any gains resulting from a service recovery. Findings from their study suggested that, while high levels of employee effort have a partial positive effect on

negative WOM intentions for minor service failures, the same high employee effort has no impact on major service failures regarding negative WOM.

McQuilken & Robertson (2011) conducted an experimental study in order to examine the influence of service guarantees, and how the severity of a service failure impacts negative WOM. Their findings confirmed results from Kahneman and Tversky (1979), as results based on an ANCOVA include that severe service failures result in higher intentions to spread negative WOM ($M = 5.72$, $SD = .99$ versus $M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.50$)

Utilizing critical incident technique (CIT), Swanson & Hsu (2011) collected over a thousand incidents of service recovery (both satisfactory and unsatisfactory) within the context of hospitality in the United States. Respondents were then asked to provide details on the incident that preceded the recovery attempt. In order to examine WOM, respondents who acknowledged speaking to someone about the service failure incident were then asked to identify those people by group (i.e. family, friends, coworkers, etc.). Respondents were then asked to indicate the level of positivity (positive WOM) or negativity (negative WOM) associated with these discussions. They found that the greater the magnitude of the initial failure, the greater the likelihood that the customer would discuss the incident with others ($t = 3.91$, $p < .001$, $r = .20$).

Additionally, Swanson & Hsu (2011) found that severe service failures were significantly more likely to be discussed among a wider social network ($t = 3.59$, $p < .001$, $r = .19$). Finally, results of their correlation analysis suggested that severe service

failures were significantly more likely to result in negative WOM in the form of warnings and criticisms of the service firm ($r = 0.33$). The previous findings support the notion that an inverse relationship between service failure severity and WOM intentions following a service recovery exists. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1f: Post-recovery positive WOM will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.

Effects of the Three Justice Dimensions on Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction has been intensely scrutinized by market researchers (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011; Oliver & Desarbo, 1988) since Cardozo's (1965, pg. 249) empirical findings suggested it to be "more of a global concept than simply product evaluation." Representing the consumers' subjective evaluations or impressions of a service provider (XiaRan & Omar, 2014; Andreassen, 2000), customer satisfaction has subsequently been suggested to be the primary determinant of both service quality (Wall & Berry, 2007) and customer loyalty (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). For many service providers, customer satisfaction is considered the single most important indicator of success (Park, Kim, & O'Neill, 2014), and has been found to be a direct antecedent of customer behavioral intentions (Su & Hsu, 2013; Petrick & Backman, 2002).

It's been argued to be equally important to understand how to better minimize and, if possible, reverse customer dissatisfaction resulting from service errors (Kuo et al. 2013; McCollough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000). According to Wen & Chi (2013), most

customers can tolerate some service mistakes, as mistakes alone do not necessarily lead to customer dissatisfaction (Bitner et al., 1990).

One of the primary reasons for customer dissatisfaction resulting from service errors has been suggested to be a refusal or the inability of service providers to take appropriate service recovery measures (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002; Hoffman et al, 1995). In addition, it has been reported that higher levels of customer satisfaction are a result of greater recovery performances (McCullough, 2009). Thus, the provision of post-recovery customer satisfaction resulting from effective marketing strategies has been deemed important for the preservation of customer-service provider relationships (Park, Kim, & O'Neil, 2014; Sparks and McColl-Kennedy, 1998).

Although other theoretical approaches have been utilized to examine customer satisfaction following a service error (see Figure 2.3), previous studies suggest that justice perceptions have a direct and positive impact on post-recovery consumer satisfaction (Murphy et al., 2015; Siu, Zhang, and Yau 2013; Karande, Magnini, & Tam, 2007). It is presumed that, due to the negative emotions (anger, sadness, and regret) experienced after a service error, perceptions of justice become particularly relevant during the recovery (Chang & Chang, 2010; Mattila & Ro, 2008). In addition to being provided with a just outcome, customers are also motivated to seek a “just” service quality resolution (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988), particularly service procedures and individualized attention resulting from a failed service transaction (DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008). Thus, post-recovery attitudes and behaviors are presumed to be driven by perceptions of justice (Van Vaerenbergh, Lariviere, &

Vermeir, 2012). Subsequently, several empirical studies have suggested that justice theory serves as the most powerful predictor of customer satisfaction (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012; Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011; Chang & Chang, 2010).

Figure 2.3: Theories Used to Examine Post-Recovery Customer Satisfaction

Expectancy Disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1980)	Equity theory (Bagozzi, 1975)	Attribution theory (Weiner, 2008)	Mental Accounting theory (Thaler, 1985)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction is a combination of expectations (anticipated behavior) and perceived performance of the service provider • Higher levels of recovery satisfaction are a result of exceeding expectations (Nguyen et al., 2012) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Satisfaction is a result of the perception that the benefits received equal (at minimum) the burdens endured • Consumers who have a strong relationship with a firm show a greater tolerance for service failures (Piaralal, Bhatti, Piaralal, & Juhari, 2016) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dissatisfied customers search for explanations for the cause(s) of a service failure • Satisfaction levels are higher when the customers attribute the service failure to circumstances beyond the control of the service provider (Mattila & Ro, 2008) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Customers categorize failures as either output-related or process-related • Satisfaction levels are higher when recovery resources match service error type (Chuang et al., 2012)

Although previous studies have found all justice dimensions to be relevant to all consumers (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016), the level of impact of each justice dimension on customer satisfaction remains unclear (see Table 2.1). For example, while some studies have found distributive justice to be the most important determinant of post-recovery satisfaction (Cranage and Mattila, 2006; Smith, Bolton and Wagner 1999;

Tax et al., 1998), others have suggested distributive justice to be the least important of all justice dimensions (Kuo et al., 2013; Ok, Back and Shanklin 2005).

Table 2.1: Antecedents to Post-Recovery Satisfaction

Author(s)	INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE	DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE	PROCEDURAL JUSTICE
Clemmer (1993)		X	
Blodgett et al. (1997)	X	X	
McCollough et al. (2000)	X	X	
Ok et al. (2005)	X	X	X
Wirtz & Mattila (2004)	X	X	X
Kau & Loh (2006)		X	X
Chang & Chang (2010)			
Wen & Chi (2013)	X	X	X
Cheung & To (2016)	X	X	X
Nibkin, Marimuthu, & Hyun (2016)			X



A positive relationship was found with the justice dimension(s) on post-recovery satisfaction

Similar incongruences have been reported with respect to procedural and interactional justice (see Table 2.2), even when the service setting has been constant. For example, Smith et al. (1999) and Kim et al. (2009) found distributive justice to have the strongest impact on post-recovery customer satisfaction in a restaurant setting.

Table 2.2: Most Influential Determinant of Post-Recovery Satisfaction

Author(s)	Context	Justice Dimension
Clemmer & Schneider (1996)	Restaurants/Hospitals/Banks	Distributive Justice
Tax et al. (1998)	Employees as Customers	Interactional Justice
Smith et al. (1999)	Hotels	Distributive Justice
Ok et al. (2005)	Restaurants	Interactional Justice
Karatepe (2006)	Hotels	Interactional Justice
Patterson, Cowley, & Prasongsukarn (2006)	Hotels	Distributive Justice
Karande et al. (2007)	Airlines/Hotels	Procedural Justice
Kim, Kim, & Kim (2009)	Hotels	Distributive Justice
del Rio-Lanza et al. (2009)	Cellular Phones	Procedural Justice
Choi & Choi (2014)	Restaurants	Distributive Justice

However, studies conducted by Blogett, Hill, & Tax (1997) and Chang & Chang (2010) demonstrated that the most important determinant of post-recovery satisfaction in a restaurant setting was the perception of interactional justice. Yet, studies conducted by Ok et al (2005) and del Rio-Lanza, Vazquez-Casielles, & Diaz-Martin (2009) argued that procedural justice had the largest influence on recovery satisfaction in a restaurant setting. Due to the conflicting findings of the previous research, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2a: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2b: The omission of interactional justice has a positive and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2c: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.

In addition to addressing the contradictory findings among service recovery studies utilizing justice theory, Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher (2016) proposed that future research examine the relationship between two distinct types of customer satisfaction. According to Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher (2016), previous research rarely distinguishes between transaction-specific satisfaction (the judgment of a particular service recovery experience) and overall satisfaction with the firm (the judgment of accumulated service experiences provided by a firm). It has been suggested that separate analysis of the two types of satisfaction, both believed to be influenced by service recovery (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002), could help to determine how post-recovery satisfaction affects overall firm satisfaction (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2003). This is important, as overall satisfaction has been suggested to influence customer-service provider relationships over time (Seiders and Berry, 1998). Although both types of satisfaction have been found to independently influence post-recovery behavior and attitudes (Van Vaerenbergh et al., 2014; Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011), the majority of previous research has been limited to transaction-specific satisfaction.

One exception would be the study conducted by Maxham & Netemeyer (2002), who examined all three justice dimensions on both overall firm satisfaction and satisfaction with recovery. In addition, they examined if gains in satisfaction with service recovery positively affected overall firm satisfaction. Results of their two studies (conducted simultaneously) included the following: with the exception of procedural and

interactional justice on recovery satisfaction, all three justice dimensions affected satisfaction with the recovery and overall firm satisfaction. In addition, recovery satisfaction was found to have a significant influence on overall firm satisfaction. Thus, the following hypotheses are presented:

Hypothesis 2d: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2e: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2f: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2g: Satisfaction with recovery positively and significantly effects overall firm satisfaction.

According to Soderlund (2002), different satisfaction levels exist between high and low familiarity customers, including service conditions of extreme high and low performance. Culinary travelers, those travelers who place a great importance of food experiences in their travel decisions (Kivela & Crofts, 2005), are likely to be highly experienced restaurant patrons. Although several studies have examined service recovery within the context of restaurants, few have examined the role of experience or involvement in forming post-recovery evaluations following a service failure (Qin & Prybutok, 2009). This is surprising, as previous studies have found experience or

engagement level to have a strong effect on satisfaction evaluations (Johnson & Fornell, 1991).

As previously stated, ECT has been a prominent theory in explaining consumer relationship satisfaction and repeat consumer decisions in the consumer behavior literature (Pappas, Pateli, Giannakos, & Chrissikopoulos, 2014). According to ECT, satisfaction is a result of a confirmation of predictions on the level of service performance (Walker & Baker, 2000). Although post-consumption evaluations are suggested to be a function of consumer expectations (Oliver, 1981), additional behavioral factors have been suggested to effect the relationship between expectations and satisfaction (Del Bosque, San Martin, & Collado, 2006). Experience, previously tied to customer knowledge (Johnson & Russo, 1984), involvement (Sharma & Patterson, 2000) and familiarity (Johnson & Kellaris, 1988), has been proposed to influence the relationship between expectations and satisfaction. Previous researchers have suggested that, unlike consumers with low experience levels, consumers with high experience levels with a service category may develop an aggregate performance level or industry norm (Walker & Baker, 2000; Spreng & Olshavsky, 1993).

One such study, conducted by Bowden (2009), examined the differences of customer-brand relationships among heavy and light users utilizing the expectation-confirmation theory (ECT). According to Bowden (2009), light users have difficulty forming precise expectations, and thus rely more heavily on tangible cues to evaluate service experiences (McGill & Iacobucci, 1992). Due to a lack of experience, Bowden

(2009) suggested that light users actively formulate comparison standards during the consumption process. Thus, Bowden (2009) found customer involvement or experience to play a significant role in the consumer evaluation process. Furthermore, Bowden (2009) suggested that experience mediated the relationship between commitment and satisfaction.

Similarly, Tam (2008) examined the role of brand familiarity on customer satisfaction evaluations and behavioral intentions in the context of restaurants. Similar to Bowden (2009), Tam (2008) proposed that customers with little familiarity with a brand would likely experience expectation disconfirmation, due to a greater cognitive effort in evaluating a service transaction. Tam (2008) incorporated pre-purchase measurements including customer familiarity, dining experience, and various restaurant-centric expectations (including food, process, environment, and service personnel) and post-purchase measures (including satisfaction) over a two-month period. A confirmatory factor analysis showed a reasonably good fit ($X^2 = 330.50$, $df=140$, $GFI=0.90$, $RMSEA=0.077$). Subsequently, it was found that the effect on perceived performance on disconfirmation and the effect of disconfirmation on satisfaction were stronger for the low familiarity group.

Based on the desires congruency model (Spreng & Olshavsky, 1993), satisfaction is derived from the consumer's desires, as opposed to what the consumer knows prior to a product or service experience. According to Spreng & Olshavsky (1993, pg. 171), "as the higher a person's desires are, the less likely it is that the performance of the product

will match or exceed these desires.” Thus, both the expectation confirmation model and the desired congruency model would suggest that increased experience or interest in a product or service would pose a bigger challenge for service firms to recovery from a service failure.

According to Johnson & Matthews (1997, pg. 292), “frequent customers of a service organization have more accurate expectations of quality.” In addition, frequent customers have been deemed more capable of determining the differences between different expectation types compared to infrequent customers. Specifically, these different expectations have been categorized as “will expectations”, expectations based on extensive prior experience, and “should expectations”, expectations based on little or no prior experience. Johnson & Matthews (1997) concluded that experience plays a significant role in “will” expectations. In addition, “should” expectations, those expectations more commonly used by less experienced customers, were found to be more idealistic than “will” expectations. In other words, experienced users of a service organization can most likely be expected to have more realistic expectations resulting from a service error. Although Johnson & Matthews’ (1997) research is focused on experience with a service organization, a parallel may be drawn with customers who are highly engaged with a service category. Given the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 2h: Post-recovery satisfaction will be higher for non-culinary travelers compared to culinary travelers.

The Effect of Justice-Based Satisfaction on Customer Evaluations

As stated above it has been posited that successful service recovery attempts are those which result in customer satisfaction (Jin, Lee, & Huffman, 2012; Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012). However, the benefits for providing customer satisfaction have been argued to transcend isolated satisfaction gains (Kumar & Shah, 2004). For service providers, one of the key benefits of providing customer satisfaction is due to the notion that customer satisfaction can serve as a direct antecedent of future customer behavior (Chan & Ngai, 2010). More specifically, customer satisfaction (dissatisfaction) derived from service transactions can directly lead to positive (negative) purchase behaviors (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016). Furthermore, it has also been found through empirical findings that service recovery attempts perceived to provide satisfactory levels of justice can significantly and positively impact repurchase intentions and positive WOM (Wen & Chi, 2013; Lin, Wang & Chang, 2011).

Justice theory is arguably the predominant theory used to predict post-recovery purchase behavior in service recovery research (Chuang et al., 2012). Perhaps this is partly due to the notion that customer behavioral intentions are comprised of both cognitive and affective elements (Bonifield & Cole, 2007). Examining the impact of customer dissatisfaction resulting from a failed service recovery, Mattila & Ro (2008) found that feelings of anger and regret resulting from a service failure in a restaurant setting had a significant impact on negative behavioral intentions, including customer defection and negative WOM. As customers are presumed to be more emotionally involved and observant of service after experiencing a service failure (McCollough,

2000; Gorry & Westbrook, 2011), it has been suggested that justice-based recovery attempts are likely to positively address both the cognitive and affective elements of customers' perception of recovery, and thus more likely to propel customers to engage in positive behavioral intentions (Swanson & Hsu, 2011).

Repurchase intention is a major area of focus in service marketing research due to its recognized importance to the sustainability of firms (Schoefer & Ennew, 2005; Reicheld, Markey, & Hopton, 2000). A number of the "benefits" resulting from customer retention have been well-documented (Pollack, 2015; Blodgett, Wakefield, & Barnes, 1995). Simply put, high levels of repurchase intentions suggest competitive strength and long-term profitability (Lee & Park, 2010). Although other variables like switching costs, variety seeking, and involvement are presumed to impact purchase intentions, studies by Kim, Wang, & Mattila (2010), Cronin, Brady, & Hult, (2000), and Tsai & Huang (2007) have all produced findings suggesting customer satisfaction to be a direct link to repurchase intentions. Based on a meta-analysis conducted by Gelbrich & Roschk (2011), the link between service recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions has also been well-established. Thus;

Hypothesis 3a: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.

The importance of WOM communications has been attributed to the notion that WOM communications are more reliable, credible, and meaningful than any other information source (Libai, Bolton, Bugel, De Ruyter, Gotz, Risselada, & Stephen, 2010).

This is due to the intangible nature of services being difficult to evaluate prior to the service (Liao, 2007). Recent technological advances have created additional avenues of WOM communication in the form of texts, online discussion forums, product reviews and blogs, and emails (Ring, Tkaczynski, & Dolnicar, 2016). For example, Facebook users have been found to share 4 billion pieces of content per day (Cho, Schweickart, & Haase, 2014).

As a “vehicle for expressing customer satisfaction (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006, pg. 97)”, WOM has been found to have a powerful influence on future purchase probability (Vazquez-Casielles, Suarez-Alvarez, & del Rio-Lanza, 2013). WOM communications have been suggested to be particularly powerful in the decision-making process among customers of hospitality services (Kim, Han, & Lee, 2001), as hospitality customers actively seek out information concerning services “high in credence and experience qualities (Swanson & Hsu, 2011, pg. 514)”. As such, WOM communications are considered to be one of the most important outcomes of service recovery (Choi & Choi, 2014; Bonfield & Cole, 2008).

A meta-analysis conducted by Orsingher, Valentini, & Angelis (2010) examined satisfaction with complaint handling in the service industry. Grounded in the justice framework, 60 independent studies were incorporated into two a methodological moderator model, incorporating overall satisfaction, WOM, and repurchase intentions. Citing the meta-analysis of customer satisfaction conducted by Szymanski & Henard (2001), Orsingher, Valentini, & Angelis (2010, pg. 181) confirmed the “well-known

tendency of service customers to share their satisfying service experience with other people”. Thus;

Hypothesis 3b: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on positive WOM.

Customers who are dissatisfied with a recovery incident are believed to experience a double deviation (McCullough, 2000). According to Loo, Boo, & Khoo-Lattimore (2013), a double deviation represents not one but two consecutive failed service experiences with a firm. As such, these customers have been found to be highly motivated to seek opportunities which offset the double loss of exchange (Thwaites & Williams, 2006). As negative experiences are suggested to weigh more heavily than positive ones (Stoddard & Fern, 1999), it has been suggested that customers retaliate by communicating their experiences with far more people than compared to the positive WOM generated by satisfied customers (Casidy & Shin, 2015). In addition, “there is evidence of a negativity bias where customers both pay more attention to and put more trust in negative than positive information (Swanson & Hsu, 2009, pg. 190)”.

Fortunately for service firms, successful service recovery attempts have been found to mitigate negative behavioral intentions (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011; Davidow, 2003; Spreng, Harrell, & Mackoy, 1995), including negative WOM (Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski, 2017; Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993). Thus;

Hypothesis 3c: Post-recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on negative WOM.

Additionally, distinction between satisfaction with the firm and post-recovery satisfaction has rarely been examined in service recovery research. Results of previous studies indicate that these two types of satisfaction should be addressed, as they appear to have distinctive impacts on post-recovery purchase behavior (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011). Examining the link between customer satisfaction and repurchase intentions in a service recovery context, Chang & Chang (2010) found that, among airline passengers, both interactional justice and procedural justice had a significant influence on recovery satisfaction. However, no significant direct impact of any of the three justice dimensions was found on overall satisfaction with the firm. Moreover, recovery satisfaction was not found to have a significant direct influence on repurchase intentions. Thus, interactional justice and procedural justice were found to have a mediating role on repurchase intentions through post-recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction.

Siu, Zhang, & Yau (2013) examined the role of justice as a mediator between prior satisfaction and both satisfaction with the firm and recovery satisfaction in a restaurant setting. Results indicated that while justice perceptions had a strong effect on post-recovery satisfaction, satisfaction with the recovery alone did not significantly influence behavioral intentions. A significant and positive indirect effect of recovery satisfaction on repurchase intentions was, however, found through overall firm satisfaction.

Maxham & Netemeyer (2002) were one of the first to distinguish between satisfaction with recovery and overall firm satisfaction. Based on their results, satisfaction with recovery was found to have a strong influence on WOM, while overall

satisfaction with the firm was found to have a strong influence on purchase intentions. This would suggest that customers satisfied with recovery are likely to spread positive WOM, while customers satisfied with the firm overall are likely to return. Thus;

Hypothesis 3d: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 3e: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on positive WOM.

Gelbrich & Roschk (2011) found similar results across 87 previous studies via meta-analysis. However, the relationship with overall satisfaction with a firm and negative has rarely been examined in previous service recovery research. One such study conducted by Wirtz & Mattila (2004) examined the impact of compensation, apology, and speed of recovery following a service failure in a casual dining setting. Utilizing a 2*2*2 between-subject factorial design, subjects were exposed to a hypothetical service failure. Satisfaction was measured with two items: one item measuring satisfaction with recovery, and the other item measuring satisfaction with the organization. Although satisfaction with the firm was not expressly measured, results indicated that “satisfaction” had a significant impact on negative WOM. Thus, it is postulated;

Hypothesis 3f: Satisfaction with the firm has a negative effect on negative WOM.

Relationship Marketing Defined

Contrary to the focus of discrete transactions and passive relationships central to transactional marketing (TM) (Grönroos, 2009), RM refers to customer perceptions and evaluations of how well a business fulfills the predictions, expectations, goals, and desires of the customer over the course of their relationship (Geiger & Kleinaltenkamp, 2015). The central goal of practicing RM is to establish revenue growth and cost savings through customer retention (Luczak, 2014; Christopher, Payne, & Ballantyne, 2013). More precisely, Grönroos (1991, p. 8) suggests that the function of RM is to “identify and establish, maintain and enhance and, where necessarily terminate, relationships with customers and other stakeholders, at a profit, so that the objectives of all parties involved are met; and this is done by mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises”.

One of the major criticisms of RM has been its utility (Choi & Choi, 2014). It has been suggested that the concept of “relationships” is too vague (Gummesson, 2011), and therefore has been misused (O’Malley & Tynan, 2000). According to Fernandes & Proenca (2008), RM is most suitable in markets that provide for external and/or social benefits to a customer based on the closeness of his or her relationship with a firm, as well as those firms that could result in long-term relations and provide the potential for risk as well as preferential treatment (Palmetier et al., 2006; Palmer, 1994). Most, if not all of these parameters have been suggested to closely align with the hospitality market (Nibkin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016).

Origins of Relationship Marketing

It has been suggested that the origins of Relationship Marketing (RM) emerged from several streams of research prior to the 1980's, perhaps partly explaining why it has been described as an "old-new" concept (Geiger & Kleinaltenkamp, 2015; Berry, 1995). According to Astuti & Nagase (2014), the recommendation for developing long-term relationships with customers was introduced by Adler (1966), who classified them as "domesticated accounts". Due to the emerging service industry experienced after WWII, the focus of marketing shifted from distributive functions to market research in order to prioritize customer care (Sheth et al., 2012). Attempts toward market segmentation, combined with increased interest in brand loyalty and repeat purchase intention transformed the concept of marketing away from mass production and towards individual relationships.

The first stream of RM research focused on service orientations (Brodie et al., 2008). From this viewpoint, the goal of attracting new customers has been considered to be just one of several steps in the marketing process (O'Malley, 2014; Harker & Egan, 2006). According to Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh (1987), future collaboration is based on history, implicit and explicit assumptions, trust, and planning. Although some studies have been performed on service recovery in the service industry field, few studies have adopted a relationship marketing approach to explain the relationship between perceived

justice, service recovery, trust, WOM, and revisit intentions (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009; Choi & Cai, 2010).

Relationship Marketing and Service Recovery

Theoretical foundations for customer outcomes following post-recovery appear in both the RM and justice theory literature (Van Vaerenbergh et al., 2012). A relationship between justice theory and RM has been suggested, as prior studies of both literature streams conclude that successful service firms instill psychological bonds that encourage customers to stay in certain relationships (Chuang et al. 2012; Alvarez, Casielles, & Martin, 2010). For example, Berry (2002) posited that firms that were perceived to provide “good” service met a minimum requirement for maintaining relationships with customers. However, long-term relationships were a result of service firms who provided the perception of service excellence. From the context of justice theory, research suggests that firms successful in providing justice following a service failure engender loyalty and positive WOM from their customers (McCollough, 2009). Conversely, it has been suggested that when customers feel injustice, they are less inclined to maintain a relationship (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016).

Relationship quality, documented as a construct of RM and a key predictor of business success (Alvarez et al., 2010), has previously been considered to be comprised of both trust and commitment (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016). Palmatier, Dant, Grewal, & Evans (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of factors influencing the effectiveness of RM to identify the relational constructs mediating the outcomes of RM.

He found that, in addition to relationship satisfaction and relationship quality, two of the most often studied factors were commitment and trust. Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh (1987) concluded that service relationships are based on, among other constructs, commitment, trust, and justice. Subsequently, researchers have examined perceived justice with service recovery, and have found that perceived justice had a positive effect on customer trust (Namkung & Jang, 2010; DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008; Siegel, Brockner, & Tyler, 1995) and commitment (De Matos & Rossi, 2008; Aurier & Siadou-Martin, 2007).

The Effect of Trust and Commitment on Customer Evaluations

The notion that trust and commitment are the key mediators of relational success, was initially proposed by Morgan & Hunt (1994) as part of the Key Mediating Variable Model (KMV) and has hence been supported by several researchers (Hsu, Liu, & Lee, 2010; Fullerton, 2014; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999). Trust has been suggested to be the single most powerful relationship marketing tool (Berry, 2002), and the cornerstone for long-term relationships (Mousa & Zoubi, 2011; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). For customers, trust in a service provider has been suggested to be most essential when faced with complexity, uncertainty, or when there is an inability to predict a high probability of financial or emotional loss (da Silva Terres & Pizzutti dos Santos, 2012). According to Santos & Fernandes (2008), trust provides a psychological guarantee of a company's consistent and satisfactory performance.

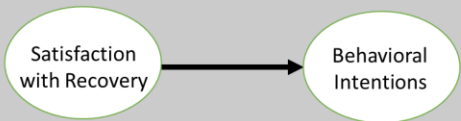
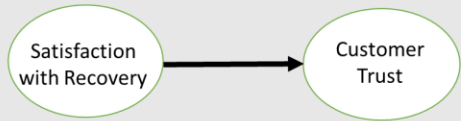
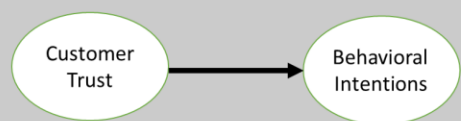
The criticality of gaining customer trust is largely due to the context of the service being rendered and the manner in which trust has been achieved over the duration of a relationship (Kim, Kim, & Shin, 2009; DeWitt et al., 2008). According to Halliday (2003, pg. 415), service providers play the character or role of expert in the service experience. Internalized through socialization, these roles are idealized “so that the responses can be appropriated even if never made before by that particular service customer”. In other words, customers are capable of placing trust in a service provider unless a service provider fails to accurately portray his or her role. In addition to competence, benevolence, and honesty, trust in a service provider can be directly related to the interaction with and practices of a service provider when problems occur. Thus, it has been suggested that the psychological benefits of trust are more important to customers than the special treatment or social benefits that are often associated with marketing strategies (Gwinner, Gremler, & Bitner, 1998).

Incidents of interaction among customers and service providers, including incidents of service recovery, provide service providers an opportunity to build trust and increase customer commitment (Bitner, 1995). In service recovery research, trust has been found to be a key antecedent of post-recovery satisfaction (Wang, Craighead, & Li, 2014). According to Colquitt & Rodell (2011), justice perceptions are potentially antecedents to trust because justice is encountered early and is more interpretable than information on trust. Conversely, it has been posited that service failures generate feelings of broken trust, signifying an act of betrayal and resulting in customer defections and negative WOM (Basso & Pizzutti, 2016).

Although justice theory was not utilized, Zhao & Tu (2013) examined the impact of trust on repurchase intentions in service recovery. Using two industry settings, they found that customer trust mediated perceived recovery performance and repurchase intentions among banking customers, yet trust had no direct or indirect influence on repurchase intentions among restaurant patrons.

Although several studies have confirmed that recovery satisfaction has a direct influence on trust (Ding, Ho, & Lii, 2015; del Rio-Lanza et al., 2009; Ambrose & Schminke, 2003), few studies have examined how trust impacts the relationship between service recovery satisfaction and future purchase behavior (Alvarez et al., 2010; Wen & Chi, 2013). However, the potential relationship between post-recovery satisfaction, trust, and behavioral positive behavioral intentions has been well-established (see Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4: A Summary of the Relationship between Satisfaction with Recovery, Customer Trust, and Behavioral Intentions

	Relationship	Selected Studies
	Satisfaction with a service recovery has a significant and positive impact on repurchase intent and positive WOM	Maxham & Netemeyer (2003); Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999); Tax, Brown, and Chandrashekar (1998)
	Satisfaction with a service recovery has a significant and positive impact on customer trust	Basso & Pizzutti (2016); Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012); Eisingerich & Bell (2008)
	Customer trust has a significant and positive impact on repurchase intent and positive WOM	Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun (2016); da Silva Terres & Pizzutti dos Santos (2012)

In addition, the role of trust as a mediator between justice and overall justice with the firm has rarely been studied (Basso & Pizzutti, 2016). Ding, Ho, & Lii (2015) examined the impact of trust on repurchase intentions and positive WOM among airline passengers following a service recovery. They found that the three justice dimensions had a moderating to strong effect on both recovery satisfaction and trust, accounting 77% of the variance in trust. They further found that trust had a significant effect on positive WOM ($\beta = .47, p < .01$) and repurchase intentions ($\beta = .48, p < .01$). Given the above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4a: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 4b: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.

Chaparro-Pelaez, Hernandez-Garcia, & Uruena-Lopez (2015), examined the role of trust in service recovery and behavioral intentions in the context of electronic commerce. Results of a structural model indicated that while service recovery satisfaction had no significant influence on overall satisfaction with a firm, service recovery satisfaction did have a significant and positive impact on trust ($\beta = 0.46$) and positive WOM ($\beta = 0.22$). In addition, they found trust to have a significant and positive impact on both overall satisfaction with the firm ($\beta = 0.49$) and commitment ($\beta = 0.41$). Their results indicated that trust is a driving force behind cumulative satisfaction (overall satisfaction with the firm), and argued it to be integral to preserving long-term relationships with customers. Thus;

Hypothesis 4c: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 4d: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and positive WOM.

In review of the service recovery literature, no study examining the moderating effect of trust on post-recovery satisfaction and negative WOM presently exists. Similarly, at present, no study examining the moderating effect of trust on satisfaction with the firm following a service recovery and negative WOM has been made available. However, the significant and negative impact of negative WOM on restaurants has been suggested by several researchers (Mattila & Ro, 2008; DeCarlo, Laczniak, & Motley, 2007; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006). In addition, previous studies have suggested that

customer trust can have a significant impact on negative post-recovery behaviors (Ha & Jang, 2009; DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008). Due to the seemingly important relationships between service failure magnitude and the three justice dimensions and the lack of research in the area, the following are proposed:

Hypothesis 4e: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and negative WOM.

Hypothesis 4f: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and negative WOM.



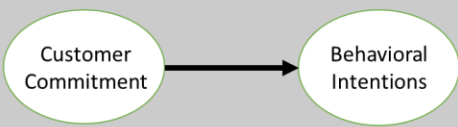
Commitment and trust share a common characteristic: customer vulnerability (Nusair, 2010). According to Hsu, Liu, & Lee (2010), previous RM research supports the theory that trust plays a motivational role in relationship maintenance while commitment is the outcome. Based on their findings, while both trust and commitment are key mediators of relational success, the influence of trust on repurchase intentions and positive WOM is mediated by one's commitment.

However, the formation of commitment is likely not simple. For example, DeWitt, Nyguyen, & Marshall (2008) examined trust and commitment incorporating justice theory and cognitive appraisal theory. According to dissonance theory, customers that successfully eliminate post purchase dissonance are more likely to become committed to a service provider. For example, a restaurant patron that experiences a long waiting time may dismiss feelings of dissonance by rationalizing why expectations have not been met. Alternatively, if a service transaction is so poorly

evaluated that a customer cannot dismiss the dissonance, the intention to switch service providers becomes stronger. This is particularly concerning for service firms that fail to provide error-free services, as service failures (and service recovery failures) can result in a business relationship being terminated. Thus, commitment is crucial to service providers in that it can lead to increased relational benefits (for both customer and service provider) and can decrease customer turnover (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016).

Although previous service recovery studies examining the role of commitment on future customer behavior have been scarce (Akamavi, Mohamed, Pellmann, & Xu, 2015; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), examples have been provided below (see Figure 2.5). Choi & Choi (2014) examined the effects of perceived service recovery justice on customer affection, commitment and post-recovery customer behavior. Analysis of their structural equation model (SEM) revealed a significant and direct link from commitment to positive WOM ($t = 3.165, p < .05$).

Figure 2.5: A Summary of the Relationship between Satisfaction with Recovery, Customer Commitment, and Behavior Intentions

	Relationship	Selected Studies
 <p>Satisfaction with the firm → Behavioral Intentions</p>	Satisfaction with a firm has a significant and positive impact on repurchase intent and positive WOM	Lin, Wang & Chang (2011); Maxham & Netemeyer (2003); Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters (1993)
 <p>Satisfaction with the firm → Customer Commitment</p>	Satisfaction with a firm has a significant and positive impact on customer commitment	Park, Kim, & O'Neil, 2014; Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012); Cater, Zabcar, & Cater (2011)
 <p>Customer Commitment → Behavioral Intentions</p>	Customer commitment has a significant and positive impact on repurchase intent and positive WOM	Kandampully, Zhang, & Bilgihan (2015); Choi & La (2013); Hsu, Liu, & Lee (2010)

Similarly, Wang & Chang (2013) examined the relationships between service recovery and relationship quality on customer assessments using justice theory among undergraduate students in Taiwan. Results of their SEM indicated that perceptions of justice had a significant and positive impact on trust and commitment, which in turn lead to positive WOM. Although justice perceptions were not examined, Kim, Han, & Lee (2001) examined the impact of commitment on repurchase intentions and positive WOM following a successful service recovery. Their findings also indicated that commitment was positively related to both intentions and WOM.

Hypothesis 4g: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfactions and repurchase intentions.

Hypothesis 4h: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.

The following is a summary of the objectives and hypotheses proposed in this study:

FIGURE 2.6: Study Objectives and Hypotheses

Objective 1: To better understand how the magnitude or severity of service failures impact customers' post-recovery evaluations.	
Hypotheses	Citation
1a: Post-recovery satisfaction will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999)
1b: The perception of a lack of distributive justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Nikbin, Marimuthu, Hyun, & Ismail (2015)
1c: The perception of a lack of interactional justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Nikbin, Marimuthu, Hyun, & Ismail (2015)
1d: The perception of a lack of procedural justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Susskind & Vaccari (2011)
1e: Post-recovery repurchase intentions will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Wang et al. (2011)
1f: Post-recovery positive WOM will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Swanson & Hsu (2011)

FIGURE 2.6 Continued

Objective 2: To test an extended conceptual model of service recovery incorporating justice proposed by Maxham & Netemeyer (2002), comparing culinary and non-culinary travelers.

Hypotheses	Citation
2a: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Ok et al. (2005)
2b: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Ok et al. (2005)
2c: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Ok et al. (2005)
2d: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)
2e: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)
2f: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)
2g: Satisfaction with recovery positively and significantly effects overall firm satisfaction.	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)
2h: Post-recovery satisfaction will be higher for non-culinary travelers compared to culinary travelers.	Johnson & Matthews (1997)

Objective 3: To determine the impact of satisfaction on customer evaluations (repurchase intentions and WOM).

Hypotheses	Citation
3a: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.	Gelbrich & Roschk (2011)
3b: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on positive WOM.	Orsingher, Valentini, & de Angelis (2010)

FIGURE 2.6: Continued

3c: Post-recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on negative WOM.	Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters (1993)
3d: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)
3e: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on positive WOM.	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)
3f: Satisfaction with the firm has a negative effect on negative WOM.	Wirtz & Mattila (2004)

Objective 4: To understand the role of trust and commitment between satisfaction (with recovery and the firm) and customer evaluations following a service recovery attempt.

Hypotheses	Citation
4a: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.	Ding, Ho, & Lii (2015)
4b: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.	Chaparro-Pelaez et al. (2015)
4c: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and repurchase intentions.	Chaparro-Pelaez et al. (2015)
4d: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and positive WOM.	Chaparro-Pelaez et al. (2015)
4e: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and negative WOM.	Mattila & Ro, 2008
4f: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and negative WOM.	Mattila & Ro, 2008
4g: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfactions and repurchase intentions.	Wang & Chang (2013)
4h: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.	Wang & Chang (2013)

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an extensive review of the service recovery and related literature, mainly from the services marketing and hospitality fields. The primary goal is to discuss the conceptualizations of the key constructs germane to this study and how they have been measured. An additional goal of this chapter is to identify potential research gaps that would further justify the research questions provided in Chapter II.

Service Failure

To better understand the concept of service recovery, it is important to first define service failure. Service failures have previously been described as incidents of customer complaints (Goodwin & Ross, 1992). Most researchers have focused on the outcomes of such incidents. For example, Siu, Zhang, & Yau (2013) described a service failure as any situation that elicits negative feelings due to something gone wrong during a service transaction. Other researchers, highlighting the subjective-evaluative aspect of a service failure, have described service failure as a situation in which a service fails to meet customer expectations (Swanson & Hsu, 2009; Kelley & Davis, 1994). Some researchers, however, have specifically focused on missteps associated with the service delivery (Hoffman & Chung, 1999) or the flawed product associated with the transaction

(Spreng, Harrell, and Mackoy, 1995). In order to emphasize the perception of service failure, service failure will be defined in this study as “any service related incidents or problems including reality (objective) and perception (subjective) and actions that could produce negative impressions (Lin, 2011, pg. 12223).”

The implications of service failures have been extensively reported, and discussed in the previous chapter. Services marketing researchers have consensually linked service failures to customer dissatisfaction (Wen & Chi, 2013; Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011). Customer dissatisfaction has invariably been explained to be a result of unmet expectations of service quality (Nankung & Jang, 2010), that can culminate in a violation of trust (Hoffman & Chung, 1999). Suggested to be a driver of customer switching behavior (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012), service failures have been found to have a significant and negative influence on customer repurchase intentions (Kuo & Wu, 2012)

The impacts of service failures are not limited to singular service experiences. According to Halstead, Morash, & Ozment (1996), service failures can also induce both “halo” and “domino” effects. The “halo” effect is a situation in which a restaurant patron forms an overall negative impression towards a restaurant due to one particular service failure (Namkung & Jang, 2010). For example, a restaurant patron who is served a hair in his or her food might make additional assumptions concerning the competence of the server and the cleanliness of the restaurant. Clearly, this type of effect could impact the probability of regaining trust with the restaurant patron, and likely detract the customer from returning.

In addition, service failures do not exist in a bubble. The “domino” effect is a situation in which one service failure precipitates additional service failures (Namkung & Jang, 2010). A common example of the “domino” effect in a restaurant setting involves seating errors. When hosts/hostesses fail to follow proper seating procedures, they can disrupt the orderly flow of table rotation (the systematic process of assigning servers to a new table). This type of error can impact a server’s timing, and lead to a server missing or rushing his or her steps of service, thus resulting in a domino effect (Susskind & Curry, 2016).

Domino effects can not only impact the performance of one server (restaurant patron), but could negatively impact the service quality of several front and backline staff members (and other restaurant patrons). According to Matilla & Ro (2008, pg. 90), service failures of all types have the capacity to evoke intense feelings of “annoyance, disappointment, regret, anger, and sadness.” These negative emotions have been found to significantly and positively influence negative WOM (Swanson & Hsu, 2009), a result that will be more fully examined later in this chapter.

Due to the many negative impacts associated with service failure, service failures have been well-researched (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016). In the services marketing literature, service failures have been previously been examined mostly by severity (Cho, Jang, & Kim, 2017), frequency (Mattila & Ro, 2008), and type (Bell & Zemke, 1987). As failure severity is a key variable of this study, a more complete examination of service failure severity will follow.

Regarding frequency, Yoo, Shin, & Yang (2006) examined full-service restaurants in Seoul, Korea. Employees of the 14 participating restaurants collectively reported an average of 2.3 customer complaints per shift. Assuming the participating restaurants served both lunch and dinner, the number of daily customer complaints would average nearly 4.6, or close to five complaints a day. This estimation of daily customer complaints is likely to be conservative, as the majority of service failures experienced in restaurants have been found to go unreported (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013).

In hopes of gathering information geared towards minimizing common service failures and facilitating improvements in service recovery efforts, Hoffman, Kelley, & Rotalsky (1995) utilized critical incident technique (CIT) and focused on the type of service failures most common in the restaurant setting. CIT is a systematic procedure whereby respondents are asked to recall specific, factual and relevant aspects of a particular episode or event (Chell, 2014). An incident deemed critical has been described as one which makes a significant positive or negative contribution to an experience or activity (Gremler, 2004; Chaudhry & Al-Sagheer, 2011). Collected by university students, the resulting 373 incidents of service failure or critical incidents were further analyzed. Based on the appropriate CIT methods suggested by Flanagan (1954), Hoffman, Kelley, & Rotalsky (1995) reported three major service failure types: *service delivery system failures, implicit/explicit customer requests, and unprompted/unsolicited employee actions.*

Additionally, service delivery system failures accounted for 44.4 percent of the total failures reported. Examples of these types of service failures, listed with respect to

frequency, included *product defects* (e.g. spoiled food, hair found in a customer's food), *slow/unavailable service*, *facility problems* (e.g. dirty silverware, bugs crawling on the table), and *out of stock items*. The *unprompted/unsolicited employee action group* accounted for 37.2 percent of all service failures. This group of failures was made up of *inappropriate employee behavior* (e.g. rudeness, poor attitudes), *wrong orders* (e.g. delivery of an incorrect food item), *lost orders*, and *mischarges* (e.g. incorrect prices, customers were given the incorrect change). Lastly, the service failure group labeled *implicit/explicit customer requests* accounted for 18.4 percent of total failures. The two failure types within this group included *food not being cooked to order* and *seating issues* (e.g. lost reservations, denied requests for special tables). Subsequently, results of this study have served to provide a benchmark for others studies examining common service errors found in restaurants (Murphy et al, 2015; Silber et al., 2009; Mattila & Ro, 2008).

The ways in which services marketing researchers have previously manipulated service failure have been limited (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). According to Wen & Chi (2013), early studies examining service failure utilized CIT to gauge satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) with a service transaction (Swanson & Hsu, 2009; Hoffman & Chung, 1999; Keaveney, 1995; Bitner et al., 1990). Researchers who have used this method have commonly asked participants to recall a previous service experience in which a service failure has occurred, usually within the past six months (Nguyen et al., 2012) or year (Siu et al., 2013).

Alternatively, services marketing researchers have provided respondents with an imaginary service error scenario, as part of experimental designs (Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999). For example, examining how customer choice impacts the perception of fairness regarding service recovery, Mattila & Cranage (2005, pg. 278) demonstrated that providing customers the opportunity to participate in the service process had a positive impact on post-recovery evaluations. Utilizing a 2 (choice) * 2 (compensation) * 2 (apology) between-subjects experimental design, the subjects (students) were exposed to the following written scenario describing a service failure:

After being seated you and your guests look over the menu, talk about mutual experiences, and enjoy the view of the city. However, it's about twenty minutes before a waiter comes to your table. He seems rushed, but cordially takes your order. It's another ten minutes before you get your drinks and then fifteen minutes for appetizers. After another twenty-five minutes you still have not received your entrees. With some difficulty, you finally flag down your waiter and ask for some service.

In review of existing literature, the hypothetical scenario provided by Mattila & Cranage (2005) is more detailed than most studies. Examining the role of justice on post-recovery evaluations among casual dining customers, (Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005, pg. 8) provided participants the following service failure scenario: "A diner, during a graduation celebration, complains that he/she was served an overcooked steak despite ordering it to be cooked medium."

For the current study, modified variations, similar to the example provided by Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005) will be used to demonstrate service errors. It is also worth noting that while Mattila & Cranage (2005) used manipulation checks to verify the effectiveness of the indicators measuring choice, compensation, and apology, no

manipulation check was used to measure the effectiveness of the service failure scenario. Manipulation checks have consistently been found to aid in the convergent and discriminant validity of experimental research (Blodgett et al., 1997). Thus, in order to test the success of the experimental manipulation, a manipulation check for service failure will be included in this study.

Service Recovery

Previous service recovery research has been conducted to solve multiple research questions. In order to determine the efficiency of recovery strategies, several service recovery researchers have attempted to enumerate the most common service errors (Silber et al., 2009; Davidow, 2000; Bitner et al., 1990). By codifying service errors from most to least egregious (Keiningham et al., 2014), service recovery researchers have sought to provide valuable insight for service provider training (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009) and enhancements to service processes (Van Vaerenbergh et al., 2012).

To offset negative post-recovery attitudes and behaviors associated with service recovery failures, Keaveney (1995) conducted an exploratory study examining antecedents of customer switching behavior across 45 different services (including restaurants). Utilizing CIT, participants were asked probing questions and provided specific details as to why they switched service providers, resulting in more than 800 responses. Service failures (grouped as *core service failures* and *service encounter failures*) were cited as the key reason for switching service providers. Keaveney (1995, pg. 77) conceptualized service recovery as “employee responses to service failures

(Keaveney, 1995, pg. 77)” and further categorized them as reluctant responses, failures to respond, and patently negative responses. It was found that 45% of those participants who experienced a poor service recovery cited it as the sole reason for switching service firms.

As it has been reported that “nearly 24% of memorable, satisfactory encounters result from a service recovery after a service failure (Allen, Brady, Robinson, & Voorhees, 2015, pg. 648)”, service recovery researchers have also examined how service firms can demonstrate service excellence via service recovery (McCullough and Bharadwaj, 1992). The service recovery paradox (SRP), conceptualized as “the situation in which post-recovery satisfaction is greater than that prior to the service failure when customers receive high recovery performance (De Matos, Henrique, & Rossi, 2007, pg. 61)”, has been a prominent subject in the services marketing literature (Michel & Meuter, 2008; McCullough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000).

Examining service recovery among restaurant patrons, Matilla (1999, pg. 284), defined service recovery as “putting right what has gone wrong”. In justifying the study, Mattila (1999) cited three key assumptions regarding successful service recovery. First, several empirical studies have found positive and significant relationships between effective service recovery and customer assessments and behavior. Second, there is a belief among services marketing researchers that the perception among customers may be that service providers dedicated to providing strong service recovery are willing to work hard to maintain a relationship. Third, previous studies have reported incidents of

customers rating excellent service recovery attempts higher than error-free service transactions.

De Matos, Henrique, & Rossi (2007), examined 21 previous studies of SRP with relation to customer satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and WOM advertising. Findings from this study indicated that while customers who experienced a SRP expressed higher levels of satisfaction, changes in behavioral intentions (repurchase intentions and WOM) were not significant. However, the effect sizes for hotels and restaurants did score higher repurchase intentions than other service types.

A service firm's dedication towards its customers, exemplified by incidences of SRP, has been suggested to provide a restoration of confidence (da Silva Terres & Pizzutti dos Santos, 2012) and evidence of a service firm's service commitment to its customers (DeWitt et al., 2008). The impact of trust and commitment on service provider-customer relationships will be more fully discussed later in this chapter. However, according to results of a meta-analysis of customer satisfaction (Szymanski and Henard, 2001), customer satisfaction has typically explained less than 25% of the variance in repurchase intentions. Thus, additional service recovery research has been advocated by marketing researchers due to the prominent role both trust and commitment have been suggested to play in post-recovery customer behavior (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

In review of previous definitions of service recovery (see Figure 3.1), the ambiguity associated with several of the constructs examined in this study does not apply to service recovery. Based on an extensive review of the literature, service recovery is described,

more or less, as a set of actions or a process, instigated by a service failure and enacted as a remedy for said service failure. As the primary goal of this study is to better understand the relationship between service failure and post-recovery attitudes and behaviors, the definition proposed by Miller, Craighead, & Karwan (2000) will serve as the conceptualization of service recovery in this study. According to Miller, Craighead, & Karwan (2000, pg. 388), service recovery is “the actions designed to resolve problems, alter negative attitudes of dissatisfied customers and to ultimately retain these customers”.

Figure 3.1: Definitions of Service Recovery

Author(s)	Definition
Gronroos (2009)	Actions in which a firm engages to address a customer complaint regarding a perceived service failure
Smith & Bolton (2002)	The actions a service provider takes in response to a service failure
Mattila (1999)	Putting right what has gone wrong
Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)	The process by which the firm attempts to rectify a service or product related failure
Miller, Craighead, & Karwan (2000)	Actions designed to resolve problems, alter negative attitudes of dissatisfied customers and to ultimately retain these customers
Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012)	The actions of a service provider to mitigate and/or repair the damage to a customer that results from the provider’s failure to deliver a service as promised

Past studies have operationalized service recovery as including apologies, refunds, credits, and replacements (Kuo et al., 2013). For example, Mattila (2006) examined the effectiveness of anticipatory and retrospective explanations to potential service errors in a casual restaurant setting. She hypothesized that successful service recovery requires a perception of fairness, and that part of that perception can be realized through causal explanations of the service failure. Simulating a service failure (delayed service), service recovery was manipulated by explanation type (no explanation, anticipatory, and retrospective) and compensation (no tangible compensation and a reduced bill). Subsequently, it was found that retrospective explanations were more positively perceived by customers than anticipatory explanations.

Further, Xu, Tronvoll, & Edvardsson (2014), examined the impact of customer co-creation in service recovery. A sample of 418 university masters students were assigned to 1 of 12 possible service recovery scenarios. A 3*2*2 between-subject experiment was used to manipulate recovery type (customer-initiated, employee-initiated, and company-initiated) and measure cultural background and gender. The service recovery was duplicated for all three recovery type scenarios and customers were provided equal levels of distributive, interactional, and distributive justice. Results of a MANOVA indicated that higher levels of justice were perceived when service recovery was a collaborative effort among customers and service employees. It was also found that higher levels of perceived justice had a significant and positive impact on customer satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

Justice Dimensions

It has been suggested that service recovery assessments are largely based on the perception of fairness or justice associated with the interactional treatment (IJ), procedures (PJ), and outcome (DJ) of the service provider (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013). According to Wen & Chi (2013), the relationship between customers and service firms is best explained by justice theory. As such, descriptions of service recovery have often been couched in concepts related to justice or fairness. For example, examining service recovery in the hotel and restaurant industries, Hoffman and Chung (1999, pg. 72) defined service recovery as “the service recovery itself, the outcomes connected to the recovery strategy; and the interpersonal behaviors enacted during the recovery process and the delivery of outcomes.” Subsequently, service recoveries are predominantly manipulated by one or more of the three justice dimensions (Chuang et al., 2012).

Utilizing CIT, Hoffman & Chung (1999) analyzed incidents of service failure in restaurant (N=371) and hotel settings (N=382). They uncovered five service recovery strategies, four of which closely resembled one of the three dimensions of justice. The service recovery strategies were coded as “compensatory responses (akin to distributive justice)”, “managerial responses (akin to distributive justice)”, “corrective responses (akin to procedural justice)”, “empathetic responses (akin to interactional justice)”, and “no action taken”. Although justice was not explicitly examined or discussed, Hoffman & Chung (1999) advocated a service recovery program that would in effect provide justice for all three dimensions.

As justice theory has served as the principal theoretical framework for service recovery research for decades (Murphy et al., 2015), an expansive body of research incorporating justice theory exists. According to Lin (2009), most previous studies can be classified as one of the following:

- (1) The relationship between perceived justice and service recovery (Tax et al., 1998; Basso & Pizzutti, 2016)
- (2) Service error types and implications as to why they occur (Smith et al., 1999; Murphy et al., 2015)
- (3) Post-recovery customer attitudes and behaviors, and the implications of different service recovery policies (DeWitt et al., 2008; Cho, Jang, & Kim, 2017)
- (4) Key factors that impact service recovery (Yuksel, Kiline, & Yuksel, 2006; da Silva Terres & Pizzutti dos Santos, 2012)
- (5) The application of service recovery strategies (Wirtz & Mattila, 2004; Stratemeyer, Geringer, & Canton, 2014)

As previously discussed, the notion that higher perceptions of justice can result in favorable service recovery assessments has been extensively and empirically researched and well-scrutinized (Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013; Tax et al., 1998). Although justice theory has been found to significantly and positively impact post-recovery attitudes and behaviors, the results have been mixed (Nguyen, McColl-Kennedy, & Dagger, 2012). The figure below (see Figure 3.2) reflects the various samples, research designs, and findings associated with justice theory

Figure 3.2: Summary of Research Design and Findings of Previous Studies Grounded in Justice Theory

Author	Sample	Research Design	Notable Findings
Siu et al. (2013)	Casual restaurant patrons	Retrospective self-report survey of previous service failure at a Chinese restaurant in Hong Kong.	IJ, PJ, and DJ fully mediate the relationship between prior satisfaction and satisfaction with service recovery.
Wen & Chi (2013)	Airline passengers	On-site retrospective self-report survey of previous service failure in airports	IJ, PJ, and DJ have significant impact on recovery satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and WOM.
Choi & Choi (2014)	Undergraduate students	Retrospective self-report survey of previous service failure in last year	Both IJ and PJ have a significant effect (via customer affection) on WOM and customer loyalty
Lin et al. (2011)	University students	Between-subjects experiment utilizing a hypothetical service failure scenario in an online purchase	IJ, PJ, and DJ have a significant and positive influence on customer satisfaction. In addition, only DJ has a significant and positive influence on repurchase intentions, and only IJ has a significant and negative influence on negative WOM.
Chang & Chang (2010)	Airline passengers	On-site retrospective self-report survey of previous service failure in airports	IJ and PJ have a significant effect on recovery satisfaction.
Kim, Kim, & Kim (2009)	Hotel guests	Retrospective self-report survey of previous service failure in 5-star hotels	All three justice dimensions had significant effects on customer satisfaction, WOM, and repurchase intentions. The effect of DJ on recovery satisfaction was stronger than IJ or PJ.
DeWitt et al. (2008)	Hotel guests and restaurant patrons	Between-subjects experiment utilizing a hypothetical service failure scenario in both settings	Perceived justice has a positive effect on repurchase intentions and WOM.

Figure 3.2: Continued

Karatepe (2006) **Hotel guests** **On-site retrospective self-report survey of previous service failure in 3, 4, and 5-star hotels** **IJ, PJ, and DJ have a significant and positive impact on recovery satisfaction. The effect of IJ on recovery satisfaction is stronger than that of DJ.**

Wirtz & Mattila (2004)	Casual restaurant patrons	Between-subjects experiment utilizing a hypothetical service failure scenario in a casual restaurant	IJ, PJ, and DJ have a joint effect on post-recovery satisfaction. Recovery satisfaction acts as a full mediator between justice and behavioral intentions.
Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999)	Casual restaurant patrons	Between-subjects experiment utilizing a hypothetical service failure scenario in a casual restaurant	The impact of DJ on recovery satisfaction was stronger than that of IJ or PJ.
Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters (1993)	University students	Retrospective self-report survey of previous service failures	Overall perceived justice affected negative WOM and repurchase intentions.

Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998) examined the role of justice among complaining customers, and serves as a conceptual foundation for this current study. They utilized a cross-sectional survey to uncover how customers evaluated service recovery and how that experience influenced post-recovery satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and positive WOM.

They assessed respondents most recent incident of service by having them rate their experiences based on 45 statements (15 indicators). These statements were measured on five-point scales that were anchored by “Strongly Agree” and “Strongly Disagree”. The

concepts (see Table 3.1) used to measure justice were adapted from previous studies. For example, to measure the interactional justice component “*honesty*”, one of the four questions posed was “They did not appear to be telling the truth.” To measure the procedural justice component “*timing/speed*”, one of the four questions posed was “They responded quickly to my complaint.”

Table 3.1: Justice Scale Provided by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998)

Justice Dimension: Chronbach’s Alpha (CA)	Indicators	Number of Items (CA)
Interactional Justice: 0.91	Honesty	4 items (CA = 0.91)
	Explanation	4 items (CA = 0.84)
	Empathy	4 items (CA = 0.94)
	Politeness	4 items (CA = 0.94)
	Effort	4 items (CA = 0.93)
Distributive Justice: 0.97	Equity	2 items (CA= 0.98)
	Equality	2 items (CA= 0.98)
	Need	1 item (CA= 0.95)
Procedural Justice: 0.86	Decision Control	4 items (CA = 0.83)
	Accessibility	4 items (CA = 0.86)
	Timing/Speed	4 items (CA = 0.91)
	Process Control	4 items (CA = 0.89)
	Flexibility	4 items (CA = 0.89)

Based on the findings of meta-analyses conducted by Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher (2016) and Gelbrich & Roschk (2011), the items used to measure these justice dimensions have commonly been adapted from studies by Blodgett et al. (1997), Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998), Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999), Maxham & Netemeyer (2002) and Karatepe (2006).

Although several commonalities exist, there have been inconsistencies regarding the conceptualization of the three justice dimensions (Murphy et al., 2015). For example, although procedural justice (PJ) has been commonly defined as “the perceived fairness of policies, procedures, and criteria used by decision makers to arrive at the outcome of a dispute or negotiation (Blodgett et al., 1997, pg. 189)”, differences in the operationalization of the construct exist. Examples of recent studies measuring PJ, including the authors of the original scales are provided below (see Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3: Construct Measurement of Procedural Justice in Hospitality Settings

Author(s)	Sample	Construct (CA)	Chronbach's Alpha (CA)	Adapted by
Siu et al. (2013)	Chinese restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The restaurant responded fairly and quickly The restaurant responded in a timely fashion The restaurant has fair policies and practices The restaurant handled the problem fairly 	CA = 0.94	Tax et al. (1998)
Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012)	Korean restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> My complaint was handled in a very timely manner My complaint was not resolved as quickly as it should have been (reverse-coded) The procedure for handling my complaint was complicated (reverse-coded) Employees made an effort to adjust the procedure of handling my complaint according to my needs 	CA = 0.90	Blodgett et al. (1997); Karatepe (2006)
Mattila (2001)	Customers of restaurants, hair-stylists, and dry-cleaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The length of time taken to solve my problem was longer than necessary (reverse-coded) The service organization showed adequate flexibility in dealing with my problem 	CA = 0.89	Smith et al. (1999)

Similar inconsistencies exist for conceptualizations of distributive justice (DJ). For example, McCollough, Berry, & Yadav (2000, pg. 124) noted that DJ had previously been conceptualized as customers “getting their money’s worth.” However, Kuo & Wu (2012, pg. 129) defined DJ as the “customer receiving substantive compensation during service recovery.” Previous operationalizations of DJ, including those found in recent studies, closely resemble the constructs of DJ (equality, equity, and need) provided by Tax et al. (1998) (see Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4: Construct Measurement of Distributive Justice in Hospitality Settings

Author(s)	Sample	Construct (CA)	Chronbach's Alpha (CA)	Adapted From
Siu et al. (2013)	Chinese restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The restaurant’s effort brought a positive outcome The final outcome was fair despite the time and hassle The final outcome was fair despite the inconvenience The service recovery outcome was more than fair 	CA = 0.94	Blodgett et al. (1997); Goodwin & Ross (1992); Hoffman & Kelley (2000)
Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012)	Korean restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Compared to what you expected, the offer received was fair Taking everything into consideration, the manager’s offer was quite fair Given the circumstances, I feel that the hotel has offered adequate compensation The customers did not get what they deserved (reverse-ordered) 	CA = 0.91	Blodgett et al. (1997); Smith et al. (1999)
Mattila (2001)	Customers of restaurants, hair-stylists, and dry-cleaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The outcome I received was fair I did not get what I deserved In resolving the problem, the service organization gave me what I needed The outcome I received was not right (reverse-coded) 	CA = 0.92	Smith et al. (1999)

Not surprisingly, conceptual inconsistencies regarding interactional justice (IJ) exist as well. Although IJ has been conceptualized as “the manner of the operation of recovery process and the presentation of recovery outcomes (Kau & Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006, pg. 102)”, other conceptualizations of IJ have focused on specific items associated with human interaction. Sincerity, empathy, courtesy, and kindness are just some of the actions previously used to indicate IJ (Kuo & Wu, 2012; Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012; Choi & Choi, 2014). Thus, IJ has been operationalized differently in the past (see Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5: Construct Measurement of Interactional Justice in Hospitality Settings

Author(s)	Sample	Construct (CA)	Chronbach's Alpha (CA)	Adapted by
Siu et al. (2013)	Chinese restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The employees were courteous The employees should interest in fairness The employees worked hard The employees were honest and ethical 	CA = 0.94	Tax et al. (1998)
Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012)	Korean restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Employees were courteous to me Employees' communication with me was appropriate Employees put the proper effort into resolving my problem Employees showed a real interest in trying to be fair 	CA = 0.91	Tax et al. (1998); Karatepe (2006)
Mattila (2001)	Customers of restaurants, hair-stylists, and dry-cleaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The employees were appropriately concerned about my problem The employees did not put the effort into resolving the problem (reverse-coded) The employees' communications with me were appropriate The employees did not give me the courtesy I was due (reverse-coded) 	CA = 0.83	Smith et al. (1999)

Some previous studies have eschewed complex constructs of justice, and replaced them with unidimensional indicators. For example, Clemmer & Schneider (1996) concentrated on what had previously been found to be specific aspects of justice perceived as most important to customers. In their study examining fast food restaurants, they incorporated a hypothetical scenario which demonstrated PJ solely as the speed in which the service error was resolved.

Previous studies have also manipulated multiple levels of each justice dimension. For example, DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall (2008) examined the mediating effects of emotions and trust on loyalty precipitated by a service recovery in two hospitality settings (hotel and restaurants). The justice items and resulting scales used to measure distributive, procedural, and interactional justice were adopted from Blodgett, Hill, & Tax (1997) and Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999). However, these scales were combined into a single global justice perception construct. A sample of university students were provided with a service failure scenario, and respondents were subsequently provided with low justice (no response to the complaint), medium justice (procedural justice and distributive justice were provided via fair compensation in a timely manner), and high justice (interactional justice is provided via acknowledgement of an issue in addition to middle justice). DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall (2008) found that both positive and negative emotions mediate the relationship between justice and service recovery.

Another example of manipulating high and low levels of justice was demonstrated by Ha & Jang (2009). Investigating the role of relationship quality in post-recovery attitudes and behavior, Ha & Jang (2009) asked respondents to remember a

casual dining restaurant that they had most recently visited. They were then given a hypothetical service failure scenario in which the entrée was overcooked. The hypothetical recovery was manipulated by two levels of justice. For example, low distributive justice was demonstrated by having the server remake the meal but not offer any compensation. The high distributive justice was demonstrated by having the server offer a discount of 50% of the meal that was remade. Two levels of recovery were simulated in an identical fashion for procedural justice and interactional justice. Results of a hierarchical regression analysis suggested that higher levels of perceived justice had a significant impact on customer satisfaction, positive WOM, and repurchase intentions.

Although the effect of each justice dimension has been previously contested (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011), a substantial number of service recovery studies provide empirical results indicating that, together, IJ, PJ, and DJ greatly contribute to the explanation of post-recovery satisfaction across multiple service settings (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012). The impact of post-recovery satisfaction on customer attitudes and behavior will be discussed below.

Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is a psychological phenomenon which captures the positive feeling a customer obtains due to the purchase of a product or service (Oliver, Rust, & Varki, 1997); a purchase in which his or her needs and/wants are subjectively realized (Oh, 1999). Consumer satisfaction has been considered as one of the most critical factors in services marketing literature (Orsingher, Valentini, & de Angelis, 2010), as

evidenced by the “tens of thousands of academic and trade articles published on this topic within the past three decades (Pizam, Shapoval, & Ellis, 2016, pg. 4).” Previous studies which have examined service recovery and customer satisfaction range from nonspecific service environments (Blodgett et al., 1997; La & Choi, 2012) to environments such as banking (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002), universities (Smith et al., 1999) and retail (Lin, 2011; Van Vaerenbergh et al., 2012). Additional studies have focused on tourism-centric contexts, including air travel (Wen & Chi, 2013; Sengupta et al., 2015; Chang & Chang, 2010; Akamavi et al., 2015), hotels (Swan & Trawick, 1993; Smith & Bolton, 2002; Kim, Wang, & Mattila, 2010) and restaurants (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012; Siu et al., 2013; Kim & Jang, 2014).

Based on a meta-analysis of hospitality and tourism literature conducted by Pizam, Shapoval, & Ellis (2016), the accumulated research has produced as many as twelve distinct customer satisfaction theories: expectancy disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980), assimilation (Anderson, 1998), attribution (Weiner, 2008), cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957), comparison level (LaTour & Peat, 1979), value precept (Westbrook, 1987) generalized negativity (Carlsmith & Aronson, 1963), person-situation-fit (Pearce & Moscardo, 1984), contrast (Sheriff & Hovland, 1961), evaluative congruity (Sirgy, 1984), importance-performance (Barsky, 1992) and equity (Adams, 1963). Early attempts to explain consumer satisfaction were grounded by various psychological and social psychological theories (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982), many of which shared the premise that customer satisfaction results largely from an expectation or comparative standard (Tribe & Snaith, 1998).

Similarly, Szymanski & Henard (2001) conducted a meta-analysis of services marketing literature examining customer satisfaction. They determined that previous research examining satisfaction focused on modeling the following factors: expectations, performance, equity, and affect. All four of these factors have also been previously modeled within the context of service recovery (Pizam, Shapoval, & Ellis, 2016). Of these factors, equity, and to a lesser extent, disconfirmation (expectations), were found to be more strongly correlated with customer satisfaction than any of the other factors (Szymanski & Henard, 2001). Thus, equity theory (Adams, 1963) and expectancy disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1980) will underpin the examination of customer satisfaction in this study.

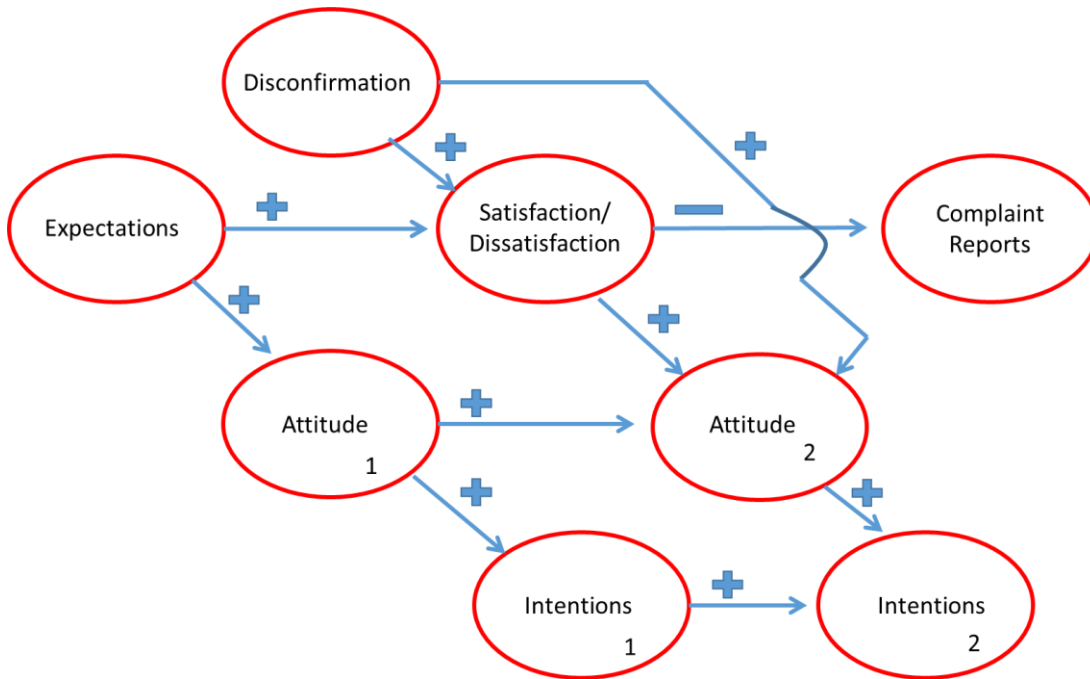
The notion that customer satisfaction results from a subjective comparison between expectations and attributes received was initially posited by Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell (1968) and later by Howard & Sheath (1969). Although Cardozo (1965) is largely credited with being the first to empirically test consumer satisfaction, it was Oliver (1980) who first reported the development and testing of a model incorporating satisfaction with expectations, disconfirmation, and additional indicators of attitudes and intentions (McCollough, 2000). Oliver (1980) posited that the degree to which satisfaction affects changes in attitude is a function of the strength of the disconfirmation and the strength of one's own opposition process. Oliver's proposal was unique in that, although related, expectations and disconfirmation effects were identified as independent of one another (Smith et al., 1999). Thus, Oliver's (1980) model suggested that

cognitive and affective evaluations have independent and direct influences on satisfaction (Oliver, 1997).

Responding to Andreasen's (1977) finding that as many as one in five purchase experiences result in some form of customer dissatisfaction, Bearden & Teel (1983) revised Oliver's (1980) original model to create a theoretical model of consumer satisfaction with complaining behavior (see Figure 3.6). They presented models in which expectation and disconfirmation were unrelated, additive, and exogenous. Customer satisfaction, presented as a function of consumer expectations, was operationalized as disconfirmation and product attribute beliefs (Day & Bodur, 1978). It was conceptualized that these product attribute beliefs (or expectations concerning the product or service) helped to form customer attitudes towards companies, which in turn influence future customer intentions (Pizam & Milman, 1993).

In addition to measuring customer satisfaction, service expectations, and future behavioral intentions, Bearden & Teel (1983, pg. 23) measured complaint behaviors, ranging from "warning family and friends" to "contacted lawyer or took some legal action". Data was collected from panel members at two different time periods, separated by four months. The respondents were randomly split into two groups: initial ($n = 188$) and replication ($n = 187$) samples. Path analysis results for both groups supported the findings of Oliver (1980), as expectations and disconfirmation were found to be positively related to satisfaction.

Figure 3.6: Theoretical Antecedents and Consequences of Consumer Satisfaction (Reprinted from Bearden & Teel, 1983)



The long-standing, concerted effort towards a better understanding of customer satisfaction among marketing researchers is based on a reckoning that customer satisfaction represents the “key causal agent responsible for experience-based attitude change (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991, p. 84)”. For customers, satisfaction has been suggested to represent the successful utilization of scarce resources in providing a positive outcome (Bearden & Teel, 1983). Satisfaction derived from a successful service transaction has been previously associated with positive impacts on the mental health of customers; as customer satisfaction can induce fond memories (Grisaffe &

Nguyen, 2011) and a reduction of the stress associated with purchase decision-making (Yoon, 2002).

Customer satisfaction has also been suggested to be the foremost indicator of a company's present success (Jin, Lee, & Huffman, 2012) and an effective forecasting tool for future success (Hennig-Thurau & Hansen, 2000). For service firms, the relevance of customer satisfaction is based on its presumed influence on customer behavior, as customer satisfaction has been suggested to result in lower marketing expenditures and increased profits (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016). This is due to the notion that satisfied customers are more likely to be amenable to price elasticities and require less marketing-allocated resources than dissatisfied customers (Matzler & Hinterhuber, 1998). Satisfied customers have also been found to purchase more frequently and in greater volumes (Reicheld & Sasser, 1990). Thus, customer satisfaction has been described as the "cheapest means of promotion (Pizam, Shapoval, & Ellis, 2016, pg. 3)."

However, services marketing research has focused largely on the role that customer satisfaction plays in the customer-service provider relationship. Some results have confirmed customer satisfaction to be a significant factor in developing customer loyalty (Delcourt, Gremler, Van Riel, & Van Birgelen, 2013), which in turn has been suggested to result in higher repurchase intentions and the spread of positive WOM communication (Babin, Lee, Kim, & Griffin, 2005). This notion appears to be accepted by researchers focused on service recovery, where it has been found that satisfaction derived from successful service recoveries can increase levels of consumer trust and

commitment (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Weun, Beatty, & Jones, 2004; Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012).

Post-recovery customer satisfaction has been suggested to be a particular type of customer satisfaction in the sense that it can only be achieved after an initial service transaction has gone wrong. Subsequently, service failures provide service firms a second chance at producing consumer satisfaction (Berry, 2002). This is important because it has been found that post-recovery satisfaction resulting from superior service recoveries can result in what is known as the service recovery paradox (Krishna et al., 2011). According to McCollough & Bharadwaj (1992), the level of customer satisfaction resulting from a service recovery paradox can eclipse the level of customer satisfaction one would experience had the initial service failure never occurred.

Alternatively, it has been posited that post-recovery dissatisfaction can influence customers in a variety of ways, including an increase in negative emotion (Wen & Chi, 2013) and instigating a deterioration of the relationship between customers and companies (Smith et al., 1999). This can ultimately lead to customer defection (Siu et al., 2013). When initial service errors are compounded by poor service recoveries, customers can experience a “double deviation (Casado et al., 2011, pg. 33)”. It has been suggested that the level of consumer dissatisfaction resulting from double deviation can induce feelings of severe frustration and betrayal (Basso & Pizzutti, 2016). These feelings have been reported to propel customers to react with determined aggression and vengeance (Joireman, Gregoire, Devezer, & Tripp, 2013).

The measurement of satisfaction can lead to confusion, particularly due to the use of terms used to describe and define satisfaction. Though most are often similar, they are far from standardized (Halstead & Page, 1992). These differences are not wholly semantic; as previous definitions have been grounded by both the outcome and the process by which customer satisfaction is produced (Cater, Zabkar, & Cater, 2011).

Additional examples of definitional inconsistencies can be found in the service recovery literature. According to Orsingher, Valentini, & de Angelis (2010), service recovery research has traditionally measured satisfaction in three ways: measuring the evaluation of a *transaction-specific experience* (and the consequences attributed to those experiences), an overall evaluation of the firm and the service recovery experience (known as *cumulative satisfaction*), or a measurement involving both variables simultaneously. Transaction-specific satisfaction, sometimes referred to as “satisfaction with recovery”, has been defined as “a particular experience with an organization, such as a single service encounter or product purchase (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011, p. 27)”. Cumulative satisfaction is assumed to capture the overall assessment of a product or service provider to date; a collection of the consumer’s accumulated experiences with a firm, including the recovery attempt (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002). Research associated with the expectation/confirmation paradigm hold the assumption that satisfaction is an additive construct, and that is imperative to incorporate both measures in order to measure satisfaction fully (Oliver, 1997).

Attempts to measure consumer satisfaction of service recovery for individual consumers have been performed using both multidimensional and unidimensional

approaches (Oliver, 1999). For example, Tse & Wilton (1988) conducted an experimental study examining satisfaction (the object being a record player) with several comparison standard approaches (including multiple disconfirmation models). In their study, satisfaction was measured with one question (... considering everything, how satisfied are you with the (product)?”), with a 5 point bipolar scale ranging from “very dissatisfied” to “very satisfied”. Support of the scale was reported in earlier research efforts by Churchill and Surprenant (1982) and Oliver (1980). More recently, an experimental study examining service recovery among airline customers was conducted by Sengupta et al. (2015, p. 647). In the study, customer satisfaction was defined as the “overall satisfaction with the airline services.”

Customer satisfaction has also been commonly conceptualized as being multidimensional. According to Siu et al., 2013, pg. 677, “the notion of post-recovery satisfaction is not merely a holistic concept but is divided into two perspectives. They are namely satisfaction with recovery and satisfaction with the organization”. Smith & Bolton (2002) measured customer satisfaction of two service settings: hotels and restaurants. Both post-service recovery satisfaction (transaction-specific satisfaction) and cumulative satisfaction (overall satisfaction with the organization) were measured with 7-point scales. However, the scale measuring cumulative satisfaction included a question which asked respondents to make a judgment about their overall satisfaction with the organization rather than their transaction-specific satisfaction.

In a study examining the relationship between consumption emotions and consumer satisfaction in a Chinese natural heritage tourism context (Su & Hsu, 2013), it

was found that service “fairness”, an antecedent of consumption emotions, does indeed influence satisfaction. In addition, results indicated that compensation fairness was found to be the most influential factor affecting overall firm satisfaction (Seiders, Berry, & Gresham, 2000). Using a cognitive-affective-behavioral framework, the operationalization of satisfaction closely mirrored Oliver’s (1980) disconfirmation expectation theory. Accordingly, consumer satisfaction was measured with the following three items: Overall, I was satisfied with my visit to this heritage site; compared to my expectations, I was satisfied with my visit to this heritage site; compared to the ideal situation, I was satisfied with my visit to this heritage site (achieving a Cronbach Alpha score of 0.89). The authors suggested that “the concept of tourist satisfaction was not considered industry specific” and can thus be applied to other tourism-specific services. This is an interesting notion, considering the number of different satisfaction measures that have been created in the past thirty years.

Researchers, citing the previous work of McCollough, Berry & Yadav (2000) and Maxham & Netemeyer (2002), have often distinguished between different “types” of satisfaction associated with service recovery. Maxham & Netemeyer (2002) provided three reasons why overall satisfaction and transaction-specific satisfaction are appropriate to use in conjunction with respect to service recovery. First, treating satisfaction purely as a transaction-specific judgment belies the complexity of the satisfaction process, as the evaluation of satisfaction cannot be fully captured with just one dimension of satisfaction. Second, negative experiences outweigh positive experiences, and thus skew overall satisfaction evaluations of service failures. Lastly,

important outcomes to overall satisfaction and transaction-specific satisfaction (WOM intentions and purchase intentions) are simply affected differently.

Although many studies have incorporated multiple-item scales, the number of these items varies depending on the study, even when these items have been “adapted” from previous studies (see Figure 3.7). Without explanation, one of the most heavily cited studies in the service recovery literature (Smith & Bolton, 2002) measured cumulative satisfaction with restaurants with a four-item instrument, yet measures cumulative satisfaction with hotels with a one-item instrument. In a study by Siu, Zhang & Yau (2013), three modes of satisfaction were measured. Using a cross-sectional survey of residents in Hong Kong who had previously experienced service failure in a Chinese restaurant, they hypothesized that perceived complaint justice mediates the relationships between satisfaction (prior to the service failure) and post-recovery satisfaction, and that service failure impacts the satisfaction-updating process (Hess, Ganeson & Klein, 2003). In essence, they posited that satisfaction was a cumulative concept, consisting of pre-service failure satisfaction, service recovery satisfaction, and overall satisfaction with the firm. Scales were reported to be largely adapted from previous studies (Tax et al., 1998; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002), using 7-point Likert scales.

Figure 3.7: Recent Satisfaction Scales

Author(s)	Items (Factor Loadings)	CA	Adapted From
Siu et al. (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I was satisfied with the overall experience in patronizing this restaurant (.948) I am satisfied with the overall quality of this restaurant (.932) In general, I was not satisfied with the restaurant (-.862) To me, the restaurant provided me a satisfactory resolution to the problem (.932) I am not satisfied with how the restaurant handled my problem (-.829) For the particular event, I feel satisfied with the handling (.937) 	0.88	Tax et al. (1998) and Maxham & Netemeryer (2002)
Wen & Chi (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> I am very satisfied with how the airline is handling the flight delay The airline provided service recovery that met my needs The airline provided a favorable solution for me I am very satisfied with the service recovery provided by the airline. 	0.93	McCollough et al. (2000) and Maham & Netemeyer (2002)
Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Overall, I am satisfied with the service I received (.895) I am satisfied with the manner in which the service failure was resolved (.951) The restaurant's response to the service failure was better than expected (.889) I now have a more positive attitude toward the restaurant (.854) 	0.95	Jones and Suh (2000) and Maxham & Netemeryer (2002)

While Tax et al. (1998) developed the conventional four-stage approach to evaluating service recovery (incorporating a traditional approach to measuring satisfaction), dimension-based models have been developed as well. Boshoff (1999) developed an instrument consisting of 17 items, identified as the RECOVSTAT. In an attempt to uncover general normative expectations, he employed several phases of research including personal interviews, focus group discussions (with banking, airline, and health care executives), and analysis of customer complaint records. The items generated were then linked to a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by strongly agree and

strongly disagree. Results revealed a strong, significant, and positive correlation between satisfaction with service recovery score and the general satisfaction score, suggesting that satisfaction is a multidimensional construct, and that a direct relationship exists between recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction.

Several studies have further suggested that the concept of customer satisfaction in the tourism and hospitality industry is unique in comparison to other industries (Ali, Ryu, & Hussain, 2016; Bowen & Clarke, 2002; Chadee & Mattsson, 1996). Some industries provide material products, others provide only service, yet hospitality experiences provide a combination of the two (Hauser, Nussbeck, & Jonas, 2013). Thus, some researchers have concluded that satisfaction derived from hospitality experiences, with examples which include dinner at a restaurant or the length of a stay at a hotel, are assumed to be a summation of individual elements of all of the products and services provided. Therefore, hospitality and tourism firms would likely be well-suited to evaluate consumer satisfaction of both their products and services simultaneously.

Subsequently, the Service Recovery Satisfaction in Tourism scale (SERICSAT) was proposed by George, Salgaonkar, & Hegde (2007). SERICSAT incorporated indicators for PJ, IJ, and DJ and was modeled after the service quality scale (SERVQUAL) proposed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry (1988). However, like the SERVQUAL scale, the SERICSAT scale measured the quality of the recovery process, with an emphasis on service gaps. In addition, the scale includes 29 items, with several items failing to produce factor loadings above 0.70. Finally, the sample that was used to test the scale was based on 60 students. Subsequently, little research has examined

service recovery using the SERICSAT (Pizam, Shapoval, & Ellis, 2016). The current study will incorporate two adapted measures of customer satisfaction following a service recovery: a post-recovery satisfaction scale and a scale measuring the overall satisfaction with the firm. Both scales have been found to be of high validity and reliability. In addition, both scales are highly applicable to the focus of this study.

Service Failure Severity

Based on extant literature, the relationship between customer satisfaction and failure severity has consistently been found to be negative and significant (Bejou & Palmer, 1998). This may be due to the presumed intensity associated with service recovery, as appraisal theorists have suggested that emotions play an important role in service transactions (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). It has further been found that the way a customer anticipates an outcome will likely influence how he or she interprets and reacts to a given situation (Tajeddini, 2011).

According to Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer (1999, pg. 185), emotions are intense individual “mental states of readiness” that emerge from evaluations of events, determined by two specific appraisals: goal relevance and goal congruence. For restaurant patrons, having a personal stake in the dining experience, and assessing the experience as divergent to what was expected can induce an “outcome-desire conflict”, resulting in negative emotions that can include regret and disappointment. These two emotions have subsequently been found to have the most influence on post-consumption attitudes and behavior (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004), particularly negative WOM (Zhou,

Tsang, Huang & Zhou, 2014) and customer defection (Wen & Chi, 2013). Not surprisingly, feelings of regret and disappointment have been found to increase in proportion to the severity of the service failure (McQuilken, 2010). Subsequently, it has been found that service failures perceived to be catastrophic result in service provider defection more than any other reason (Keaveney, 1995). A brief summary of studies examining the impact of service failure severity in service recovery is provided below (see Figure 3.8).

Figure 3.8: Summary of Research Design and Findings of Previous Service Recovery Studies Examining Severity

Author	Setting	Design	Notable Findings
Weun, Beatty, & Jones (2004)	Restaurant	2*2*2 between-subjects factorial design-subjects randomly assigned to one of 32 conditions, manipulating severity via scenarios (high and low)	Perceived severity of the service failure had significant and negative influence on post-recovery satisfaction, trust, and commitment. In addition, perceived severity had a significant and positive influence on negative WOM
Hess (2008)	Restaurant	2*2 between-subjects factorial design manipulating failure severity via scenarios of mild and severe service failures	A firm's reputation moderated the relationship between service failure severity and post-recovery satisfaction

Figure 3.8 Continued

Author	Setting	Design	Notable Findings
Wang, Wu, Lin, & Wang (2011)	Electronic retail (e-tail)	Online survey of participants who had ever experienced an e-tailing service failure	Service failure severity can have a significant and negative relationship with customer loyalty. In addition, IJ can serve to mitigate that negative relationship
Betts, Wood, & Tadisina (2011)	Academic advising	2*2*2 between-subjects factorial design manipulating failure severity via scenarios	ANOVA results indicated a main effect for failure severity on recovery satisfaction and a significant effect on negative WOM.
Tsarenko & Tojib (2012)	Broadband services	Self-report survey of participants provided a service failure scenario, severity measured with four items (CA=0.87)	Severe service failures have a positive relationship with repurchase intentions and negative WOM
Israel, Lee, & Kapinski (2017)	Restaurant	Online self-reported survey, a service recovery scenario was provided and severity was measured with two items based on 7 pt scales	Service failure severity significantly and negatively impacts positive and negative eWOM
Cho, Jang, & Kim (2017)	Restaurant	Online survey of participants who had experienced a service failure in a fine dining restaurant in the past three months	Severe service failures have a significant and positive impact on customer dissatisfaction and negative WOM

The importance of understanding how service error severity impacts service recovery is predicated on, but not limited to extremely negative emotions. According to Betts et al. (2011, pg. 367), failure severity is “perceptual in nature, it is subject to the cognitive processes of the individual and thus the context is critically important”.

Therefore, it has been suggested that the severity of service failures should influence the type of service recovery proffered (Silber et al., 2009). Thus, understanding what constitutes a severe service failure (major vs. minor) in a restaurant setting may be useful in recommending a successful service recovery strategy.

While it has been suggested that service failure severity is an important factor in developing successful service recovery strategies (Mattila, 1999), debate remains as to which types of service errors are perceived to be severe. For example, Hoffman et al. (1995) found via CIT that customer seating problems were perceived to be more severe than the delivery of a wrong dish. Further, according to Cho et al. (2017), food-related problems (e.g., uncooked) were considered the most serious type of failure, followed by service-related (e.g., slow service) and atmospheric or related failures (e.g., noise) (Susskind & Viccari, 2011).

The concept of service error severity becomes more complex when expectations are considered, as customers are likely to perceive problems more seriously when they have high expectations (Namkung & Jang, 2010). For example, customers at fine dining restaurants likely have higher expectations than those in other types of restaurants (e.g., a casual dining restaurant).

Although service recovery studies examining the role of service error severity have been somewhat scarce (Park et al, 2014), a number of different theories have been used. Researchers underpinned by prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) have suggested that the loss resulting from a service failure is likely to be assessed as greater

than the gain resulting from the service recovery attempt (Sivakumar, Li, & Dong, 2014). Mental accounting theorists however, have contended that successful service recoveries are only successful if they match the type of service failure incident (Thaler, 1985), and that objective becomes less realistic when the service failure is considered to be severe (Chuang et al., 2012). However, service recovery researchers using either theory have maintained that the more severe the service error, the more difficult (if not impossible) the successful service recovery (Chuang et al., 2012; Mattila, 1999).

Conceptualizations of service failure severity have described both the disparity between service failures and have expressed the impact or loss of severe service failures. For example, Sreejesh & Anusree (2016, pg. 79) described service failures as incidents which "... can range from being relatively inconsequential to being very serious". With an emphasis on customers, Hess (2008, pg. 387) defined service severity as "the magnitude of loss experienced by customers from a service failure". Similarly, Betts et al. (2011, pg. 367) defined service failure severity as the "degree to which the service failure affects the customer". However, one of the objectives of this study is to manipulate two distinct service errors which are subject to subjective appraisal. Therefore, for the current study, service failure severity will be conceptualized as "the perceived intensity a customer feels toward a service failure" (Cho et al., 2017, pg. 71).

In previous service recovery research, service error severity has been examined largely as a moderating variable (Swanson & Hsu, 2011; Sparks & Fredline, 2007; Yi & Lee, 2005; Weun et al., 2004; Mattila, 1999). For example, Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski (2017) examined the influence of service failure severity on negative electronic word-of-

mouth (eWOM) intentions. An online survey was administered, resulting in 321 completed surveys. Eight different scenarios were randomly assigned. Each scenario included a technical failure (e.g. overcooked steak) or a functional failure (e.g. impolite server), a minor failure (e.g. you are not happy but you do not let this event ruin your dinner) or a major failure (e.g. you are annoyed and you feel that this may ruin your dinner), and a recovery attempt or no recovery attempt. Positive and Negative eWOM intentions were then measured with items based on a 7-point Likert-type scale, anchored by “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree”. Results of a path analysis revealed a significant and negative standardized path coefficient (-0.65), indicating that escalating service failures significantly influenced customers’ attitudes towards eWOM.

Previous studies have typically provided two levels of service error severity: high and low. For example, Betts et al. (2011) examined the role of service error severity in service recovery among undergraduate students. The participants were provided a scenario in which they were asked to imagine that their graduation date was pushed back. Participants assigned to experience a service error of low severity were told that pushing back the graduation date was a minor concern. It was further explained that the error was minor because an accepted job offer was scheduled after the pushed-back date. For participants’ assigned to high severity, it was explained that pushing the graduate date back was a major concern. Severity in this scenario was considered high because the accepted job offer was scheduled to start before the pushed-back date. Results suggested a main effect for failure severity, as participants who experienced high

severity ($M = 2.69$) were significantly less with recovery than participants who experienced low severity ($M = 3.89$).

Similarly, Hess (2008, pg. 397) examined the role that a firm's reputation and the severity of a service failure had on repurchase intentions. Service severity was manipulated via the following hypothetical scenarios (see Figure 3.9):

Figure 3.9: Severity Manipulated by Hess (Reprinted from Hess, 2008)

Low Severity	High Severity
Soon after being seated, a waitress arrives to take your food and drink orders. You ask her about the ingredients in one of the entrees you are considering ordering. She responds by saying: "I really don't know, I just serve the food".	Soon after being seated, a waitress arrives to take your food and drink orders. You ask her about the ingredients in one of the entrees you are considering ordering. She responds by saying: "I don't know what's in the food. It's not my job to remember every little detail. If you're not sure you want it, just order something else."

Several studies have also used a manipulation check to determine whether service failure severity manipulations were observable (Patterson, Cowley, & Prasongsukarn, 2006; Sajtos et al. (2010). For example, Mattila (1999) operationalized severity by incorporating two service failure scenarios; one of high severity (reservations not honored) and one of low severity (serving the wrong dish). The level of severity was then verified with the statement, "Please rate the magnitude of the failure (with 1 being low and 10 being high)."

Examining the impact of observed severity of service failure on hotel booking intentions based on online reviews, Sreejesh & Anusree (2016) conducted a 2 (high/low severity) * 2 (high/low agreement) * 2 (webcare or no webcare) between-subject experimental study. Hypothetical scenarios developed by hotel industry experts were verified by manipulation checks. In order to distinguish high severity and low severity service errors, they adopted the following scale developed by Maxham and Netemeyer (2002):

In my opinion, the service failure that I observed was a:

Major problem-minor problem (1-7)

Big inconvenience-small inconvenience (1-7)

Major aggravation-minor aggravation (1-7)

These manipulation checks resulted in large mean differences between minor (M=2.48) and major (M=5.19) errors ($p < 0.01$).

Weun et al. (2004) developed a scale which operationalized service failure severity with the following three items: “If this problem were really happening to me, I would consider the problem to be (anchored by not very severe and very severe)”, “If this problem were really happening to me, it would make me feel (anchored by not very angry and very angry)”, and “If this problem were really happening, it would be unpleasant to me (anchored by not unpleasant at all and very unpleasant)”. Based on 7 point scales anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7), it was found that all three manipulation checks were successful (CA= 0.93). Significant mean differences

between high and low severity was supported ($x_{low\ severity} = 2.78$, $x_{high\ severity} = 5.89$, $F = 2,962.88$, $p < 0.0001$).

Service error severity in a hotel setting was further manipulated by Weun et al. (2004) via hypothetical scenarios. For “high severity”, the following scenario was described: “The key for a customer’s room does not work and the room had not been cleaned when they checked in”. For “low severity: the following scenario was described: “A customer’s hotel room had no towels when he/she checked in”.

Subsequently, the scale developed by Weun et al. (2004) was adapted by Wang, Wu, Lin, & Wang (2011). Similarly, Likert-type scales ranging from 1-7, with anchors ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” were used for the online survey. Respondents who had experienced a service failure in an electronic retail context (e-tail) were asked the following statements (see Figure 3.10). Results indicated that interactional justice, procedural justice, service failure severity and perceived switching costs had a significant relationship with customer loyalty. Furthermore, it was suggested that interactional justice could mitigate the significant and negative relationship between service failure severity and customer loyalty.

Figure 3.10: Severity Scale Adapted by Wang, Wu, Lin, & Wang (2011)

Item	Factor Loading (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.87$)
The above-mentioned service failure caused by the e-tailer that happened to me was severe.	0.87
The above-mentioned service failure caused by the e-tailer that happened to me made me feel angry	0.94
The above-mentioned service failure caused by the e-tailer that happened to me was unpleasant	0.86

One study of particular importance to this study was conducted by Cho et al. (2017). Examining the moderating role of service failure severity between dissatisfaction and emotions, respondents were asked to read a hypothetical scenario situated in a fine dining restaurant. The service failure described involved an accident in which the server spilled drinks on the respondent's clothes. Using a 7-point Likert-type scale, where 1= not at all severe and 7 = very severe, Cho et al. (2017, pg. 76) asked the following question: "Please rate the magnitude of the service failure." The resulting severity mean scores (mean = 3.92) were used to split the sample into two groups: low severity (respondents with a mean score less than 3.92) and high severity (respondents with a mean score greater than 3.92). Results of a regression model suggested that severity had a positive and significant influence on participants' dissatisfaction ($\beta = .271, t = 4.678, p < .001$). In addition, high levels of service error severity had a significant and negative impact on negative WOM and switching intentions.

Relationship Marketing

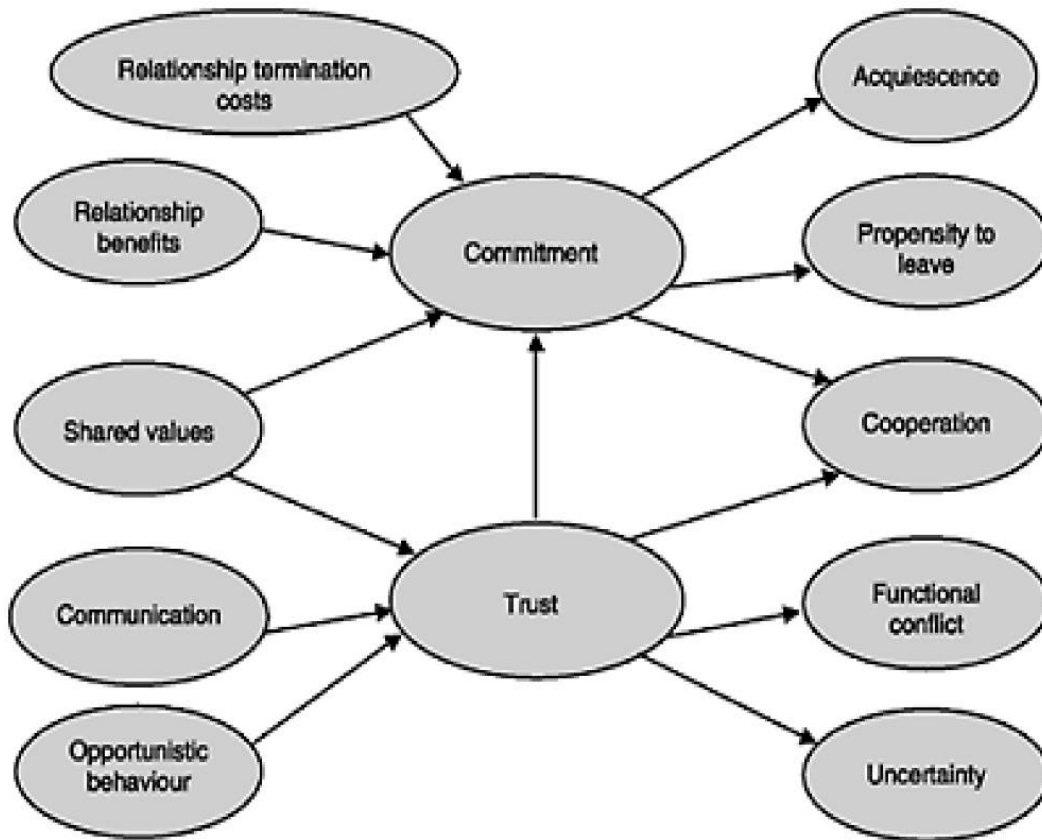
The concept of relationship marketing (RM) was founded by Adler (1966), and introduced by Berry (1983) to the services marketing literature. According to Kleinaltenkamp, Plinke, & Söllner (2015, pg. 5), RM is “a behavior scheme that relies explicitly on the existence and the significance of lasting exchange.” Due to an increasingly competitive market (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016), combined with rising customer expectations (Astuti & Nagase, 2014), service firms are challenged to maximize the length and the value of the relationships they have with their loyal customer base (O’Malley, 2014) in order to gain a competitive advantage (Singh, 2006). Therefore, the most crucial priority for service firms who employ RM strategies is likely to focus on relationship maintenance and development (Aurier & N’Goala, 2010). Thus, success of the RM strategy is predicated on promoting value with factors associated with relationship quality and not product/service attributes or simple economics (Bowen & Shoemaker, 2003).

Relationship quality, often considered the overall assessment of the strength of a relationship (Wang & Chang, 2013; Henning-Thurau, Gwinner, & Gremler, 2002), has been suggested to be the most important factor for service firms who enact RM (Jung et al., 2013). Although relationship quality has been conceptualized as customer satisfaction combined with trust (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990) and consisting of trust, commitment, and relationship satisfaction (De Wulf & Odekerken-Schroder, 2000), relationship quality has most commonly been operationalized as comprising

consumer trust and relationship commitment (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016; Aurier & N'Goala, 2010).

Morgan and Hunt (1994) developed a key mediating variables (KMV) model of RM that conceptualized the development of long-term customer relationships, with trust and commitment as the key mediators between antecedent variables and outcome variables (see Figure 3.11). Their KMV model proposed that service actions which build trust and commitment (relationship quality) produce outcomes which, in addition to efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity, promote customer loyalty (Singh, 2006; Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

Figure 3.11: The KMV Model of Relationship Marketing (Reprinted from Morgan & Hunt, 1994)



According to Morgan and Hunt (1994), relationship commitment and trust encourage exchange partners to work at preserving relationships through cooperation while resisting attractive short-term alternative services. Similarly, Bowen & Shoemaker (2003) suggested that the benefits associated with RM (e.g. customer recruitment, cost efficiency, revenue growth) are analogous to the outcomes associated

with trust and commitment. It has also been suggested that trust and commitment are crucial to distinguishing between single and repeat transactions (Niculescu, Payne, & Krishnan, 2013). Thus, trust and commitment have been extensively researched in services marketing research (Ballantyne, 2003), and have been found to be recurrent outcomes of RM practices (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016).

Results of previous research examining the impact of justice on post-recovery behavior, with trust and commitment as mediators of recovery satisfaction and behavioral outcomes, have also been mixed (La & Choi, 2012). For tourism and hospitality firms, trust and commitment have been positively linked to positive WOM and repurchase intentions following service transactions in which no service failure has occurred (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Doney & Cannon, 1997). It has been suggested that consumer trust and relationship commitment play similar roles in service experiences following service recovery (Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005).

For example, Wen & Chi (2013) examined the role of trust and commitment following service recovery in a restaurant setting. They found interactional justice and procedural justice to have direct and significant impacts on trust, while trust had a significant and direct impact on repurchase intentions and positive WOM. In addition, their findings suggest that post-recovery satisfaction serves as a mediator between procedural justice and interactional justice and trust.

Although previous research suggests a significant relationship among the three constructs, the relationship between trust, commitment, and customer satisfaction

remains unclear (Wen & Chi, 2013; Ding, Ho, & Lii, 2015). In addition, there is no consensus as to which factors are most influential in predicting service performance (Palmatier et al., 2006). Further, the influence of justice on satisfaction, trust, and commitment has been contradictory (Ding, Ho, & Lii, 2015). However, several services marketing researchers have found all three factors to have significant and positive impacts on future purchase intentions and positive WOM (Niculescu, Payne, & Krishnan, 2013; Doney & Cannon, 1997).

Customer Trust

Trust has been a subject of interest in multiple fields, including sociology (Meyer & Ward, 2013), economics (Fehr, 2009), social psychology (Lindsfold, 1978), and marketing (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987). It has been suggested that, across disciplines, the potential for trust is present when there is a risk of loss and recognition of interdependent objectives (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). However, according to Doney & Cannon (1997), each discipline provides a unique perspective into the nature of trust, as well as the process in which trust is developed.

For economists, trust is most often described as the result of a calculative process in which one party forecasts the cost (or rewards) of the other party remaining trustworthy (or untrustworthy) (Doney & Cannon, 1997). This perspective is perhaps best exemplified by the “trust game” of Berg, Dickhaut, & McCabe (1995), which has been suggested to be the standard experiment for measuring trust in a laboratory setting

(Brulhart & Usunier, 2012). In this game, trust is reduced to motivations of kindness, or selfishness, or a combination of both (Kim, Kim, & Shin, 2009).

Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet (2014) suggested that sociologists portray trust as a mutual “faithfulness” (Simmel et al., 1978, pg.379) shared among groups (Lewis & Weigert, 1985). They have operationalized the construct as being multi-dimensional (Garfinkel, 1963) distinct behavioral, emotional, and cognitive dimensions (Lewis & Wiegert, 1985). For sociologists, trust is constructed from a shared identity or a set of interpersonal behaviors (Calnan & Rowe, 2005), and shaped by customs, laws, and institutional rules (Meyer & Ward, 2013).

Researchers focused on marketing (e.g. Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpande, 1992) and management (e.g. Hosmer, 1995) have drawn mostly from the psychological perspective of trust (Kodish, 2017), and have hence framed trust as the subjective assessment or expectations of a trustee on a trustor (Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet, 2014). It has been suggested that, due to the heterogeneity and intangibility of services (Palmatier et al., 2006), the concept of trust has been elevated to be the most critical factor among customers in selecting and evaluating potential service partners (Lin, 2009). According to Evans & Krueger (2009), trust is further influenced by individual differences or dispositions, including a propensity to trust (Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet, 2014), as well as situational uncertainties and contexts (Luczak, 2014).

According to Lioukas & Reuer (2015), social exchange theorists emphasize two types of customer trust: institutionalized-based and affect-based. Institutionalized-based

trust is presumed to result from an established code of conduct (DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008). On the other hand, affect-based trust has been described as trust based on an emotional bond (Pi, Liao, & Chen, 2012). According to proponents of social exchange theory, both types of trust are developed over a lengthy period of time (Ballantyne, 2003). Subsequently, organizational and services marketing scholars who have incorporated social exchange theory have suggested trust to be a natural outcome of repeated, successful service transactions among customers and service providers (Lioukas & Reuer, 2015).

Consistent with the previous description of trust, customer trust is often linked to sustainability in services marketing research (DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008). Regardless of service type, customer trust has been reported to produce several advantageous implications for service firms. They include (but are not limited to) lowering transaction and marketing costs (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016; Doney & Cannon, 1997), increasing service firm efficiency (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012), and promoting cooperation among customers (Chenet, Dagger & O'Sullivan, 2010; Schurr & Ozanne, 1985). Subsequently, customer trust has been described as “the essential element in fostering customer relationships and sustainable market share (Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet, 2014, pg. 2).”

Although the importance of trust has been suggested to be vital to the success for all service organizations (Bashyakar & Menon, 2010), trust has been proposed to be of particular importance to firms operating in the hospitality industry (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009; Tax et al., 1998). Not surprisingly, customer trust has been a popular focus in

service recovery research focused on hospitality settings (Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet, 2014). This may be due in part to the uncertainties and complexities associated with an industry that is increasingly susceptible to customer switching behavior (da Silva Terres & Pizzutti dos Santos, 2012; Yim, Tse, & Chan, 2008). In addition, compared to other service industries, hospitality firms rely on a high level of intimacy with its customer base (Hur & Jang, 2016). According to Yim, Tse, & Chan (2008), customer affection developed through customer trust can have significant impacts on customer loyalty.

Previous service recovery research suggests that successful service recoveries among restaurant patrons can reinforce customer trust (La & Choi, 2012). It has been reported that customer trust in turn has a positive effect on relationship intentions and repurchase intentions (DeWitt et al. 2008; Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005; Oh, 1999). Finally, customer trust has been proposed to be a key antecedent to relationship commitment (McLelland & Foster, 2015), and has been suggested to play the most important role in maintaining long-term relationships (La & Choi, 2012).

Trust has been variously conceptualized depending on the specific domain and uses for which it has been studied (Cho & Hu, 2009). It has been suggested that this lack of a universally-recognized definition of trust has hindered researchers' ability to compare study findings (La & Choi, 2012). The definition provided by Moorman, Deshpande, & Zaltman (1993) has been suggested to be the most often-quoted (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). Moorman, Deshpande, & Zaltman (1992, pg. 315) defined trust as "a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence." Various other definitions of trust have focused on outcomes of trust, expectations of the

exchange partner, and/or behavioral intentions (Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet, 2014). A summary of definitions of trust (see Figure 3.12), demonstrates how trust has been perceived from the perspective of trust as a belief in the trustworthiness of one's partner or the reliance upon one's partner due to his or her own vulnerability (La & Choi, 2012).

Figure 3.12: Definitions of Trust

Author (s)	Definition
Rotter (1967)	A generalized expectancy held by an individual that the word of another...can be relied on.
Anderson & Narus (1990)	The firm's belief that another company will perform actions that will result in positive outcomes for the firm as was as not take unexpected actions that result in negative outcomes.
Moorman, Deshpande, & Zaltman (1993)	A willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence
Morgan & Hunt (1994)	The perception of confidence in the exchange partner's reliability and integrity
Doney & Cannon (1997)	The perceived credibility and benevolence of an organization or individual.
Gwinner et al (1998)	Trust evolves when both parties in the relational exchange are sincere, courteous, and feel confident that one's interests will be served by the other party, thus creating a sense of security.
Garbarino & Johnson (1999)	Customer confidence in the quality and reliability of the services offered by the organization.
Eisingerich & Bell (2008)	Customers' confidence in a service seller's reliability and integrity and the expectations that it can be relied upon to deliver its promises.
Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012)	The expectation held by the consumer that the service provider is dependent enough to be relied upon to deliver on its promises

In the context of service recovery, trust has been suggested to represent acceptance of the recovery process based on the expectation of a positive outcome (DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008). These expectations have been suggested to be influenced by a service provider's reputation (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005), and reinforced by positive service transactions previously experienced by the customer (Aurier & N'Goala, 2010).

According to Kandampully, Zhang, & Bilgihan (2015), customer trust in the hospitality sector can be broken down into two parts: performance trust and benevolence trust. Benevolence trust has been posited as belief that a service firm will exhibit care, concern, and honesty (Prachayakupt, O'Mahony, & Sillitoe, 2017). Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol (2002) operationalized customer trust as being made up of two distinct concepts, management policies and practices (i.e. trustworthy practices) and frontline employee behaviors (i.e. trustworthy behaviors). A hypothetical model estimating the interrelationships among trustworthiness, trust, value, and loyalty was tested, using two service types, retail clothing (N = 264) and nonbusiness airline travel (N = 113). Results supported a bipartite conceptualization of customer trust. With regard to the relationship between customer trust and loyalty, it was found that frontline employee behaviors were more critical to the relationship in the retail context, while management policies and procedure were more critical in the context of nonbusiness airline travel.

Moorman, Deshpande, & Zaltman (1993) proposed that the factors which customers use to predict the trustworthiness of a service provider consist of three components: ability, reliability, and intentionality. This was observed by Morgan &

Hunt (1994), who concluded that the primary focus of trust has been the confidence in both the integrity and reliability of the service partner; and this focus is often paired with various factors which are associated with relationship quality. These factors include but are not limited to consistency, honesty, competence, and benevolence.

Customer trust has previously been measured among service recovery researchers using an adaptation of items originating from both the dyadic trust scale (Larzelere & Huston, 1980) and the Interpersonal Trust Scale (Rotter, 1967). The eight item Dyadic Trust Scale (Larzelere & Huston, 1980) was created from a pool of trust items adapted or borrowed from previous scales, and modified to be more applicable to intimate relationships (Frazier, Johnson, & Fainshmidt, 2013). The following items make up the dyadic trust scale:

My partner is primarily interested in his (her) own welfare.

There are times when my partner cannot be trusted.

My partner is perfectly honest and truthful with me.

I feel that I can trust my partner completely.

My partner is truly sincere in his (her) promises.

I feel that my partner does not show me enough consideration.

I feel that my partner can be counted on to help me.

The interpersonal trust scale (ITS) developed by Rotter (1967) is grounded in social learning theory, as a means to measure general trust among people in daily life (Simpson, 2007). Detractors of the ITS have referenced the extensive and potentially

burdensome list of 25 items (Frazier, Johnson, & Fainshmidt, 2013), combined with a low reliability score (across samples and settings) as evidence of practical and systemic flaws with the scale (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). Adapting a unidimensional conceptualization of trust from Rotter (1980), Bowen & Shoemaker (2003, pg. 34), emphasized the importance of reliability and subsequently defined trust as “a generalized expectancy held by an individual that word, promise, or statement of another individual can be relied upon.”

As a dichotomous variable, trust has been proposed to be made up of behavioral and cognitive components (Cho & Hu, 2009). Researchers who have conceptualized trust in this manner describe behavioral trust as a “willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence (Sirdeshmukh et al, 2002, pg. 17)” and cognitive (or evaluative) trust as one’s belief that the other party will act responsibly and in a way that is not harmful to its customers (Howcroft, Hewer, & Durkin, 2003).

According to Wang, Law, Hung, & Guillet (2014), trust has commonly been conceptualized as providing the perception of benevolence and credibility or the perception of benevolence and competence. Subsequently, a lack of consensus of the semantic meaning of these dimensions as led to a varied number of items used to measure trust.

Additionally, researchers have conceptualized customer trust as being composed of three distinct, yet interrelated elements (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005). For example, Rousseau et al. (1998) described customer trust as being either calculus-based, where

trust is reduced to a cognitive, rational decision based on economic exchange, institution-based, where trust is based on the reputation of the service firm, and relationship-based, where trust is due to feelings of attachment resulting from a firm's exhibition of dependability and reliability.

According to Wen & Chi (2013), customer trust is based on expectations (resulting from repeated and satisfactory transactions) that a service provider will deliver on its promise to consistently provide quality service. From a social-psychological perspective, customer trust has been suggested to be affected by perception of the service provider's capacity to provide benevolence, ability, and integrity (Wang, Wang, & Liu, 2016). Benevolence is exhibited through altruistic behavior, and motivated by legitimate feelings of friendship (Prachayakupt, O'Mahony, & Sillitoe, 2017). Ability, sometimes referred to as competence, has been described as having sufficient knowledge to successfully perform a task competently (Basso & Pizzutti, 2016). Integrity has previously been likened to conducting oneself in an acceptable manner (Lioukas & Reuer, 2015).

Based on an extensive literature review of tourism and hospitality research, the scales most commonly used to measure customer trust have been adapted from scales developed by Morgan & Hunt (1994) and DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall (2008). Morgan & Hunt (1994) incorporated seven items from Larzelere and Huston's (1980) DTS scale that were measured on a 7-point scale, with 1 being "strongly agree" and 7 being "strongly disagree". With an emphasis on measuring confidence, integrity, and reliability, composite reliability was recorded to be 0.949.

The scale used by DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall (2008) was adapted from a prominent scale in the services marketing literature. Initially proposed by Garbarino & Johnson (1999), the modified scale utilized by DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall (2008) resulted in a composite reliability score of 0.96. The scale, anchored by strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7), included the following items and corresponding loading scores: the firm puts the customer's interests first (.87), I can count on the firm to respond to my requests (.92), and the firm can be relied upon to keep its promises (.93).

The scale incorporated in this study has been adapted from the scale utilized by Wen & Chi (2013), with corresponding items provided below (see Figure 3.13). Proposed to measure service recovery among airlines, the customer trust scale used by Wen & Chi (2013) was adapted from modified scales utilized by Tax et al. (1998) and Verhoef, Franses, & Hoekstra (2002). An adaptation of the scale used by Wen & Chi (2013) will be used for this study because it emphasizes customer confidence in the quality, reliability, and benevolence of the service provider in the context of service recovery; all elements which have been associated with justice (Vazquez-Casielles et al., 2010). The scale was found to be of high reliability and validity (Cronbach α =.91, Composite Reliability=.93).

Figure 3.13: Construct Measurement of Trust

Author	Likert-type Scale	Items	Adapted from	Composite Reliability
Kim, Yoo, & Lee (2012)	7 point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Prudence is required using the restaurant (reverse scored) - The restaurant did not provide important information that would affect my decision-making in the use of the restaurant (reverse scored) - The restaurant makes an effort to fulfill promises made to the customers - Overall, I can rely on the restaurant 	Morgan & Hunt (1994); Wong & Sohal (2002)	0.909
Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005)	7 point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree	Experiencing this situation in this restaurant... <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I think the restaurant can be trusted - I have confidence in the restaurant - I think the restaurant has high integrity - I think the restaurant is reliable 	Morgan & Hunt (1994)	0.980
Chenet, Dagger, & O'Sullivan (2010)	7 point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - (Blank) is trustworthy - You trust (blank) completely - (Blank) is perfectly honest with you 	Morgan & Hunt (1994)	0.892
Wen & Chi (2013)	7 point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I believe that the airline is able to provide service recovery that customers need - I believe that the airline can provide service recovery of high quality for customers - I believe that the airline can effectively solve problems caused by service failures - I believe that the airline is very concerned with customers' interests - I believe that the airline can keep its promises - I place great trust in this company 	Verhoef et al. (2002); Tax et al. (1998)	0.910
Wang & Chang (2013)	7 point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The firm puts the customer's interest first - I can count on the firm to respond to my requests - The firm can be relied upon to keep its promises 	Dewitt, Nguyen, & Gibbs (2008)	0.905
Basso & Pizzutti (2016)	7 point scale ranging from very (negative) to very (positive)	I feel that this hotel is ... <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Very undependable/very dependable - Very incompetent/very competent - Of very low integrity/of very high integrity - Very unresponsive to customer/very responsive to customers 	Sirdeshmukh, Sing, & Sabol (2002)	0.920

Commitment

While trust has been suggested to be based on an evaluation process concerning certain attributes or qualities inherent to a relationship partner, commitment stems from an expressive process of identification or attachment (see Figure 3.14). Commitment however is similar to trust in that, for services marketing researchers, the theoretical grounding comes largely from theories associated with social exchange (Thibault & Kelley, 1959), marriage (Meyer & Allen, 1984) and organizational behavior (Jones, Taylor, & Bansal, 2008). Also similar to trust, the construct of commitment suffers from “a lack of agreement on the nature of the construct (Fullerton, 2003, pg. 334)”, resulting in a number of definitions (Fatima, Razzaque, & Di Mascio, 2015).

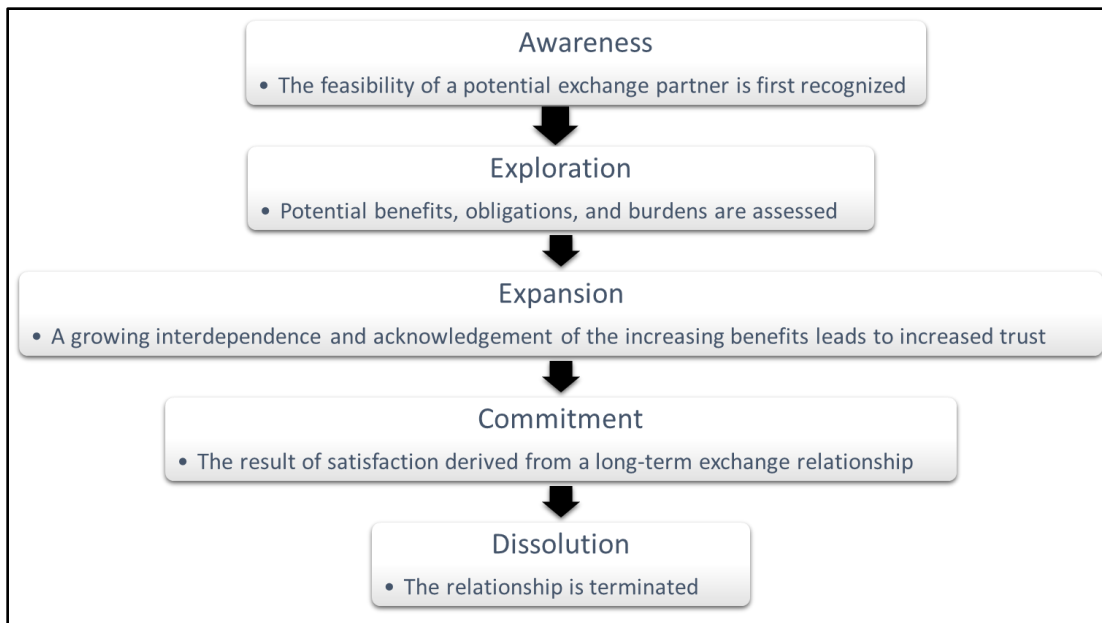
Figure 3.14: Definitions of Commitment

Author (s)	Definition
Dwyer et al. (1987)	A pledge of continuity between parties
Gustafsson, Johnson, & Roos (2005)	A sacrifice or the potential for sacrifice that a party faces in the event that the relationship ends
Morgan & Hunt (1994)	The continuing desire to maintain a relationship
Gundlach, Achrol, & Mentzer (1995)	The forsaking of alternative options
Meyer & Herscovitch (2001)	A force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets
Bowen & Shoemaker (2003)	The belief that an ongoing relationship is so important that partners are willing to make short-term sacrifices to realize long-term benefits
Jones, Taylor, & Bansal (2008)	A psychological force that binds an individual to the maintenance of the relationship with a specific target
Aurier & N’Goala (2010)	The relative intensity of identification and affiliation with the service provider and the involvement in the relationship

However, the many definitions of commitment have been suggested to be somewhat unavoidable (Fullerton, 2003). According to Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe (2004, pg. 993) "...commitment can take different forms and be delivered towards various targets." In the services marketing research alone, relationship commitment has been identified between the customer and the service provider, as well as the customer and the firm for which the service provider represents (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In addition, the service provider representative has been found to play multiple exchange-based roles including one of friendship and one of economic exchange (Jones, Taylor, & Bansal, 2008). Thus, commitment and trust share similarities, yet possess distinct qualities, including implications for customers and services alike (Aurier & N'Goala, 2010).

Many of the previous definitions of commitment have described it as a psychological pledge or link, combined with an intention or motivation regarding future behavior (Jones, Taylor, & Bansal, 2008). According to Wetzels, de Ruyter, & van Birgelen (1998, pg. 406), commitment is a psychological sentiment of the mind through which an attitude concerning continuation of a relationship with a business partner is formed." The relationship life-cycle (see Figure 3.15) introduced by Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh (1997), has been used to show how commitment mediates both trust and customer retention (Aurier & N'Goala, 2010; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002)

Figure 3.15: Relationship Life-Cycle



Commitment has been previously conceptualized as being unidimensional (Sharma & Patterson, 2000; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999). Several services marketing researchers cite Morgan & Hunt's (1994) commitment scale as the origin of their respective scales, which in turn was largely adapted from Allen & Meyer's (1990) conceptualization of affective commitment (Chenet, Dagger, & O'Sullivan, 2010). Affective commitment has been described as an emotional attachment to the other party (Wetzels, de Ruyter, & van Birgelen, 1998); a form of commitment resulting from one party identifying with, belonging to (Cater, Zabkar, & Cater, 2011), and/or liking the other party (Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004). More recently, marketing scholars have conceptualized commitment as being comprised of both affective and calculative elements (Fullerton, 2014). Calculative, or continuous commitment, has been suggested

to be the impetus or behavioral motivation to maintain a partnership, reflective of one party's cognitive assessment of the instrumental worth of said relationship (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

Considered less attitudinal in nature than affective commitment (Fullerton, 2014), calculative commitment is presumed to be based on factors associated with potential switching costs, product/service attributes, a lack of alternative partners, and the level of dependence one party has over the other (Gustafsson, Johnson, & Roos, 2005). According to Fullerton (2003), the calculative commitment construct was developed as a means to examine employee-firm relationships, as it was suggested that employee commitment was significantly influenced by pledges, contracts, and side-bets. This two dimensional commitment construct was encapsulated by Chenet, Dagger, & O'Sullivan (2010, pg. 337) who defined commitment as a "customer's long-term orientation towards a business relationship, based on emotional bonds, as well as an expectation of higher benefits by staying in the relationship."

According to Garbarino & Johnson (1999), commitment is made up of attitudinal, instrumental, and temporal constructs, with the temporal construct representing a relationship over time. Based on a review of meta-analyses focused on workplace commitment (Meyer & Herscovitch (2001) and marital commitment (Adams & Jones, 1997), it was suggested that a three-dimensional conceptualization of commitment was most appropriate for capturing "different underlying psychological states concerning one's relationship with the target of interest (Bansal, Irving, & Taylor,

2004, pg. 248).” Meyer & Allen (1997) also proposed commitment as being made up of three parts: affective, calculative, and normative commitment.

Normative commitment, described as a moral obligation or a sense of duty resulting from either reciprocity or emerging social norms (Andreassen & Olsen, 2008), has been applied to examine commitment in business to business and employee-employer relationships (Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011). Furthermore, it has been suggested that normative commitment shares many of same antecedents as affective commitment (Bloemer & Odekerken-Schröder, 2007). However, according to Fullerton (2014), the impact of normative commitment on customer satisfaction should not be underestimated, as all three proposed elements of commitment have provided different behavioral implications (Wang, Wang, & Liu, 2016).

Indeed, the adaptability and construct validity of the affective-calculative-normative conceptualization of commitment has been confirmed, as empirical studies have identified three distinct yet interrelated elements of commitment (Hur, Park, & Kim, 2010; Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004). Subsequently, the affective-calculative-normative conceptualization of commitment has received considerable support from previous studies from multiple disciplines (Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004) including those focused on services marketing (Cater, Zabkar, & Cater, 2011).

According to Kandampully, Zhang, & Bilgiham (2015), a hospitality firm’s existence is dependent on creating loyal customers, which is possible only if the customer is committed to the relationship with the hospitality firm. Due to its

importance, commitment has been suggested to be a hospitality firm's most valuable asset (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016). This importance has been shown with consistent links being found in the literature between commitment and positive customer attitudes and behaviors, which have been suggested to contribute to increasing the profitability of the service firms (Jones & Taylor, 2007). For example, previous research suggests that customers committed to a service firm are more willing to pay more for services (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012).

In addition, committed customers are more likely to develop social norms and share values with the service provider (Fullerton, 2005), imbuing a willingness to provide assistance to the service firm and fellow customers (Jones, Taylor, & Bansal, 2008). Intrinsically linked to relationship maintenance, commitment has been suggested to be a result of successful long-term interactions, providing a level of customer satisfaction so high that one party would resist engaging in pursuing alternatives (Wang, Wang, & Liu, 2016). Additionally, the stronger the commitment, the more likely a customer would be willing to overlook obstacles in the relationship (Kumar, Hibbard, & Stern, 1994).

Three of the most prescient suggested outcomes of relationship commitment are intentions to repurchase, positive word of mouth advertising (WOM), and customer loyalty. It has been well-supported that committed customers are less likely to exhibit opportunistic tendencies (Parsa, Gregory, & Terry, 2011). Subsequently, relationship commitment has been found to have a significant and positive impact on repurchase intentions (Kandampully, Zhang, & Bilgihan, 2015; Fullerton, 2003; Ok, Back, &

Shanklin, 2005). It has been suggested that customers who are committed to a service partner may develop feelings of deep attachment to a service provider (Mende, Bolton, & Bitner, 2013), and thus can be expected to fulfill the role of firm advocate (Fullerton, 2003; Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, & Gremler, 2002). Subsequently, services marketing researchers have found a significant and direct relationship between relationship commitment and positive WOM (Chen & Hu, 2010; Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Similar findings have been reported by researchers focused on relationship commitment and service recovery (Kim, Yoo, & Lee, 2012; Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005; Gwinner, Gremler, & Bitner, 1998).

Although commitment and loyalty are largely considered distinct variables (Jones, Reynolds, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2007), they have on previous occasions been treated as homologous in the services marketing literature (Rauyruen & Miller, 2007). This is due to the presumption of a strong relationship between the two constructs. For example, relationship commitment has empirically been found to mediate the effects of variables resulting from a service transaction (including service quality and trust), and has thus been suggested to be the primary driver of customer loyalty (Fullerton, 2003). Subsequently, commitment has been described as the “behavioral outcome of loyalty (Bowen & Shoemaker, 2003, pg. 32)”. Furthermore, relationship commitment (and trust) has been found to be strong indicators of customer loyalty among hospitality patrons (Prachayakupt, O'Mahony, & Sillitoe, 2017).

Examining the impact of trust and commitment on post-service recovery behavior, Kim, Yoo, and Lee (2012) sampled restaurant patrons who had experienced a

service recovery in the past six months. They utilized a scale adapted from Morgan & Hunt (1994) and Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005). The four items, based on a 7 point scale anchored by strongly agree and strongly disagree resulted in a composite alpha score of .883, with factor loadings ranging from 0.901 to 0.685. The items were: I am very committed to the restaurant, I can develop warm feelings toward the restaurant, I think the restaurant deserves me efforts to maintain a relationship, and I intend to maintain a relationship with the restaurant definitely.

According to Meyer & Allen (1997), commitment is comprised of three distinct components: affective commitment, normative commitment, and calculative (or continuous) commitment. In order to assess the adequacy of the three-component commitment scale in services marketing research, Bansal, Irving, & Taylor (2004) incorporated three competing commitment models for comparison in a service context. The first model conceptualized commitment as having three components, with a corresponding scale consisting of four affective commitment items, five calculative commitment items, and four normative commitment items. The second model was composed of two dimensions (affective commitment and calculative commitment), while the third model measured commitment with one global item. Results did lend support to the generalizability of Meyer & Allen's (1997) three-component model of commitment. Comparisons of the three models resulted in the following (see Table 3.2):

Table 3.2: Model Comparison Results (Reprinted from Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004)

No	Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA A	GFI	NFI	CFI	χ^2 Difference test with Base Model (p < .05)
1	3 factors, 13 unique measures	212.23	59	.086	.92	.91	.93	580.26 with 3 df
2	2 factors, 13 unique measures	411.00	61	.127	.85	.86	.86	381.49 with 1df
3	1 factor, 13 unique measures (base model)	792.49	62	.182	.73	.75	.75	

Based on the findings of Gruen, Summers, & Acito (2000), indicating that a three-component model of commitment can be useful in examining commitment among service providers and customers, Fatima, Razzaque, & Di Mascio (2015) conducted a study of Bangladesh banking customers. They measured affective commitment with items adapted from Bansal et al. (2004). The three items (“I take pleasure in being a customer of this bank”, “I am a loyal patron of this bank”, and “I feel a sense of belonging to this bank”) resulted in a reliability score of 0.778. The scales used to measure both calculative and normative commitment were adapted from Styles, Patterson, & Ahmed (2008). The two items used to measure calculative commitment (“It is too difficult to switch to another bank, otherwise I would consider leaving” and “It

would be hard for me to transfer the investments that I have in this bank to another bank, so I am continuing my relationship with it”) resulted in an alpha score of 0.731. The two items used to measure normative commitment (“I would feel guilty if I left this bank now” and “I would not leave this bank because I have a sense of obligation to them”) resulted in an alpha score of 0.829.

Based on the findings of Bansal, Irving, & Taylor (2004), the present study will measure three dimensions of commitment: affective commitment, calculative commitment, and normative commitment. The resulting items will be adapted from scales utilized by Meyer and Allen (1997) and Morgan and Hunt (1994). In addition, a global measurement of commitment, adapted from Ok, Back & Shanklin’s (2005) scale will be included. Thus, the items used to measure relationship commitment in this study were partly based on the items provided below (see Figure 3.16).

Figure 3.16: Measurement Items for Commitment

Construct	Item	Adapted From
Commitment (global)	I am very committed to this restaurant	Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005)
Affective Commitment	My relationship with this restaurant is very important to me	Morgan & Hunt (1994)
Affective Commitment	I feel emotionally attached to this restaurant	Meyer & Allen (1997)
Normative Commitment	I feel obligated to dine in this restaurant	Meyer & Allen (1997)
Normative Commitment	I would feel guilty if I left this restaurant for a new restaurant	Meyer & Allen (1997)
Calculative Commitment	I would be very hard to switch restaurants, even if I wanted to	Meyer & Allen (1997)
Calculative Commitment	I am committed to this restaurant because my life would be disrupted if I had to find a replacement	Meyer & Allen (1997)

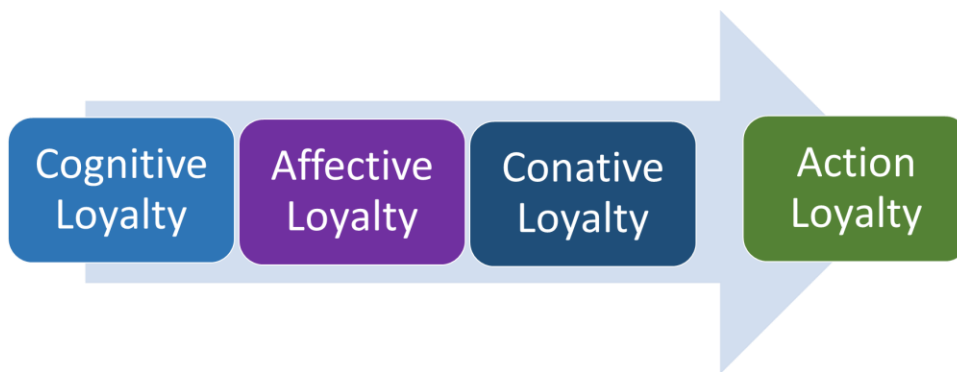
Customer Loyalty

Prior to the 1970s, loyalty was conceptualized as repeat purchase behavior (Evanschitzky & Wunderlich, 2006). Due to the shortcomings recognized with this behavioral approach, researchers including Day & Bodur (1978) and Lutz & Winn (1974) proposed loyalty to be comprised of behavioral and attitudinal elements. Based on this psychological perspective of loyalty, Jacoby & Chestnut (1978) proposed a model of loyalty which distinguished true loyalty from happenstance or non-loyal repeat purchase behavior. Jacoby & Chestnut (1978) suggested that true loyalty exists when consumers are able to identify a superior brand among competitor brands (i.e. cognition), exhibit feelings of warmth towards one brand (i.e. affect), and intend to purchase one brand over competitor brands (i.e. intention).

Extending the cognitive-affective-model proposed by Jacoby & Chestnut (1978), Oliver (1997) proposed a four-stage model of loyalty (see Figure 3.17). According to Oliver (1999), the formation of loyalty includes three attitudinal phases and one behavioral phase, with the different phases developing not simultaneously but consecutively. Factors that impact cognitive loyalty, the first stage, have been suggested to include perceived value, price, service quality, and environment (Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011). Oliver (1999) suggested that the second stage, affective loyalty, was influenced by satisfaction associated with the brand, as well as the development of an attraction for competitor brands. According to Han, Kim, & Kim (2011), affective loyalty can be additionally influenced by positive and negative emotions. Oliver (1999) described the third stage, conative loyalty, as the desire to intend to purchase. Although considered

stronger than cognitive or affective loyalty, Oliver (1999) suggested that consumers who develop conative loyalty remain susceptible to choosing alternative brands. Thus conative loyalty has been a critical focus of service recovery research, as repeated service failures have been found to significantly and negatively impact conative loyalty (Kandampully, Zhang, & Bilgihan, 2015). In the final stage, Oliver (1999) proposed that customers developed action loyalty, and were thus no longer responsive to alternate considerations. In this stage, Oliver (1999) suggested that consumers were suggested to exert considerable effort in order to remain loyal to one brand (Oliver, 1999).

Figure 3.17: Loyalty Phases Proposed by Oliver (Reprinted from Oliver, 1999)



Dick & Basu (1994) developed a framework of customer loyalty combining behavior and attitude measures (see Figure 3.18). According to the model, loyalty is achieved when a customer displayed a high relative attitude (determined by attitudinal differentiation and attitude strength) and exhibited high repeat purchase behavior.

Latent loyalty was posited to exist when customers possessed a strong preference for a particular brand or service, but did not exhibit high repeat purchase behavior. The following example of latent loyalty was provided by Javalgi & Moberg (1997): a customer with a strong preference for a particular Italian restaurant does not frequently dine there due to situational variables (e.g. a lack of discretionary income, a desire for variety in meals, etc.). Spurious loyalty was suggested by Dick & Basu (1994) to occur when a customer frequently purchased a brand, yet did not perceive any significant differences among the consideration set. According to Javalgi & Moberg (1997), spurious loyalty was attributable to past experience or a lack of alternatives. The final category, “No Loyalty”, was described by Dick & Basu (1994) as a situation in which customers infrequently purchased a good or service and saw little or no difference between brands.

Figure 3.18: Customer Loyalty Framework (Reprinted from Dick & Basu, 1994)

		BEHAVIOR	
		High	Low
ATTITUDE	High	Loyalty	Latent Loyalty
	Low	Spurious Loyalty	No Loyalty

Although customer loyalty will not be directly measured in this study, it remains an important focus. This is due to the outcomes associated with loyalty, particularly in the context of service recovery in restaurants (Han, Kim, & Kim, 2011). Presently, loyalty is most commonly distinguished between attitudinal and behavioral loyalty (Dean, 2007; Kumar & Shah, 2004). Attitudinal loyalty has been defined as “a positive attitude toward the organization, generated through the consumer’s internal evaluation processes (Devece, Garcia-Agreda, & Ribeiro-Navarrete, 2015, pg. 518)”.

According to McLelland & Foster (2015), behavioral loyalty is demonstrated by consumer-service recommendations or consumer intentions. Consumer intentions have been categorized as either repurchase intentions or positive WOM intentions (Andreassen, 2000). Behavioral loyalty has been further distinguished by some researchers as either transactional behaviors (i.e. repeat purchase) or relationship behaviors (i.e. positive WOM) (Kneesel, Baloglu, & Millar, 2010).

Repurchase Intentions

Service marketing researchers have long acknowledged that customer retention represents one of the key outcomes of service failure recovery attempts. In examining customer complaints, Gilly & Gelb (1982, pg. 323) noted that “.... some relationship can be expected between feelings about complaint response and likelihood of repurchase”. Extant research on service recovery has indicated that the consequences of a service failure are not intractably negative (Murphy et al., 2015). Customers, dissatisfied with service transactions due to service errors, have been found to be willing to repurchase

from a service provider if the service error is resolved in a satisfactory manner (Kuo & Wu, 2012; Bijmolt, Huizing, & Krawczyk, 2014; Boshoff, 1999; Tax et al., 1998).

Repurchase intentions has been described as an “individual’s judgments about buying a designated product or service from the same company again while considering his current situations (Sabharwal, Soch, & Kaur, 2010, pg 131)”, as well as the “degree to which customers intend to purchase firms’ products or services in the future (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002, pg. 242)”. The prominent role repurchase intention has played in previous service recovery research, illustrated in meta-analyses conducted by Gelbrich & Roschk (2011) and Van Vaerenbergh and Orsingher (2016), underlies core objectives of successful service recovery: to increase retention and decrease customer defection (Park, Kim, & O’Neill, 2014; Pi, Liao, & Chen, 2012).; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002).

Customer retention also indicates management efficiency (Silber et al., 2009). In one of the most heavily-cited publications in services marketing research, Reichheld & Sasser (1990) suggested that a 5% increase in customer retention can result in a 95% boost in profits. In addition, Hart, Heskett, & Sasser (1990) suggested that the cost of retaining a customer is five times less than the cost of attracting a new one. Neither the Reichheld & Sasser (1990) or Hart, Heskett & Sasser postulations above have been empirically investigated, but they do suggest the potential importance of retention. Thus, repurchase intentions has been accepted as “among the most important of drivers of long-term financial performance (Frank, Enkawa, & Schvaneveldt, 2014, pg. 171)”.

It has also been suggested that customer retention is important to the consumer as well. Expectancy theorists suggest that, due to the difficulties associated with service quality assessments prior to a purchase (Choi & Choi, 2014), a pattern of satisfaction with a service provider may help to reduce risk and uncertainty with respect to consumer decision-making (Kim & Ok, 2009). Furthermore, incidences of service failure have been suggested to elicit heightened levels of emotion (Kuo & Wu, 2012). According to Siu, Zhang, & Yau, (2013, pg. 677), “satisfaction is an emotional response to the experience to an encounter, and the emotion consequently serves as a basis for the behavioral intention to re-patronage.” When service providers successfully provide service recovery, it has been posited that the level of post-recovery satisfaction can reach levels higher than had the service failure been avoided (McCollough, 2009).

Drawing on means-end theory (Gutman, 1982), Paul, Hennig-Thurau, Gremler, Gwinner, & Wiertz (2009) hypothesized that a customer’s knowledge about a service provider’s attributes is connected to the benefits attributed to that service. These in turn have been suggested to be connected to underlying motivations to satisfy a need or desire. Thus, they suggested that repeat purchases from one service provider are predicated on the perceived benefits, beyond the core product/service, a customer presumes to receive by purchasing from a specific service provider.

Paul et al. (2009) conducted 188 in-depth interviews in Germany and the United States in which respondents were categorized as repeat purchasers. Based on their results, it was suggested that the attributes most closely associated with service quality were the most important drivers of repeat purchase behavior. As service failures have

been suggested to indicate poor service quality, service recoveries have been suggested to provide a “second chance” for service providers to demonstrate service quality (Joireman et al., 2013, pg. 315). In addition, Paul et al. (2009) found the most important relationship benefits to be psychological (e.g. comfort) and social (e.g. affiliation, communication), both of which have been suggested to be integral for service recovery strategies (Han, Kim, & Hyun, 2011).

Similarly, Kim and Ok (2009) categorized service benefits as social benefits (elements associated with the development of an emotional bond), confidence benefits (derived from trust for the service provider), and special treatment benefits (advantages associated with customization and economic advantages). These benefits closely resemble aspects of the three dimensions of justice. For example, among the three justice dimensions, interactional justice has previously been found to have the most influence on the development of customer-service provider friendships (Wang et al., 2011). Procedural justice, however, has been closely linked to influencing trust (Chang & Chang, 2010). Lastly, distributive justice has been conceptualized as the outcome of service recovery (Nikbin, Ismail, & Marimuthu, & Jalalkamali, 2010), and thus has been tied to economic advantages. Subsequently, several studies have demonstrated that one or more of the three justice dimensions has a positive impact on restaurant patrons repurchase intentions (Namkung, Jang, Almanza & Ismail, 2009; Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005; Kim, Yoo, and Lee, 2012; Silber et al, 2009, Siu, Zhang, & Yau, 2013).

Although the link between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions has been found to be significant and positive (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011), additional

factors have been suggested to influence that relationship. Previous research suggests that the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intention may be moderated by the duration of the relationship (Seiders, Voss, Grewal, & Godfrey, 2005), the perceived value of the service (Zhao, Lu, Zhang, & Chau, 2012), switching costs (De Matos, Henrique, & de Rosa, 2013), failure controllability and stability (Lin, 2009), and inferred motives of the service provider (Joireman et al, 2013). Although these factors have been found to have significant implications on repurchase intentions, the limited scope of this study prohibits incorporating them.

One factor that is incorporated in this study is failure severity. It has been found that an escalation of failure severity has a negative impact on both customer satisfaction and re-patronage intentions (De Matos, Viera, & Veiga 2012; Hess, Ganeson, & Klein, 2003; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999). Examining the consequences of justice perceptions on service recovery with respect to the severity of the service error, Choi & Choi (2014) asked respondents to rate statements adapted from Yim et al. (2008) (see Table 3.3). Utilizing confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling ($\chi^2 = 276.666$, $df = 126$, $p = 0.0001$), findings indicated that the impact of DJ on repurchase intentions was only significant when the service failure was perceived to be severe.

Table 3.3: Repurchase Intentions Scale Adopted by Choi & Choi (Reprinted from Choi & Choi, 2014)

Customer Loyalty	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	t-values
When choosing the same product category, I considered the company as my first choice	0.907	0.930	22.054
I will continue to visit the company in the future	0.881		22.812
I will continue to visit the company, even if other alternatives are available	0.925		20.997

Pizzutti & Fernandes (2010) examined the effect of service recovery on consumer loyalty and trust in the electronic retail (E-tail) context. Over 3,000 respondents from Brazil who had made an online purchase and experienced a service error in the past six months were incorporated in the study. In order to measure repurchase intentions, three items adapted from scales developed by Oliver & Swan (1989) and Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman (1996) were utilized. Anchored by “very unlikely” and “very likely” on a 5 point Likert scale, the items (and respective factor loading scores) were provided: “How likely are you to...”

- Make purchases on this site again (0.95)
- Do more business with this site in future (0.95)
- Consider this site your first choice to buy that kind of service/product (0.86)

Results of a structural equation model was conducted ($\chi^2 = 10,219,075$, $df = 653$, $p < 0.001$, $CFI = 0.97$, $NFI = 0.97$, $RMSEA = 0.05$) confirmed the significant impact of trust

of a specific on-line seller on customer loyalty, indicated by repurchase intention ($t = 16.15$) and positive WOM (15.68).

Repurchase intentions have also been operationalized as switching costs. For example, Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun (2016) examined the relationship between perceived service fairness, relationship quality (trust and commitment), and switching intentions in fine dining restaurants. In order to measure repurchase intentions (or lack thereof), they adopted a scale from Kim, Park & Jeong (2004) which measures switching costs. Switching cost was conceptualized as having three elements: loss cost, adaptation loss, and move-in loss.

Kim, Park, & Jeong (2004, pg. 151) defined loss cost as the “perception of loss in social status and performance...” Adaptation costs were conceptualized as the perceived risks associated with having to adapt to a new service provider. Finally, move-in cost was described as the economic costs associated with switching service providers. Based on 7-point Likert type scales, all three items were rated as “improbable/probable”, “unlikely/likely” and “no chance/certain” (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016, pg. 1014). With factor loadings of loss cost (0.992), adaption cost (0.993), and cost loss (0.989), the three items resulted in a Cronbach’s α of 0.991. Results of a structural model indicated a significant relationship between perceptions of service recovery justice with switching intention. Results also confirmed a significant and negative relationship between trust and commitment and switching intention.

Repurchase intention has also been measured with one item. For example, Rust and Williams (1994, pg. 37) measured repurchase intentions by asking respondents, “What is the percentage chance that you will visit this restaurant?” Vazquez-Casielles, Iglesias, & Varela-Neira (2012) conducted an experimental study on service recovery in the airline industry and also used one statement to measure repurchase intentions. 450 respondents were provided a scenario in which a service recovery attempt was attempted. The statement (Indicate the likelihood of repurchasing the services of this company in the future) was based on a scale of 1 “Highly unlikely” to 10 “Highly Likely”. “Highly unlikely” was subsequently described as defection, and “highly likely” was described as loyalty.

According to Van Vaerenbergh et al. (2014), an overwhelming majority of studies examining service recovery have utilized perceptual measures, rather than recording actual behavior. It has been posited that perceptual measures can suffer from bias, due to factors including social desirability (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012) and response bias (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001).

However, the study conducted by Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005), and the subsequent scales adapted for their study have been extensively used in service recovery research. In their study, repurchase intention and positive WOM were presented collectively as “behavioral intention”. As previously discussed, the melding of repurchase intentions and positive WOM have been prominently used in research examining service recovery (Park & Park, 2016).

In contrast to Choi & Choi (2014) and Pizzutti & Fernandes (2010), Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005) did not collapse repurchase intentions and positive WOM as a way to measure customer loyalty. They measured revisit intentions with items adapted from Blodgett et al., (1997) and Maxham & Netemeyer (2002). The three resulting items (See Table 3.4) were assessed on 7-point Likert-type scales ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), and included a reverse-order item. The items used to measure repurchase intentions are both concise and coherent. In addition, results suggest the confirmation of convergent validity, discriminant validity, and composite reliability. For these reasons, the following items used in the figure below (see Table 3.4) will be considered for this study.

Table 3.4: Behavioral Intentions measured by Ok, Back, & Shanklin (Reprinted from Ok, Black, & Shanklin, 2005)

Customer Loyalty	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	t-values
When choosing the same product category, I considered the company as my first choice	0.907	0.930	22.054
I will continue to visit the company in the future	0.881		22.812
I will continue to visit the company, even if other alternatives are available	0.925		20.997

WOM Intentions

WOM has been significantly and positively linked to factors including consumer's level of trust, perceived value, service quality, and satisfaction (Goyette, Ricard, Bergeron, & Marticotte, 2010). There have been several assertions by services marketing researchers as to why consumers share information concerning their product/service experiences. For example, Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard (1993) developed a typology for articulating WOM motivations. Of the motivations reported, those most pertinent to service providers with respect to service recovery would likely include: dissonance reduction, concern for others and product/service involvement.

Service marketers have also suggested that consumers engage in WOM due to cognitive dissonance (Wangenheim, 2005). Cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) has been described as a phenomenon which occurs when consumers experience discomfort due to their purchase decisions. It has been suggested that, when customers purchase experiences are inconsistent with their expectations, those customers seek out ways to restore consistency or balance (Kozub, O'Neil, & Palmer, 2014). In the context of restaurants, a restaurant patron may try to convince him or herself of the purchase decision by sharing positive WOM about a new restaurant of which little was known prior to a positive dining experience (Mattila & Ro, 2008). Conversely, restaurant patrons may share negative WOM about a restaurant which, due to a negative experience, is no longer considered part of the choice set.

It has also been suggested that a consumer's concern for the welfare of others serves as a strong motivator to share WOM (Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004). For example, dining patrons who have experienced a positive service experience (including service recovery) may share their experiences out of concern for the restaurant or the employees they perceive to be responsible for the excellent service experience (Jones, Reynolds, Mothersbaugh, & Beatty, 2007). On the other hand, negative dining experiences may result in negative WOM as a means of warning others.

As WOM has been found to be spread most among people with strong ties as opposed to strangers (Wangenheim, 2005), It has also been suggested that WOM communication is further influenced by gender roles. Drawing on Bakan's (1966) agency-communion theory, Wheeler & Berger (2007) suggested that females were characterized by community goals and males were characterized by agentic goals. As community goals are associated with a concern for caring and nurturing others, females were more likely to engage in sharing information (Crocker & Canevello, 2008).

It has been suggested that the relevance of a good or service for a consumer can lead to a buildup of pressure to speak openly (either positively or negatively) about that product or service (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). In other words, a consumer who has developed a heightened interest or involvement in a product or service has been found to be more likely to share his or her experience with other potential consumers (Sundaram, Mitra, & Webster, 1998). According to Zaichkowsky (1985), a consumer's level of involvement may be influenced by the situation in which the service was experienced.

Thus, it can be assumed that incidences of service recovery could produce higher levels of involvement, resulting in an increase in WOM intentions.

The importance of WOM intentions to service providers has been well-supported in service marketing literature (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016). Consumption experiences, such as those in the context of dining, have been found to be the primary influences on post-consumption attitudes and behavior. WOM communication in particular has been reported to be a critical factor in shaping expectations and perceptions during the decision-making process (Buttle, 1998), as well as a significant motivator in confirmation of future consumption decisions (Hur and Jang, 2016).

Regarding the present study, the relationship between justice and WOM intentions has also been empirically verified (Casidy & Shin, 2015; Kim et al., 2009; Swanson & Hsu, 2009; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002). Found to shape consumer attitudes and impact repurchase intentions via customer satisfaction (Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, Aguiar-Quintana, & Suarez-Acosta, 2013; Lin et al., 2011), positive WOM has been suggested to be “the most important outcome of customer-firm relationships (Kandampully, Zhang & Bilgihan, 2015, pg. 396)”.

Further advances in technology have resulted in a specific type of WOM defined as electronic WOM, or eWOM (Cantallops & Salvi, 2014). Presently, customers have more opportunities to share their service experiences through emails, blogs, and online reviews (Ye, Law & Gu, 2009). Due to this, as well as additional characteristics uniquely attributed to eWOM, more and more researchers are incorporating eWOM

measures in studies focused on hospitality (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). According to Sun, Youn, Wu, & Kuntaraporn (2006, pg. 1107), “compared to traditional WOM, online WOM is more influential due to its speed, convenience, one-to-many reach, and its absence of face-to-face human pressure.”

Fundamentally, both offline and online forms of WOM can provide consumers an opportunity to obtain information that further helps to reduce the uncertainty and risks associated with purchase decision-making (Ghosh, 2018). The power attributed to both WOM and eWOM communication lies in the perceptions of credibility and trustworthiness, particularly in comparison to the information that is obtained from marketers (Park & Lee, 2009).

Although additional forms of WOM have been introduced, the conceptualization of WOM has been relatively stable (see Figure 3.19). According to Jeong & Jang (2011, pg. 357), the similarity of the definitions of WOM over several years of research suggest that “the term has been settled in the minds of academics and practitioners”. WOM has previously been described as “informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived noncommercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, a product, an organization, or a service (Harrison-Walker, 2001, pg. 63).”

Figure 3.19: Definitions of WOM

Author (s)	Definition
Harrison-Walker (2011)	An informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived noncommercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, a product, an organization, or a service.
Hawkins et al. (2004)	A process that allows consumers to share information and opinions about a specific product, brand, or service in order to direct buyers toward or away from the product.
Anderson (1998)	The informal communication by consumers about their evaluations of goods and services to other consumers.
Dick & Basu (1994)	A volitional post-purchase communication by consumers.
Richins (1983)	An act of telling at least one friend, acquaintance, or family member about the personal experience with a satisfactory or unsatisfactory product or retail establishment.

User-generated content in online-platforms, in the form of online reviews, have become extremely influential in the consumer decision-making process (Sreejesh & Anusree, 2016). It has been reported that nearly 70% of consumers recognize online reviews and ratings of product/service providers as important research tools (Ante, 2009). Subsequently, eWOM has been described as “the online interpersonal influence which is basically opinions and information regarding products and brands communicated via electronic media (Ghosh, Varshney, & Venugopal, 2014, pg. 295).” The increasing importance of eWOM to service providers has been reflected in the increasing number of studies examining eWOM (Yang & Mai, 2010), including those in the context of hospitality (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008; Chen & Law, 2016; Jeong & Jang, 2011).

For example, Park and Nicolau (2015) examined the effect of usefulness and enjoyment on online consumer reviews. A sample of 5,090 reviews, of 45 restaurants

located in New York, was analyzed using a count model based on a negative binomial distribution. Findings suggested that people found reviews more useful (and enjoyable) when they were either extremely positive or negative. This is of particular importance to the present study, as it has been previously suggested that service recovery experiences can result in extremely negative consumer emotions (previously described as double deviation) or extremely positive consumer emotions (previously described as service recovery paradox) (Kuo & Wu, 2012).

Positive WOM has been previously operationalized as consumers sharing favorable information about a service provider and recommending the service provider to others (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011). However, due to the increasing usage of eWOM among consumers, particularly among restaurant patrons (Reimer & Benkenstein, 2018), a measurement item for eWOM adapted from a previous study (see Figure 3.20) will be incorporated into the current study.

Figure 3.20: Construct Measurement of Positive WOM

Author(s)	Sample	Construct (CA)	Chronbach's Alpha (CA)	Adapted by
Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski (2017)	Under-graduate students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I will write positive reviews about my restaurant experience in social media • I will make positive postings about this restaurant in social media • I will encourage others through social media postings to do business with this restaurant • I will encourage others through social media reviews to do business with this restaurant 	0.96	Gregoire, Tripp, & Legoux (2009); Blodgett et al. (1997)
Su & Hsu (2013)	Tourists of a heritage site	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would positively recommend this heritage site to other people • I would be glad to refer this heritage site to other heritage tourists • I would recommend this heritage site to those who are planning for a heritage travel 	0.91	Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996)
Babin et al. (2005)	Restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I will say positive things about this restaurant to other people • I will recommend it to someone who seeks my advice • I will encourage friends and relative to visit the restaurant 	0.90	Chebat & Slusarczyk (2005)
Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005)	Restaurant patrons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I will spread positive word-of-mouth about this restaurant • I will recommend this restaurant to my friends • If my friends or relatives were looking for a restaurant, I would tell them to try at this restaurant 	0.07	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)

Although positive WOM and negative WOM have previously been presented as “opposite ends of one and the same continuum (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011, pg. 28)”, findings from other studies suggest this to be inaccurate (Kau & Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006). For example, employing CIT, Sundaram et al. (1998) developed eight motivational categories that help to differentiate positive WOM from negative WOM. According to their results, positive WOM is motivated by altruism, product-involvement, helping the

product/service provider, and self-enhancement. Negative WOM, however, was suggested to be motivated by altruism, advice-seeking, anxiety reduction, and vengeance.

Negative WOM has also been suggested to be a result “typically arising from a dissatisfactory consumption experience... (Zhang, Feick, & Mittal, 2013, pg. 1097)”. In the context of service failure, the options for dissatisfied customers have been suggested to be limited (Jani & Han, 2011). According to Hui (2011) these options include one or a combination of the following: ignoring the error, switching service providers, complaining directly to the service provider or service firm, or sharing the negative experience with fellow consumers. The negative implications associated with negative WOM include customer defections (Malhotra, Oly-Ndubisi, & Agarwal, 2008), and fewer purchases from new customers (Murphy et al., 2015). According to Li & Zhan (2011), WOM may play a role in influencing the perceptions of a firm more significantly than any other source.

In addition, consumers have been found to be twice as likely to engage in negative WOM rather than positive WOM (Zhang, Feick, & Mittal, 2013; Anderson, 1998). It has also been found that negative WOM is more impactful on consumer attitudes than positive WOM (Chang, Tsai, Wong, Wang, & Cho, 2015). This could be partly attributed to the charge that negative WOM is often subject to exaggeration (Dahlén, Sjödin, Thorbjørnsen, Hansen, Linander, & Thunell (2013). According to Hennig-Thurau, Wiertz, & Feldhaus (2015) prospect theory could help to explain the disparity. As the primary proposition of prospect theory is that “losses loom larger than

gains (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979, pg. 279)”, Hennig-Thurau, Wiertz, & Feldhaus (2015) suggested that consumers would be more likely to use WOM as a means of avoiding bad purchases rather than seeking good purchases. Lastly, the powerful impact of negative WOM has been suggested to be partly due to its reach. According to Richins (1983), while satisfied customers tell an average of 3 people, dissatisfied customers tell an average of 11 people.

Studies examining service recovery have typically manipulated a service error or recruit respondents who have experienced a service error. In other words, previous service recovery studies have focused on poorly perceived service transactions. Therefore, the expectations regarding post-recovery behavior have often been hypothesized as negative. However, many of these studies did not examine negative WOM (Cho, Jang, & Kim, 2017).

Negative WOM has been previously operationalized as sharing unfavorable information about a service provider and warning others about the service provider (Zhang, Zhang, & Law, 2014). The figure below provides examples of how negative WOM has been previously measured. In addition, a sample scale for negative eWOM has been included in the figure below (see Figure 3.21).

Figure 3.21: Construct Measurements of Negative WOM

Author(s)	Sample	Indicators	Chronbach's Alpha (CA)	Adapted by
Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski (2017)	Undergraduate students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I will write negative reviews about my restaurant experience in social media • I will make negative postings about this restaurant in social media • I will warn others through social media postings not to do business with this restaurant • I will warn others not to do business with this restaurant through social media reviews 	0.96	Gregoire, Tripp, & Legoux (2009); Blodgett et al. (1997)
Tsarenko & Tojib (2012)	Undergraduate students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I will spread negative word of mouth about the organization • I will denigrate this organization to my friends • When my friends will look for a similar product or service, I tell them not to buy from this company 	0.88	Blodgett et al. (1997)
Betts et al. (2011)	Undergraduate students	<p>A five-item scale measured using a 7-point scale anchored by "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree". A sample item was provided:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I would say negative things to others in the community about this university 	0.89	Wood & Karau (2009)
Hess (2008)	Airline passengers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Forget about the incident and do nothing (reverse-coded)? • Complain about your experiences • Voice your displeasure about the waitress's behavior? 	0.88	Singh (2006)
Weun et al. (2004)	Civic and church group members	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How likely would you be to warn others not to use the __? • I would make it a point to tell my friends and relatives not to use this __. 	0.92	Blodgett et al. (1997)

Much of the previous research examining negative WOM has focused on its antecedents, including the relationship between customer dissatisfaction and poorly perceived product/service performance. Based on an extensive literature review of studies reporting a significant link between service recovery satisfaction and WOM

behavior, Wirtz & Mattila (2004) examined how the three dimensions of justice have influenced post-recovery behavioral intentions in a restaurant setting. Hypothetical scenarios were incorporated to manipulate service errors previously found to be common to restaurants. In order to measure negative WOM, the following three items from a scale developed by Blodgett et al. (1997) were adapted and measured using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (unlikely) to 7 (likely):

- Given what happened in the story, how likely would you tell your friends and relatives not to patronize this restaurant?
- Given what happened in the story, how likely would you complain to your friends and relatives about this restaurant?
- Given what happened in the story, how likely would you write negative reviews about the experience in social media?

The scale proposed by Blodgett et al. (1997) has been well-established in services recovery literature in the context of restaurants, and has provided strong reliability (Chronbach's $\alpha = 0.95$). However, the original scale did not examine electronic WOM. Thus, the scale originally developed by Blodgett et al. (1997) and adapted by Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski (2017) and Wirtz & Mattila (2004) will be used in this study to measure negative WOM and negative eWOM.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to detail the methods used to examine the proposed hypotheses and conceptual model of the study, including the necessary steps taken to implement the study. The first section details the research design. The second section describes the development of the data collection instrument, while the third explains the variables associated with the study and the procedures used to collect the data. Finally, the statistical techniques used to analyze the data are provided.

Research Design

In order to test the proposed research hypotheses, a quasi-experimental design was employed by having participants respond to a simulated service recovery, following a hypothetical service error. The 2 * 4 factorial between-subject design consisted of two independent variables: service error severity and the perception of justice (see Table 4.1). Participants were randomly selected to one of eight scenarios involving a hypothetical service error and subsequent recovery experience. The number of scenarios was predicated on the number of justice manipulations and the level of severity attributed to the initial service error.

Table 4.1: The Experimental Design: 2 (service error severity) * 4 (perceptions of justice)

		JUSTICE PERCEPTION			
		Baseline (No Omission of Justice)	Omission of Distributive Justice	Omission of Interactional Justice	Omission of Procedural Justice
SERVICE ERROR SEVERITY	Low Severity				
	High Severity				

There are several reasons why this approach has been widely used in service recovery studies (Sengupta, Balaji, & Krishnan, 2015; Kuo & Wu, 2012; Choi & Matilla, 2008; DeWitt et al., 2008; Ok, Back, & Shanklin, 2005; Mattila & Cranage, 2005; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999; Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998). First, the use of a factorial experimental design has been argued to allow for more precise testing of interactions among multiple factors (Ha & Jang, 2009; Cook, Campbell, & Shadish, 2002). Second, the use of random assignment to one of the eight scenarios allows for an increase in power (Karren & Barringer, 2002). Third, experimental designs have been suggested to best address the issue of internal validity, as it has been suggested to minimize memory bias (Mattila & Patterson, 2004). Finally, this method has been suggested to aid in avoiding additional issues/costs related to the intentional imposition of service failures on customers (Mattila, 2001).

Respondents were assigned to one of the eight possible hypothetical service recovery scenarios based on the manipulation of service error severity. Respondents assigned to “Low Severity” were asked to read a scenario in which their meal had been improperly cooked. Rather than being served a “medium-cooked” steak, the respondent had been served a “well done” steak. For respondents assigned to “High Severity”, the manipulation involved the respondent noticing a piece of glass on his or her plate. These manipulations of service error severity (improperly cooked items and unintended objects) have been similarly utilized in previous studies with satisfactory results (Keiningham et al., 2014; Park, Kim, & O’Neil, 2014; Silber et al, 2009).

In addition, respondents were assigned to one of the eight possible hypothetical service recovery scenarios based on manipulations of justice. The perceptions of each justice dimension (DJ, IJ, or PJ) were manipulated individually in a service recovery attempt scenario. In the example provided (see Table 4.2), distributive justice was omitted from the scenario. Thus, actions associated with distributive justice (e.g. a free meal, a free dessert), or the perception of distributive justice, have been omitted from this scenario. It has been suggested that by omitting one justice dimension, a determination can be made for which (if any) dimension(s) is most responsible to the overall success of the service recovery attempt (Mattila, 1999). This method of examining service recovery justice, by omitting one or more justice dimension(s) within the context of service recovery, has been used in previous service recovery studies (Migacz, Zou, and Petrick, 2018; Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016; del Río-Lanza, Vázquez-Casielles, & Díaz-Martín 2009).

Serving as a baseline for the other three manipulations, the fourth manipulation represented a recovery scenario in which all three justice dimensions were established. In other words, the fourth justice manipulation served as a closer to flawless service recovery, one that provides DJ, IJ, and PJ for the respondent. Incorporating a baseline scenario (for both levels of service severity) allowed for the assessment of the impact of each justice dimension. Thus, determination of the most important justice dimension(s) regarding positive post-recovery attitudes and behaviors was based on comparisons between the provision and omission of each justice dimension.

It should be further noted that for each justice dimension, two examples of the justice dimension have been incorporated into the scenario. For example, in the scenario provided below, in which distributive justice is omitted (see Table 4.2), examples of both IJ and PJ are provided at different times during the scenario. IJ is established first when the server “*apologizes immediately*”, and second when the server “*apologizes again...*” Subsequently, PJ is established first when the server “*asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal*” and later when a new meal is delivered “*in less than ten minutes*”.

Figure 4.1: Sample Scenario

Scenario Example: High Severity * DJ Omitted

You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a large piece of broken glass on your plate. You manage to quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server brings over the bill. Your server apologizes again for the mistake, but no discount or refund is mentioned.

The seven additional hypothetical service recovery scenarios used in this study are provided below:

High Severity * Baseline: You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a large piece of broken glass on your plate. You manage to quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy you a free dessert.

High Severity * IJ Omitted: You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a large piece of broken glass on your plate. You manage to quickly flag down your server. Without apologizing, your server takes away the plate, and asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy you a free dessert.

High Severity * PJ Omitted: You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a large piece of broken glass on your plate. After what seems like thirty minutes, you manage to flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. After thirty minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy you a free dessert.

Low Severity * Baseline: You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered “medium” has been cooked “well-done”. You manage to quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy you a free dessert.

Low Severity * DJ Omitted: You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered “medium” has been cooked “well-done”. You manage to quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server brings over the bill. Your server apologizes again for the mistake, but no discount or refund is mentioned.

Low Severity * IJ Omitted: You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered “medium” has been cooked “well-done”. You manage to quickly flag down your server. Without apologizing, your server takes away the plate, and asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy you a free dessert.

Low Severity * PJ Omitted: You and your friends decide to go to (insert favorite restaurant chain). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered “medium” has been cooked “well-done”. After what seems like thirty minutes, you manage to flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. After thirty minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy you a free dessert.

Data Collection Instrument

The developed questionnaire consisted of four sections measuring: (1) transaction-specific and overall service experiences with a restaurant, (2) food-centric travel habits, (3) perceived justice regarding service recovery efforts and post-recovery attitudes and behaviors, and (4) demographic information. The constructs measured are listed below (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Variables Measured in this Study

Construct	Measurement	Literature Review
Experience use history	3 items: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How many DIFFERENT restaurants do you frequent per month? 0 ___ 1 ___ 2 or more ___ • How often do you dine in restaurants per month (please include breakfast, lunch, dinner, and happy-hour)? 0 times _ 1 time _ 2 times_ 3 times _ 4 times _ 5 or more times _ • Thinking of the restaurant you frequent the most, what percentage of your total dining experiences are spent at that one establishment? _____ 	Petrick (2002)

Table 4.2 Continued

Foodie segmentation	<p>4 items:</p> <p>Please choose your level of agreement with each of these statements about food:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I consider myself to be knowledgeable about food and drink • I travel to enjoy memorable eating and drinking experiences • I learn about local food and drink when I visit a destination • I believe my eating and drinking experiences help me to understand the local culture when I travel 	Stone & Migacz (2016); Getz, Andersson, Vujicic, & Robinson (2015)
Service error severity	<p>14 items:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Please rate the following examples in terms of how big or small you consider the potential impact on a restaurant customer to be (e.g. hair found in food, slow service) 	Miller, Craighead, & Karwan (2000)
Overall Satisfaction	<p>5 items:</p> <p>Overall, how would you rate the restaurant in the previous scenario? Based on the story you have just read, please select a number from 1 (negatively) to 7 (positively) for each of the scales:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bad: Good • Not interesting: Interesting • Negative: Positive • Unpleasurable: Pleasurable • Unsuccessful: Successful 	Petrick & Backman (2002)
Satisfaction with the recovery	<p>3 items:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I am satisfied with the manner in which the service failure was resolved • The restaurant's response to the service failure was worse than expected (reverse coded) • I now have a more positive attitude towards this restaurant 	Maxham & Netemeyer (2002)

Table 4.2 Continued

Trust	<p>3 items:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I believe my favorite restaurant chain keeps its promises • I believe that my favorite restaurant chain responds to my needs • I place great trust in my favorite restaurant chain 	Wen & Chi (2013)
Commitment	<p>4 items:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I feel emotionally attached to my favorite restaurant chain • I feel obligated to dine in my favorite restaurant chain • I would find it hard to find a replacement for my favorite restaurant chain, even if I wanted to • I am committed to my favorite restaurant chain 	Bansal, Irving, & Taylor (2004) and Ok, Back & Shanklin's (2005)
Repurchase intentions	<p>2 items:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If you were to dine out in the future, the probability that you would visit this restaurant would be (please circle one) • The likelihood that you would consider returning to this restaurant is (please circle below) 	Pizzutti & Fernandes (2010)
Positive WOM	<p>3 items:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Given what happened in the story, how likely would you write positive reviews about this restaurant in social media • Given what happened in the story, how likely would you encourage others through social media postings to do business with this restaurant • Given what happened in the story, how likely would you recommend this restaurant to my friends 	Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski (2017) and Su & Hsu (2013)

Table 4.2 Continued

Negative WOM	3 items: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Given what happened in the story, how likely would you tell your friends and relatives not to patronize this restaurant?• Given what happened in the story, how likely would you complain to your friends and relatives about this restaurant• Given what happened in the story, how likely would you write negative reviews about the experience in social media	Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski (2017) and Wirtz & Mattila (2004) and Blodgett et al. (1997)
--------------	--	--

Slight modifications were implemented to four of the variables (see Table 4.3). All of the scales used to measure the dependent variables in the final questionnaire were Likert-type scales, with one exception. To measure overall satisfaction, a semantic differential scale was modified from previous research (Petrick & Backman, 2002). Semantic differential scales provide participants with bipolar adjective pairs (e.g. bad and good, happy and sad), of which participants are asked to provide a rating along a continuum (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2003).

Table 4.3: Original Items Prior to Modification

Variable	Original Items
Overall Satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• I was satisfied with the overall experience in patronizing the restaurant.• I am satisfied with the overall quality of this restaurant.• In general, I was not satisfied with the restaurant.
Repurchase	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• I will dine out at this restaurant in the future.
Intentions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• There is likelihood that I would eat at this restaurant in the future.• I will not eat at this restaurant in the near future.
Positive WOM	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• I will spread positive word-of-mouth about this restaurant.• I will recommend this restaurant to my friends.• If my friends or relatives were looking for a restaurant, I would tell them to try at this restaurant.
Negative WOM	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• How likely would you be to warn your friends and relatives not to shop at this retail store?• If this had happened to me I would complain to my friends and relatives about this story.• If this happened to me I would make sure to tell my friends and relatives not to shop at this store.

In the first section, respondents were asked to describe their dining patterns with restaurants', and the frequency in which they dined in their "favorite restaurant" (experience use history). In addition, respondents were asked to identify service errors they have experienced in restaurants, and to rate the severity of specific service errors based on a list of service errors previously found to be common among restaurants (Hoffman, Kelley, & Chung, 2003). Finally, respondents were asked (Yes or No) if they had ever complained about an incidence of service error.

In the second section, respondents were asked a series of questions designed to measure their self-identification of being a "foodie". These questions were placed on 7 point Likert-type scales (anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree). In addition, given a list of popular chain restaurants, respondents were asked to select their "favorite restaurant chain" on the list. This question was incorporated in order to establish a pretest measure for both consumer trust and commitment. The constructs consumer trust and commitment were also measured with 7 points Likert-type scales anchored by strongly disagree and strongly agree.

For the third section, respondents were randomly assigned to one of the eight service recovery scenarios. Regardless of the scenario presented, respondents were asked a series of questions measuring customer satisfaction (both overall satisfaction with the restaurant and satisfaction with the service recovery), trust, commitment, repurchase intentions, positive WOM intentions, and negative WOM intentions. The questions used to measure these constructs were based on either 5 or 7 point scales, depending on the original scales from which they were adapted.

The last section was comprised of demographic questions, including gender, educational background, age, previous annual income, and ethnic background. Respondents were asked to select either male or female, years of education completed (1 of 17 categories ranging from 5 to 20+ years) and approximate total household income (1 of 8 categories ranging from “under \$25,000” to “\$200,000 or more”). Respondents were asked to provide their age via an open-ended question.

In addition, a series of manipulation checks were incorporated into this study (see Table 4.5). In order to check the realism of the hypothetical scenario, respondents were asked to rate the scenario based on a 7 point scale, anchored by “not realistic at all” and “totally realistic”. The severity of the service error was rated on a 7 point scale and checked with the question, “How would you rate the severity of the service error described in the story?” Based on previous research, it was assumed that respondents would find unintended objects (a piece of glass) on their plate to be more severe than an overcooked meal. Thus, respondents who were assigned to a “High Severity” scenario would pass the manipulation check if they rated the experience of finding a large piece of glass on their plate as very severe (mean > 3.5).

The remaining manipulation checks were incorporated to ensure data quality associated with the hypothetical service recovery scenarios. Insufficient effort responding (IER), or careless responding, is a major concern for researchers who employ experimental designs (Huang, Liu, & Bowling, 2015). According to Huang, Liu, & Bowling (2015), participants who exhibit IER may do so because they respond

randomly, respond without proper attention to the content of the survey, or fail to properly read the survey instructions.

In order to aid in detecting IER, it was determined that each justice dimension (DJ, IJ, and PJ) would require a manipulation check. In order to manipulate DJ, respondents were asked to recall (yes or no) if compensation of any kind was provided in the story. The manipulation check for IJ was the following: “Based on the story you have just read, did the server apologize?” For PJ, respondents were asked how long he or she had to wait to have the meal replaced. Respondents were asked to select either “Ten minutes or less” or “Thirty minutes or more”.

Table 4.4 Manipulation Checks

Construct	Measurement	Literature Review
Service Recovery	Based on the story you have just read, how realistic is this scenario?	Hur & Jang, 2016
Severity	How would you rate the severity of the service error described in the story?	Wang et al., 2011
DJ	Based on the story you have just read, did you receive any compensation?	Mattila & Cranage, 2005
IJ	Based on the story you have just read, did the server apologize?	Mattila & Cranage, 2005
PJ	Based on the story you have just read, how long did you have to wait to have your meal replaced?	Mattila & Cranage, 2005

A panel consisting of five experts in the topic was requested to pretest the initial research instrument. The panel consisted of post-doc and faculty members at Texas A&M University, California State University, Chico, and Temple University specializing in tourism and/or marketing research. Of the five panel members, three members had extensive experience with experimental design. Based on the panel review, several enhancements were made to the flow of the survey.

A pilot study was then conducted to confirm scale reliability, and to ensure that the participants were able to fully understand the hypothetical scenarios provided. The pilot study consisted of a convenience sample of 67 undergraduate students. In addition to completing the original questionnaire, participants were asked to provide suggestions and/or criticisms at several stages of the questionnaire. Based on the findings of the pilot study, modifications were made to the questionnaire: questions related to experience use history and recovery satisfaction were restructured. The question *“Thinking about all the restaurants you frequent (breakfast, lunch, dinner, and happy hour), what % would you say you spend at the one restaurant you frequent most often”* was reworded to *“Thinking of the restaurant you frequent the most, what percentage of your total dining experiences are spent at that one establishment”*. Also, the item *“I now have a more positive attitude towards this restaurant”* was reworded to *“The restaurant provided a favorable solution for me.”*

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection was held from March 28th through February 2nd 2018. The questionnaire was built on the web-based platform Qualtrics. Participants were recruited via the internet through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) crowdsourcing platform. Crowdsourcing has been described as an online recruitment of individuals, charged with completing a specific task or tasks (Behrend, Sharek, Meade, & Wiebe, 2011). These tasks can include online surveys, thus providing researchers an opportunity to find "real people to complete real tasks in a controlled environment (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012, pg. 497)". According to Guarino, Reckase, & Wooldridge (2015), the number of part-time MTurk workers worldwide has been estimated at over 500,000. As such, MTurk has been suggested to provide the benefit commonly attributed to other internet-based platforms: providing researchers "the luxury of easy access to diverse nonstudent populations at a fraction of the cost of traditional panel data (Kees, Berry, Burton, & Sheehan, 2017, pg. 141)." Subsequently, at least 63 studies utilizing MTurk were published in organizational journals in 2015, including the *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, and the *Academy of Management Journal*. MTurk has subsequently been used by a multitude of studies across multiple different disciplines (Hauser & Schwarz, 2016).

Described as an "online labor market (Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, & Sliter, 2017, pg. 348)", MTurk provides researchers (referred to as *Requesters*) a marketplace of potential respondents (referred to as *Workers*) by which they can recruit and pay (referred to as a *Reward*) upon completion of tasks (referred to as *Human Intelligence*

Tasks, or HITs). Thus, the normal procedures for initiating MTurk include both the posting of HITs and having *requesters* include detailed requirements for prospective *workers*. These requirements or qualifications often include information based on age, gender, and geographic location (Minton, 2012). For this study, participants were awarded 0.30 cents for a completed survey, and barred from participating in additional surveys.

Requesters must also provide details regarding the HIT, including the title and description of the HIT, the number of workers required, the time allotted, and the expiration date. The most popular criteria for selecting a HIT among *workers* include the size of the reward and the expected completion time (Buhrmester, Talaifar, & Gosling, 2018). MTurk has also established two rules which provide *requesters* with additional quality control. First, a *worker* can only complete a single assignment once. Second, *requesters* are provided the option of reviewing each task, at which time they can approve or reject the submission.

Recognized as one of the more widely used crowdsourcing options within the organizational psychology research community (Cheung et al., 2017), MTurk, has been suggested to provide several benefits for researchers (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012). In contrast to traditional student samples, MTurk has been suggested to be a more successful alternative in obtaining diverse convenience samples (Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). Thus, it has been suggested that MTurk can overcome certain internal and external validity concerns and achieve highly efficient results that are more generalizable (Lovett, Bajaba, Lovett & Simmering, 2018). According to Horton, Rand,

& Zeckhauser (2011) and Aguinis & Lawal (2012), experiments conducted on MTurk are as internally and externally valid as both laboratory experiments and field experiments.

Researchers have also suggested that reliability of the data obtained from MTurk sampling exceeds other sampling methods. According to Gamblin, Winslow, Lindsay, Newsom & Kehn (2017), online data like MTurk can reduce social desirability and experimenter effects. A five-sample between-subjects experiment was conducted by Kees et al. (2017) in order to examine the strengths and weaknesses of MTurk relative to professional panels and student samples. Results suggested that, across various data quality measures, MTurk data performed as well or better than the student sample and outperformed the panel data secured from two separate market research firms. They also suggested that MTurk *workers* appeared significantly more involved in processing the experiment and less engaged in multitasking than all other samples.

MTurk has further been suggested to be extremely efficient for a relatively inexpensive means of data collection (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). According to Lovett et al. (2018), MTurk workers demand as little as \$0.10 to complete a short survey. Contrary to the speculation of some researchers, the data quality of MTurk workers has been found to be independent of the compensation received (Kees et al., 2017). In addition, the MTurk process has been lauded for its quick turnaround, as most research data quotas are filled in less than 24 hours (Berinsky et al., 2012).

However, some researchers have expressed concerns over the use of MTurk. For example, researchers have previously asserted that MTurk samples cannot be generalized to the U.S. population at large, as the MTurk workers are part of a subgroup that can be identified as internet users (Keith, Tay, & Harms, 2017). This pronouncement, however, is not necessarily verifiable, as previous research has failed to find any statistically significant differences with other sample types (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013).

Additionally, other researchers have expressed dissatisfaction with the failure rate of attention checks (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013), and have questioned the motives of *workers* due to the comparatively low wage associated with MTurk HITs (Gamblin et al., 2017). Acknowledging these potential issues, previous researchers have provided recommendations for best practices when utilizing MTurk. For example, Kees et al. (2017) strongly suggested that *requesters* offer fair compensation, implement quality assurance measures, and incorporate additional safeguards to ensure that the *worker* sample is consistent with the desired sample population. In evaluating the usefulness of MTurk among researchers, Cheung, Burns, Sinclair, & Sliter (2017) suggested several ways to mitigate threats to inferences to validity (see Table 4.5).

Finally, while there have been some general concerns regarding the overall quality of MTurk sample, MTurk offers additional levels of data collection control (see Table 4.6). *Requesters* can require *workers* who have a proven track record for providing superior quality data. These workers, referred to as Mechanical Turk Masters (MTMs), are deemed MTMs only after they have competed over 1000 HITs with a

99.0% approval rate. Thus, this study will stipulate that the sample be comprised only of MTMs.

Table 4.5: A Summary of Methodological Concerns, Validity Threats, and Recommendations (Reprinted from Cheung et al., 2017)

Methodological Concern	Validity Threat	Recommendations
1. Subject inattentiveness	Internal, statistical conclusion, construct	Detect and screen inattentive responses Use attention check items fairly and offer second chances to MTurk Workers
2. Selection biases	Construct, external	Consider the extent to which self-selection may affect the validity of findings in light of research objectives
3. Demand characteristics	Internal, construct	Actively monitor MTurk forums Avoid cues signaling study aims and eligibility criteria Measure participant motivation
4. Repeated participation	Internal, construct	Employ steps including data screening and MTurk system and customized qualifications
5. Range restriction	Statistical conclusion	Justify necessary qualification requirements in recruiting MTurk Workers
6. Consistency of treatment and study design implementation	Statistical conclusion	Minimize inconsistencies in study implementations. If study features are designed to be different, incorporate those components into final analyses
7. Extraneous factors	Internal, statistical conclusion, construct	Identify, measure, and include possible sources of extraneous factors into data analyses, especially those common to MTurk participation Proactively instruct MTurk Workers to minimize extraneous factors

Table 4.5 Continued

8. Sample representativeness and appropriateness	External, construct	Ensure that the characteristics of the obtained sample are as close as possible to those of the targeted population Understand the demographic characteristics of the MTurk participant pool and determine whether MTurk is an appropriate data source
9. Consistency between construct explication and study operations	Construct	Evaluate the appropriateness of MTurk samples in relation to the explication of measured constructs
10. Method bias	Construct	Measure and control for method effects arising from MTurk samples

Sample Background and Size

Criterion sampling was chosen for the current study. According to Patton (1990), criterion sampling should be used when the research objective is to identify and select cases that meet specific standards or benchmarks (Palinkas, Aarons, Horwitz, Chamberlain, Hurlburt, & Landsverk, 2011). The criterion used in this study included the following: respondents must be U.S. citizens, aged 18 or over, with respondents having indicated to be a victim of a service error in the context of a restaurant in the past two years.

According to Cohen (1988), a sufficiently large sample is required for generalizability and capturing the desired effect size. Using Cohen’s (1988) power analysis in estimating the sample size, the required sample size would be set at a minimum of 384. This would be based on calculating the significance level (α) to 0.05, the statistical power (β) to 0.8, and a medium effect size of $f=.2$. Although a sample

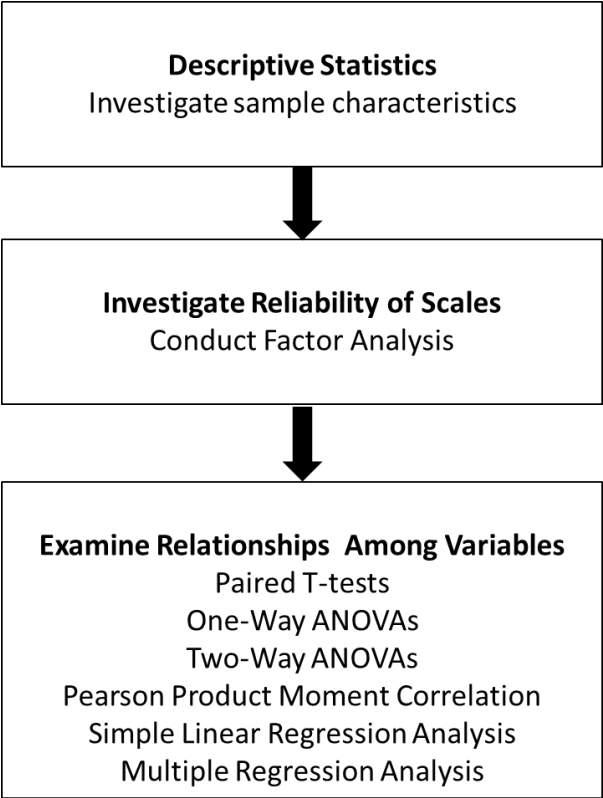
size of 384 has been suggested to sufficient regardless of population size (McNamara, 1997), Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) recommended that the minimum cell size for segmentation variables with the largest categories only be set at a minimum of 30. Taking into consideration the sample sizes previous used in similar studies, as well as the resources available, a total sample size of 500 was deemed acceptable for the purposes of this study. Subsequently, the sample size for each of the eight scenarios would be set at a minimum of 63. However, a more robust sample size was estimated for this study in order to account for participants who failed to complete the survey or failed the manipulation checks.

Testing of Proposed Hypotheses

In order to test the proposed hypotheses, the data was extracted from Qualtrics and transported to the SPSS version 25.0 for Windows 64. To analyze the transported data, this study incorporated several steps and statistical tests (see Table 4.6). First, responses that were incomplete or surveys which were completed in less than six minutes were excluded from further analysis. Second, manipulation checks were run. Participants who failed any of the four manipulation checks were removed from the study. For example, if a participant read the manipulation check, *“Based on the story you have just read, how realistic is this scenario?”* and answered *“No”*, that participant would be excluded from further analysis.

Third, to assess reliability (internal consistency reliability, composite reliability, and the average variance extracted), reliability tests of all nine variables were performed in this study. Principal component analysis (PCA) was run in order to test the discriminant validity and convergent validity of the constructs. Based on several factors (i.e. the hypotheses proposed, the level of measurement defined, assumption of normal distribution), the primary forms of data analysis resulted in a series of one-way ANOVAs and two-way ANOVAs and regression analyses, performed to check for main effects and interactions (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Data Analysis Steps



CHAPTER V

DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS

This purpose of this chapter is twofold: to outline the data screening and cleaning process utilized in this study, and to provide a summary of the descriptive statistics associated with this study's variables. Thus, an overall profile of the respondents is provided. In addition, descriptive statistics related to the primary variables for this study are summarized, including a summary report of the reliability of the scales. Finally, statistic summaries broken down by groups are presented at the conclusion of this chapter.

Data Cleaning and Manipulation Checks

The data collection process, conducted from March 28th through February 2nd 2018, resulted in a total of 1,274 responses. Although MTurk does not provide information regarding participation rates, it does allow for researchers to monitor completion rates. According to the completion rate provided by MTurk, 94% of all participants who started the survey completed the survey. Among the 1,197 participants who completed the study, 54 respondents did so in less than four minutes and were thus screened out from the data analysis. None of respondents who completed the survey were screened out due to the study's sampling criterion, previously defined as the following: U.S. citizens, aged 18 or over, having indicated experiencing a service failure

in the context of restaurants in the past two years. Thus, 1,143 completed surveys were retained for further data analysis.

After the initial battery of questions, respondents were asked to read a short story and imagine that they were the main character. The context of the story, a story involving a service failure and recovery attempt, was based on the respondent's answer to a previous question regarding his or her favorite casual restaurant chain. For example, respondents' who responded that the *Olive Garden* was their favorite casual dining restaurant chain were asked to read a story where they experienced a service failure (and service recovery) while dining at the *Olive Garden*. In order to ensure the effectiveness of the eight hypothetical scenarios, participants were asked five questions which served as this study's manipulation checks. After reading the story, participants were first asked the following: "Based on the story you have just read, do you find this story to be realistic?" Given the choice to select "Yes" or "No", only those respondents who found the story to be realistic were retained for further data analysis. A total of 198 respondents failed this manipulation check.

Participants were then asked to rate the severity of the service failure described in the story on a scale from 1 to 7 (with 1 being not at all severe and 7 being very severe). For all participants randomly assigned to one of the four "High Severity" scenarios, the service failure described in the hypothetical story was depicted as a piece of glass found on his or her plate. Any participant who rated the service failure severity as a 5 or lower was deleted. Conversely, participants randomly assigned to one of the four "Low Severity" scenarios were given a scenario in which the participant's steak was

overcooked. Participants who rated the service failure as a 6 or 7 (very severe) were deleted from the study. Thus, all 136 respondents who failed this manipulation check were deleted from the study.

The next three manipulation checks were based on an omission of justice. Participants were asked to describe the compensation offered in the story. For all participants randomly assigned to the “DJ omitted” scenario, no compensation was provided in the story. Thus, all participants assigned to the “DJ omitted” scenario who selected “a free meal” or “a free meal and the option of a free dessert” (as opposed to indicating “None”) were deleted. All other participants were provided a story in which compensation was offered. Participants not randomly assigned to the “DJ omitted” scenario were deleted if they failed to recognize that compensation for the service failure was offered. In total, 13 respondents failed the distributive justice manipulation check, and were thus deleted from the study.

Participants were also asked to recall if the server in the story apologized. Participants randomly assigned to the “IJ omitted” scenario should have indicated that no apology was provided. Thus, any participant randomly assigned to the “IJ omitted scenario” who failed to select “No” when asked if the server apologized was deleted. Conversely, participants who were not randomly assigned to the “IJ omitted” scenario were deleted if they failed to choose “Yes” when asked the same question. In total, 42 respondents failed the interactional justice manipulation check and were thus deleted from this study.

Finally, participants were asked to recall how long it took to have his or her meal replaced in the story. Participants randomly assigned to the “PJ omitted” scenario should have indicated that the replacement meal took more than fifteen minutes. Any participant randomly assigned to the “PJ omitted” scenario that incorrectly recalled that the meal was replaced in less than fifteen minutes was deleted. All participants not randomly assigned to the “PJ omitted” scenario who indicated that replacement of the meal took more than fifteen minutes were also deleted. The 51 respondents who failed the procedural justice manipulation check were deleted from this study. Participants who failed any of the five manipulation checks were deleted from the study. Thus, a total of 440 persons were deleted and 703 responses were included in the final analysis (see Table 5.1). The final numbers of valid responses for each scenario are provided below (see Table 5.2).

Table 5.1: Results of Manipulation Checks

	Pass		Fail	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
Realistic Scenario	756	55%	198	45%
Service Failure Severity	802	69%	136	31%
Distribute Justice Omitted	1018	97%	13	3%
Interactional Justice Omitted	944	90%	42	10%
Procedural Justice Omitted	916	88%	51	12%
All Manipulations	703	62%	440	38%

Table 5.2: Valid Responses by Conditions (Severity and Justice Dimension) after Manipulation Checks

	Baseline	DJ omitted	IJ omitted	PJ omitted	
High Severity	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	“High Severity” Total
	115	84	69	89	357
Low Severity	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	“Low Severity” Total
	85	103	73	85	346
Total	200	187	142	174	703

Description of the Sample

Profile of Respondents: Demographics

Upon conducting manipulation checks, a total of 703 valid responses were included in the final analysis. Of the resultant sample, the majority was female (58.3%). Although the age of respondents ranged from 18 to 81, the average age of respondents was 38.5 (sd=12.1). The vast majority of respondents had at least four years of college education (89.6%). Finally, the annual income of respondents was found to be fairly evenly distributed, with the median income range being reported in the \$40,000 to \$49,999 annual income range. A detailed summary of the sample demographic information is provided below (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Participant Demographic Characteristics

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	293	41.7%
	Female	410	58.3%
Age Mean=38.5 Median=36 SD=12.1	Under 20	12	1.7%
	20-29	163	23.2%
	30-39	253	36.0%
	40-49	137	19.5%
	50-59	88	12.5%
	60-69	43	6.1%
	70+	7	0.6%
Education (Years Completed)	High School	73	10.4%
	College (4 years)	472	67.1%
	College (4+ years)	158	22.5%
Annual Income	Under \$25,000	133	18.9%
	\$25,000-\$39,999	89	12.7%
	\$40,000-\$49,999	107	15.2%
	\$50,000-\$74,999	136	19.3%
	\$75,000-\$99,999	115	16.4%
	\$100,000 or more	123	17.5%

Characteristics of Culinary and Non-culinary Travelers

One of this study's objectives was to better understand the differences between culinary and non-culinary travelers in the context of restaurant service recovery. Thus, respondents were asked to respond to four statements intended to examine culinary

travel. The four statements include the following: I consider myself to be knowledgeable about food and drink, I travel to enjoy memorable eating and drinking experiences, I learn about local food and drink when I visit a destination, and I believe my eating and drinking experiences help me to understand the local culture when I travel.

Respondents were asked to rate each of the four statements on a scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The responses were then combined as per the recommendations of the “culinary scale” created by Stone & Migacz (2016). The range of potential scores for each respondent was 4 to 28 (as each of the four questions were to be rated on a scale from 1 to 7). The individual respondent scores were then combined to calculate a mean score. In order to approximate culinary from non-culinary restaurant respondents, the frequencies of these scores were then calculated.

It was determined that the median of the scores, 21, would serve as the cutoff between culinary and non-culinary respondents. In other words, respondents with an overall culinary traveler scale score of 22 or higher ($\text{mean} \geq 5.5$) were deemed culinary travelers. Respondents with an overall culinary travel scale score of 20 or lower ($\text{mean} \geq 4$) were identified as non-culinary travelers. Thus, 57 respondents were deleted from data analysis associated with examining culinary and non-culinary respondents. A summary of culinary and non-culinary travelers per service recovery scenario, including the deleted responses, is provided in the table below (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Valid Responses of Culinary and Non-culinary Travelers (by Severity and Justice)

	Baseline	DJ Omitted	IJ Omitted	PJ Omitted	
High Severity	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4	“High Severity” Total
Total Responses	115	84	69	89	357
Culinary Traveler	67	41	37	40	185
Non-culinary Traveler	41	40	23	42	146
Deleted Responses	7	3	9	7	26
Total Responses (High Severity)	108	81	60	82	331
Low Severity	Scenario 5	Scenario 6	Scenario 7	Scenario 8	“Low Severity” Total
Total Responses	85	103	73	85	346
Culinary Traveler	31	52	35	40	158
Non-culinary Traveler	46	44	31	36	157
Deleted Responses	8	7	7	9	31
Total Responses (Low Severity)	77	96	66	76	315
Total Responses: Both Severity Types	185	177	126	158	646

In comparing the demographic data between culinary and non-culinary travelers, the differences among groups appeared negligible. For example, the gender breakdown among culinary travelers was 43.7% males and 57.3% females, compared to 41.2% (males) and 58.8% (females) for non-culinary travelers. Also, the most common age (30-39) and education level (college four years) reported were the same for both culinary and non-culinary traveler groups. However, some differences do exist. With regard to

age, 17.3% of culinary travelers reported to be within the age of 50-59, compared to 10.3% of non-culinary travelers who reported to be within the age 50-59. In addition, a higher percentage of culinary travelers reported both lower annual income under \$25,000 (15.6% compared to 20.5% of non-culinary travelers) and higher annual income \$100,000 and over (20.9% compared to 15.9% of non-culinary travelers). Profiles for culinary and non-culinary travelers are provided below (see Table 5.5).

Table 5.5: Participant Profile by Culinary Travel Type

Category	Culinary Traveler		Non-culinary Traveler	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
GENDER				
Male	96	43.7%	197	41.2%
Female	129	57.3%	281	58.8%
AGE				
Under 20	2	1.0%	10	2.1%
20-29	44	19.6%	119	24.9%
30-39	79	35.1%	174	36.4%
40-49	48	21.3%	89	18.6%
50-59	39	17.3%	49	10.3%
60-69	13	5.8%	30	6.35%
70+	0	NA	7	1.5%
EDUCATION				
High School	22	9.8%	51	10.7%
College (4 years)	152	67.6%	320	66.9%
College (8 years)	51	22.7%	107	22.4%
INCOME				
Under \$25,000	35	15.6%	98	20.5%
\$25,000-\$39,000	29	12.9%	60	12.6%
\$40,000-\$49,999	35	15.6%	72	15.1%
\$50,000-\$74,999	45	20.0%	91	19.0%
\$75,000-\$99,999	34	15.1%	81	16.9%
\$100,000 or more	47	20.9%	76	15.9%

A chi-square test of independence was conducted for each of the four demographic variables between culinary and non-culinary travelers. Due to cell sizes less than 5, categories for “Age” were combined (respondents under 20 were combined with respondents age 20-29, and respondents 70+ were combined with respondents 60-69). No statistically significant difference was found among culinary and non-culinary travelers with regard to gender, age, education, or annual income (see Table 5.6).

Table 5.6: Chi-Square Tests for Culinary and Non-culinary Travelers

	Chi-square test of independence	Statistical Significance Results
Gender	$\chi^2(1) = .498, p = .480$	No statistical significance
Age	$\chi^2(4) = 4.02, p = .562$	No statistical significance
Education	$\chi^2(2) = 16.438, p = .126$	No statistical significance
Income	$\chi^2(5) = 11.038, p = .137$	No statistical significance

Characteristics of Respondents Based on High and Low Severity Scenarios

The level of severity of the service failure described in the hypothetical story was manipulated in one of two ways. For those respondents who were randomly selected to the “high severity” group, the service failure in the story was depicted as a piece of glass in his or her plate. Respondents who were randomly selected to the “low severity” group were asked to imagine that their steak was overcooked.

With the exception of gender, there are few differences among high severity and low severity participants. While high severity participants are mostly female (57.1%), low severity participants are mostly male (59.5%). High severity participants are comparably older; slightly more educated, and reported to be slightly wealthier at the highest income distribution level. A summary of the participant profile via service failure severity is provided below (see Table 5.7).

Table 5.7: Participant Profile by Severity Type

Categories	High Severity (N=357) Frequency	Percentage	Low Severity (N=346) Frequency	Percentage
GENDER				
Male	153	42.9%	206	59.5%
Female	204	57.1%	140	40.5%
AGE				
Under 20	2	.6%	10	2.9%
20-29	79	22.1%	84	24.3%
30-39	122	34.2%	131	37.9%
40-49	75	21.0%	62	17.9%
50-59	51	14.3%	37	10.7%
60-69	24	6.7%	19	5.4%
70+	4	1.1%	3	.9%
EDUCATION				
High School	35	9.8%	38	10.9%
College (4 years)	239	66.9%	233	67.3%
College (8 years)	83	23.2%	75	21.7%
INCOME				
Under \$25,000	62	17.4%	71	20.5%
\$25,000-\$39,000	54	15.1%	35	10.1%
\$40,000-\$49,999	52	14.6%	55	15.9%
\$50,000-\$74,999	69	19.3%	67	19.4%
\$75,000-\$99,999	51	14.3%	64	18.5%
\$100,000 or more	69	19.3%	54	15.6%

A chi-square test of independence was conducted between gender and severity (see Table 5.8). No statistical association was found, suggesting that there was no statistically significant difference in the breakdown of gender between high severity and low severity groups. Similarly, chi-square tests conducted between age and severity,

education and severity, and income and severity resulted in no statistically significant difference.

Table 5.8: Chi-Square Tests for High and Low Severity

	Chi-square test of independence	Statistical Significance Results
Gender	$\chi^2(1) = .415, p = .520$	No statistical significance
Age	$\chi^2(4) = 4.34, p = .749$	No statistical significance
Education	$\chi^2(2) = 6.112, p = .866$	No statistical significance
Income	$\chi^2(5) = 11.531, p = .117$	No statistical significance

Characteristics of Respondents Based on Scenario

As previously discussed, participants were randomly selected to one of eight possible scenarios, differentiated by severity (high and low) and justice. Service recovery justice was manipulated in each scenario by either omitting one of the three justice dimensions or providing a service recovery scenario in which all three justice dimensions were provided to the participant. Table 5.9 and Table 5.10 summarize the profiles of participants by scenario, providing for comparisons between participant profiles different only by the level of service recovery severity. Thus, the participant profiles for scenario 1 (high severity baseline) is displayed alongside the participant

profile for scenario 5 (low severity baseline). Chi-square tests were not conducted, as it was determined that they would be redundant. The side by side comparisons of participant profiles (via scenario type) suggest that gender, age, income, education, and culinary travel type descriptives to be similarly distributed among all scenario types.

Table 5.9: Participant Profile for Baseline and DJ Omitted Conditions

SCENARIO TYPE	Baseline Scenario (Scenario 1)	Baseline Scenario (Scenario 5)	DJ Omitted (Scenario 2)	DJ Omitted (Scenario 6)
	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Mean (Standard Deviation)
Gender (1=Male, 2=Female)	1.60 (0.49)	1.55 (0.50)	1.57 (0.50)	1.66 (0.48)
Age	38.77 (12.52)	36.61 (11.25)	38.62 (11.52)	39.08 (11.79)
Income (1=under \$25,000; 2=\$25,000-\$39,999; 3=\$40,000-\$49,999; 4=\$50,000-\$74,999; 5=\$75,000-\$99,999)	3.70 (2.06)	3.66 (1.94)	3.66 (2.05)	3.52 (1.93)
Education (9-11=some college; 12=college graduate; 12+=graduate school)	11.42 (2.15)	11.61 (2.34)	11.68 (2.12)	11.37 (2.05)
N	115	85	84	103
Culinary Traveler (1=Non-culinary Traveler, 2=Culinary Traveler)	1.62 (0.49)	1.40 (0.49)	1.51 (0.50)	1.54 (0.50)
N	108	77	81	96

Table 5.10: Participant Profile for IJ Omitted and PJ Omitted Conditions

	IJ Omitted (Scenario 3)	IJ Omitted (Scenario 7)	PJ Omitted (Scenario 4)	PJ Omitted (Scenario 8)
	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Mean (Standard Deviation)	Mean (Standard Deviation)
Gender (1=Male, 2=Female)	1.64 (0.48)	1.55 (0.50)	1.48 (0.50)	1.60 (0.49)
Age	41.45 (13.62)	38.56 (13.00)	39.93 (11.83)	35.41 (11.18)
Income (1=under \$25,000; 2=\$25,000-\$39,999; 3=\$40,000-\$49,999; 4=\$50,000-\$74,999; 5=\$75,000-\$99,999)	3.80 (2.03)	3.62 (1.95)	3.72 (1.88)	3.81 (2.03)
Education (9-11=some college; 12=college graduate; 12+=graduate school)	11.61 (2.39)	11.85 (2.55)	11.52 (2.48)	11.31 (2.18)
N	69	73	89	85
Culinary Traveler (1=Non-culinary Traveler, 2=Culinary Traveler)	1.62 (0.49)	1.53 (0.50)	1.49 (0.50)	1.53 (0.50)
N	60	66	82	76

Preliminary Data Analysis

A total of eight constructs were measured in this study (i.e., culinary traveler, overall satisfaction, recovery satisfaction, repurchase intentions, positive WOM, negative WOM, trust, and commitment). All of the constructs were treated as Likert-type scales ranging from 1 to 7, with the following exceptions: overall satisfaction was examined using a semantic differential scale (ranging from 1 to 7) and repurchase

intentions was examined using a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. As all of the scales incorporated into this study were adopted (with minimal modifications) from existing scales, the validity of the scales was presumed to be, at least partially established. After reversing one item of the recovery satisfaction construct (“I am not satisfied with how the restaurant handled my problem), preliminary data analysis was conducted to examine the internal consistency of each measurement scale. Finally, summary statistics analysis was performed, examining the constructs overall as well as separately for each group (severity type, culinary travel type, and scenario type).

Summary Statistics Overall

Response items for each measure were grouped together and summarized. The summary statistic table provides a brief description of each item (in bold), along with their corresponding mean, standard deviation, and standard error. In addition, the items of each construct were then summed together to create an “average” construct variable. Results of the overall summary statistics confirmed the anticipated range of the mean scores for all of the items and scales. In addition, the standard error for each statement and scale was found to be less than 0.29.

In order to examine the distribution of the data with regards to normality, a Shapiro-Wilk test was performed on the data. Tests of normality revealed that the data was significantly not normal ($< .001$). However, the decision to use parametric tests to further analyze the data was based on several factors: First, it has been reported that the violation of the normality distribution is a frequent occurrence when sample sizes are

large (Pallant, 2011). As previously reported, the sample size for this study exceeds 700. Second, the “shape” of the data, based on skewness (symmetry) and kurtosis (pointiness) revealed only a slight deviation from normality ($< \pm 2$). Third, there was no missing data. Although outliers were present in the data, they were not deleted in order to preserve the data’s authenticity.

Chronbach’s alpha coefficient was used to determine the reliability of each of the eight measurement scales. In terms of scale reliability, all of the scales reported high coefficient alphas above 0.8 (ranging from 0.851 to 0.967), with the exception of the three-item recovery satisfaction scale. The chronbach’s alpha coefficient for recovery satisfaction was 0.650, missing the 0.7 cutoff widely used as the benchmark for internal consistency (Field, 2009). However, it was determined that deleting any one of the three items would negatively impact the reliability of the scale, and thus the recovery satisfaction scale was left intact. The statistics summary is provided below (see Table 5.11).

Table 5.11: Summary Statistics (Overall)

	Mean	SD	SE	Skewness	Kurtosis	Shapiro-Wilk	Chronbach's α
Culinary Traveler							.851
I consider myself knowledgeable...	5.33	1.18	.04	-.58	.45	.909***	
I enjoy memorable eating...	4.95	1.62	.06	-.67	-.23	.911***	
I learn about local food...	5.30	1.46	.06	-.81	.20	.892***	
I believe my eating and drinking...	5.33	1.41	.05	-.85	.39	.891***	
Culinary Traveler AVG	5.23	1.46	.06	-.63	.13	.953***	
Overall Satisfaction							.942
Bad: Good	4.74	1.77	.07	-.48	-.69	.917***	
Not interesting: Interesting	4.67	1.55	.06	-.41	-.19	.929***	
Negative: Positive	4.58	1.84	.07	-.34	-.94	.921***	
Unpleasurable: Pleasurable	4.39	1.80	.07	-.25	-.84	.933***	
Unsuccessful: Successful	4.69	1.74	.07	-.46	-.62	.923***	
Overall Satisfaction AVG	4.61	1.57	.06	-.31	-.67	.967***	
Recovery Satisfaction							.650
Satisfied...resolved	5.34	1.71	.06	-.99	.036	.845***	
Not satisfied...handled	4.82	2.15	.08	.57	-1.16	.841***	
Favorable solution	5.27	1.82	.07	-.93	-.22	.840***	
Recovery Satisfaction AVG	5.14	1.46	.06	-.45	-.52	.939***	
Repurchase Intentions							.967
Probability of returning	3.57	1.26	.05	-.64	-.57	.868***	
Likelihood of returning	3.57	1.30	.05	-.65	-.65	.861***	
Repurchase Intentions AVG	3.57	1.26	.05	-.64	-.60	.882***	
Positive WOM							.951
Positive Reviews	3.81	2.07	.08	.02	-1.30	.903***	
Encourage others	3.67	2.05	.08	.11	-1.30	.902***	
Recommend to friends	4.20	2.10	.08	-.23	-1.25	.899***	
Positive WOM AVG	3.89	1.97	.07	-.02	-1.21	.931***	
Negative WOM							.863
Tell friends not to...	2.89	1.90	.07	.69	-.75	.857***	
Complain to friends	2.94	1.95	.07	.64	-.89	.854***	
Negative Reviews	2.23	1.64	.06	1.38	1.06	.758***	
Negative WOM AVG	2.69	1.63	.06	.78	-.24	.889***	
Trust							.945
Keeps promises	5.10	1.41	.05	-.66	.11	.915***	
Responds to needs	5.18	1.45	.05	-.79	.32	.902***	
Great trust	4.80	1.65	.06	-.57	-.38	.920***	
Trust AVG	5.03	1.43	.05	-.62	-.01	.945***	
Commitment							.926
Emotionally attached	3.43	1.93	.07	.26	-1.14	.909***	
Obligated	2.78	1.80	.07	.76	-.53	.859***	
Hard to find replacement	3.55	1.97	.07	.17	-1.21	.910***	
Committed	3.44	1.91	.07	.22	-1.13	.911***	
Commitment Avg	3.30	1.72	.06	.31	-.92	.944***	

Note: *** $p < .001$

Summary Statistics by Severity Type

Summary Statistics (means, standard deviations, and standard errors) were then broken down by the severity of the service failure (high and low) and are provided below (see Table 5.12). Based on prior research, it was assumed that the participants randomly selected to the high severity group would rate the service recovery attempt less favorably than those participants randomly selected to the low severity group. As expected, the constructs “overall satisfaction”, “recovery satisfaction”, “repurchase intentions”, “positive WOM”, “trust”, and “commitment” were higher among the low severity group. Similarly, “negative WOM” was found to be higher for the high severity group.

Table 5.12: Summary Statistics by Severity Type

	High Severity	N=357		Low Severity	N=346	
	Mean	SE	SD	Mean	SE	SD
Bad:Good	4.13	.10	1.95	5.36	.07	1.31
Not Interesting: Interesting	4.48	.09	1.67	4.85	.08	1.40
Negative: Positive	3.96	.10	1.95	5.22	.08	1.46
Unpleasurable: Pleasurable	3.78	.10	1.91	5.02	.08	1.44
Unsuccessful: Successful	4.19	.10	1.88	5.20	.08	1.41
Mean-Overall Satisfaction	4.11	.09	1.68	5.13	.07	1.26
Satisfied...resolved	4.89	.10	1.91	5.81	.07	1.33
Not satisfied...handled	4.17	.12	2.23	5.50	.10	1.83
Favorable solution	4.82	.11	2.02	5.74	.08	1.44
Mean-Recovery Satisfaction	4.62	.07	1.37	5.68	.07	1.35
Probability return	3.07	.07	1.34	4.08	.05	.926
Likelihood returning	3.05	.07	1.39	4.12	.05	.932
Mean-Repurchase Intention	3.06	.07	1.34	4.10	.05	.911
Positive reviews-social media	3.07	.10	1.94	4.57	.10	1.92
Encourage others-social media	3.05	.10	1.94	4.31	.11	1.97
Recommend to friends	3.38	.11	2.08	5.03	.09	1.72
AVG-Positive WOM	3.16	.10	1.91	4.64	.09	1.75

Table 5.12 Continued

	High Severity			Low Severity		
	N=357			N=346		
	Mean	SE	SD	Mean	SE	SD
Tell friends not to repatronage	3.40	.10	1.96	2.35	.09	1.68
Complain to friends	3.67	.11	2.05	2.19	.08	1.51
Negative review	2.68	.10	1.80	1.77	.07	1.31
AVG-Negative WOM	3.25	.09	1.72	2.10	.07	1.29
Keeps promises	4.85	.08	1.55	5.37	.06	1.19
Responds to needs	4.93	.08	1.60	5.45	.07	1.22
Great trust	4.48	.09	1.79	5.13	.08	1.41
AVG-Trust	4.75	.08	1.58	5.32	.06	1.19
Emotionally attached	3.21	.10	1.89	3.66	.10	1.94
Obligated	2.58	.09	1.74	2.98	.10	1.84
Hard to find replacement	3.31	.10	1.96	3.80	.10	1.94
Committed	3.19	.10	1.90	3.70	.10	1.90
AVG-Commitment	3.07	.09	1.70	3.53	.09	1.72

Summary Statistics by Culinary Travel Type

Summary Statistics (means, standard deviations, and standard errors) were then broken down by culinary travel type (culinary traveler and non-culinary traveler) and are provided below (see Table 5.13). As discussed previously, categorizing culinary and non-culinary travelers was based on the “culinary scale” score created by Stone and Migacz (2016). It was determined that respondents with an overall culinary traveler scale score of 22 or higher were categorized as culinary travelers and respondents with an overall culinary traveler scale score of 20 or lower were categorized as non-culinary travelers. Although the mean differences for all of the scales were small, it was found that the mean scores of non-culinary participants were higher for overall satisfaction, recovery satisfaction, and repurchase intentions compared to culinary travelers. In addition, negative WOM intentions were lower for non-culinary travelers. The means

for the variables trust and commitment, however, were found to be (slightly) higher for culinary travelers ($M_{AVG\ Trust} = 5.15, SD = .08, M_{AVG\ Commitment} = 3.40, SD = .10$) compared to non-culinary travelers ($M_{AVG\ Trust} = 4.89, SD = .08, M_{AVG\ Commitment} = 3.8, SD = .09$).

Table 5.13: Summary Statistics by Culinary Travel Type

	Culinary Travelers N=343			Non-culinary Travelers N=303		
	Mean	SE	SD	Mean	SE	SD
Bad:Good	4.59	.10	1.88	4.92	.09	1.65
Not Interesting: Interesting	4.57	.09	1.67	4.79	.08	1.44
Negative: Positive	4.46	.10	1.88	4.74	.10	1.81
Unpleasurable: Pleasurable	4.24	.10	1.85	4.55	.10	1.77
Unsuccessful: Successful	4.61	.10	1.83	4.79	.10	1.69
Mean-Overall Satisfaction	4.49	.09	1.66	4.76	.09	1.49
Satisfied...resolved	5.30	.10	1.78	5.34	.10	1.72
Not satisfied...handled	4.73	.12	2.22	4.88	.12	2.12
Favorable solution	5.16	.10	1.92	5.36	.10	1.75
Mean-Recovery Satisfaction	5.06	.08	1.52	5.20	.08	1.44
Probability return	3.50	.07	1.32	3.59	.07	1.22
Likelihood returning	3.53	.07	1.36	3.60	.07	1.27
Mean-Repurchase Intention	3.52	.07	1.32	3.60	.07	1.23
Positive reviews-social media	3.80	.11	2.17	3.76	.11	1.99
Encourage others-social media	3.68	.12	2.14	3.59	.11	1.98
Recommend to friends	4.16	.12	2.20	4.17	.11	1.99
AVG-Positive WOM	3.88	.11	2.09	3.84	.11	1.88
Tell friends not to repatronage	2.97	.11	2.00	2.80	.10	1.77
Complain to friends	2.98	.11	1.99	2.94	.11	1.94
Negative review	2.28	.09	1.75	2.17	.09	1.55
AVG-Negative WOM	2.74	.09	1.71	2.63	.09	1.55
Keeps promises	5.26	.08	1.42	4.93	.08	1.41
Responds to needs	5.28	.08	1.46	5.08	.08	1.46
Great trust	4.91	.09	1.67	4.65	.09	1.65
AVG-Trust	5.15	.08	1.45	4.89	.08	1.43
Emotionally attached	3.55	.11	1.98	3.18	.11	1.85
Obligated	2.93	.11	1.94	2.52	.09	1.60
Hard to find replacement	3.60	.11	2.07	3.39	.11	1.86
Committed	3.53	.11	1.98	3.24	.11	1.84
AVG-Commitment	3.40	.10	1.82	3.08	.09	1.60

Summary Statistics by Scenario

Finally, summary statistics were broken down by scenario. As participants were randomly selected to one of two service failure scenarios (high and low), they were further broken down by one of four scenarios (baseline, distributive justice omitted, interactional justice omitted, and procedural justice omitted). Thus, the summary statistics by scenario provides for a comparison between high and low severity of the same scenario. As expected, the mean scores for scenario 5 (low severity: baseline) were highest for overall satisfaction, recovery satisfaction, repurchase intentions, positive WOM, trust, and commitment. Also, the mean score for negative WOM was lowest among participants selected to scenario 5. Surprisingly, the lowest mean score for overall satisfaction among all scenarios belonged to scenario 1 (high severity: baseline). This means that those respondents who suffered a severe service failure (a piece of glass on his or her plate) and were provided distributive, interactional, and procedural justice were least satisfied (overall) with the service recovery. This would suggest that service failure severity plays a critical role in the overall satisfaction of restaurant patrons.

Compared to scenario 5 ($M_{AVG} \text{ Overall Satisfaction} = 5.97, SD = 1.05$), the mean score for overall satisfaction among the participants of scenario 1 was quite small ($M_{AVG} \text{ Overall Satisfaction} = 3.09, SD = 1.22$).

Of all of the scenarios, the mean score for recovery satisfaction, repurchase intentions, positive WOM, trust, and commitment was lowest among participants of

scenario 2 (high severity: distributive justice omitted). Participants of scenario 2 were also found to have the highest negative WOM mean ($M_{AVG \text{ Negative WOM}} = 3.94, SD = 1.55$), suggesting that those participants would be the most likely to share their negative experience with others. Interestingly, the overall satisfaction mean among participants of scenario 2 ($M_{AVG \text{ Overall Satisfaction}} = 5.70, SD = 1.24$) ranked second only to scenario 5 ($M_{AVG \text{ Overall Satisfaction}} = 5.97, SD = 1.05$). In addition, the means for repurchase intentions, positive WOM, trust, and commitment were second-highest among participants of scenario 7 (low severity: interactional justice omitted). The summary statistics of each justice dimension, with both high and low scenario (blank) presented alongside the average of scenario (blank) are provided below (see Table 5.14 – Table 5.17).

Table 5.14: Baseline Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity)

Variables	Baseline AVG N = 200		Scenario 1 (High Severity) N = 115		Scenario 5 (Low Severity) N = 85	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Bad:Good	4.28	2.03	2.92	1.41	6.11	1.10
Not Interesting: Interesting	4.61	1.69	3.89	1.66	5.59	1.17
Negative: Positive	4.24	2.09	2.85	1.43	6.12	1.17
Unpleasurable: Pleasurable	4.07	2.10	2.69	1.41	5.94	1.27
Unsuccessful: Successful	4.37	2.01	3.09	1.50	6.09	1.14
Mean-Overall Satisfaction	4.31	1.83	3.09	1.22	5.97	1.05
Satisfied...resolved	6.29	1.03	6.12	1.14	6.51	.81
Not satisfied...handled	4.13	2.58	2.75	2.14	6.00	1.85
Favorable solution	6.20	1.14	6.00	1.31	6.46	.78
Mean-Recovery Satisfaction	5.54	1.13	4.96	.90	6.32	.92
Probability return	4.06	1.12	3.70	1.27	4.54	.61
Likelihood returning	4.07	1.16	3.72	1.30	4.54	.70
Mean-Repurchase Intention	4.06	1.11	3.71	1.25	4.54	.63
Positive reviews-social media	4.55	1.98	3.90	1.97	5.42	1.63
Encourage others-social media	4.44	2.03	3.83	2.01	5.26	1.75
Recommend to friends	5.11	1.88	4.43	2.07	6.02	1.03
AVG-Positive WOM	4.70	1.85	4.05	1.91	5.57	1.33
Tell friends not to repatronage	2.75	1.98	3.03	1.95	2.36	1.97
Complain to friends	2.39	1.81	2.83	1.93	1.80	1.44
Negative review	1.95	1.53	2.20	1.62	1.61	1.32
AVG-Negative WOM	2.36	1.56	2.68	1.64	1.93	1.35
Keeps promises	5.64	1.21	5.56	1.29	5.74	1.10
Responds to needs	5.72	1.19	5.68	1.24	5.78	1.13
Great trust	5.28	1.58	5.10	1.72	5.52	1.33
AVG-Trust	5.54	1.24	5.44	1.32	5.68	1.10
Emotionally attached	3.95	2.01	3.70	2.06	4.28	1.91
Obligated	3.18	1.93	2.90	1.89	3.54	1.94
Hard to find replacement	3.95	1.97	3.73	1.99	4.24	1.90
Committed	3.87	1.96	3.61	2.04	4.22	1.80
AVG-Commitment	2.89	1.79	3.49	1.82	4.07	1.70

Table 5.15: Distributive Justice Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity)

Variables	DJ Omitted AVG N = 187		Scenario 2 (High Severity) N = 84		Scenario 6 (Low Severity) N = 103	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Bad:Good	5.35	1.22	6.02	.94	4.80	1.15
Not Interesting: Interesting	4.81	1.42	5.40	1.27	4.32	1.36
Negative: Positive	5.02	1.50	5.71	1.37	4.45	1.36
Unpleasurable: Pleasurable	4.87	1.42	5.50	1.31	4.36	1.29
Unsuccessful: Successful	5.07	1.46	5.83	1.18	4.46	1.38
Mean-Overall Satisfaction	5.02	1.24	5.70	1.02	4.48	1.12
Satisfied...resolved	3.89	1.83	2.75	1.46	4.83	1.56
Not satisfied...handled	4.89	1.84	5.14	1.76	4.68	1.89
Favorable solution	3.70	1.82	2.64	1.46	4.56	1.62
Mean-Recovery Satisfaction	4.16	1.37	3.51	.73	4.69	1.54
Probability return	3.05	1.24	2.30	1.11	3.67	.97
Likelihood returning	3.07	1.28	2.23	1.13	3.77	.92
Mean-Repurchase Intention	3.06	1.24	2.26	1.10	3.72	.93
Positive reviews-social media	2.91	1.88	1.98	1.35	3.68	1.91
Encourage others-social media	2.76	1.81	2.01	1.39	3.38	1.88
Recommend to friends	3.21	1.91	2.18	1.49	4.06	1.80
AVG-Positive WOM	2.96	1.79	2.06	1.35	3.70	1.76
Tell friends not to repatronage	3.09	1.79	3.90	1.83	2.42	1.45
Complain to friends	3.45	1.97	4.58	1.78	2.53	1.60
Negative review	2.57	1.80	3.32	1.96	1.95	1.40
AVG-Negative WOM	3.04	1.61	3.94	1.55	2.30	1.26
Keeps promises	4.45	1.54	3.79	1.68	5.00	1.15
Responds to needs	4.49	1.64	3.75	1.78	5.10	1.23
Great trust	4.22	1.71	3.57	1.86	4.76	1.38
AVG-Trust	4.39	1.58	3.70	1.73	4.95	1.18
Emotionally attached	2.89	1.77	2.67	1.60	3.07	1.88
Obligated	2.40	1.59	2.20	1.40	2.57	1.71
Hard to find replacement	3.21	1.95	2.93	1.87	3.44	2.00
Committed	3.06	1.85	2.73	1.65	3.34	1.95
AVG-Commitment	2.89	1.61	2.63	1.45	3.10	1.71

Table 5.16: Interactional Justice Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity)

Variables	IJ Omitted AVG N = 142		Scenario 3 (High Severity) N = 69		Scenario 7 (Low Severity) N = 73	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Bad:Good	5.34	1.49	4.64	1.56	6.00	1.05
Not Interesting: Interesting	4.83	1.41	4.61	1.44	5.04	1.37
Negative: Positive	5.13	1.56	4.45	1.57	5.77	1.25
Unpleasurable: Pleasurable	4.89	1.51	4.23	1.52	5.52	1.20
Unsuccessful: Successful	5.19	1.36	4.64	1.41	5.71	1.09
Mean-Overall Satisfaction	5.08	1.27	4.51	1.30	5.61	.99
Satisfied...resolved	5.78	1.36	5.38	1.50	6.16	1.09
Not satisfied...handled	5.26	2.00	4.78	2.11	5.71	1.78
Favorable solution	5.87	1.46	5.40	1.71	6.32	1.00
Mean-Recovery Satisfaction	5.64	1.35	5.19	1.48	6.06	1.05
Probability return	3.77	1.16	3.20	1.22	4.32	.80
Likelihood returning	3.80	1.19	3.23	1.26	4.33	.82
Mean-Repurchase Intention	3.79	1.16	3.22	1.23	4.32	.77
Positive reviews-social media	4.17	2.0	3.22	1.79	5.07	1.77
Encourage others-social media	3.94	1.96	3.16	1.83	4.67	1.81
Recommend to friends	4.53	2.00	3.45	1.94	5.55	1.45
AVG-Positive WOM	4.21	1.86	3.28	1.77	5.10	1.48
Tell friends not to repatronage	2.63	1.87	3.04	1.95	2.25	1.72
Complain to friends	2.70	1.87	3.43	2.07	2.00	1.34
Negative review	2.08	1.44	2.41	1.48	1.77	1.34
AVG-Negative WOM	2.47	1.59	2.96	1.70	2.00	1.32
Keeps promises	5.19	1.34	4.91	1.36	5.45	1.27
Responds to needs	5.32	1.32	5.06	1.33	5.58	1.28
Great trust	4.92	1.50	4.57	1.55	5.25	1.38
AVG-Trust	5.14	1.30	4.85	1.33	5.42	1.21
Emotionally attached	3.63	1.90	3.19	1.72	4.04	1.99
Obligated	2.81	1.81	2.36	3.23	.23	1.93
Hard to find replacement	3.70	1.95	3.35	4.03	.23	1.97
Committed	3.51	1.87	3.19	3.81	.22	1.05
AVG-Commitment	3.41	1.66	3.49	3.78	.20	1.37

Table 5.17: Procedural Justice Summary Statistics (High and Low Severity)

Variables	PJ Omitted AVG N = 174		Scenario 4 (High Severity) N = 89		Scenario 8 (Low Severity) N = 85	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Bad:Good	4.13	1.80	3.53	2.05	4.75	1.24
Not Interesting: Interesting	4.44	1.60	4.29	1.82	4.60	1.34
Negative: Positive	4.06	1.86	3.35	2.01	4.80	1.36
Unpleasurable: Pleasurable	3.83	1.80	3.20	1.97	4.48	1.32
Unsuccessful: Successful	4.24	1.76	3.73	1.98	4.76	1.30
Mean-Overall Satisfaction	4.14	1.58	3.62	1.75	4.68	1.17
Satisfied...resolved	5.46	1.45	4.94	1.67	6.00	1.00
Not satisfied...handled	5.18	1.82	4.60	1.98	5.80	1.42
Favorable solution	5.40	1.61	4.89	1.81	5.94	1.15
Mean-Recovery Satisfaction	5.35	1.48	4.81	1.66	5.91	1.00
Probability return	3.40	1.28	2.90	1.32	3.92	1.00
Likelihood returning	3.36	1.34	2.81	1.36	3.94	1.04
Mean-Repurchase Intention	3.38	1.28	2.85	1.31	3.93	1.00
Positive reviews-social media	3.62	2.05	2.91	1.99	4.36	1.84
Encourage others-social media	3.54	2.02	2.92	1.94	4.19	1.90
Recommend to friends	3.92	2.04	3.09	2.01	4.79	1.69
AVG-Positive WOM	3.69	1.97	2.97	1.92	4.45	1.72
Tell friends not to repatronage	3.04	1.92	3.70	1.96	2.35	1.62
Complain to friends	3.22	1.99	4.08	2.00	2.32	1.53
Negative review	2.32	1.68	2.90	1.90	1.71	1.15
AVG-Negative WOM	2.86	1.66	3.56	1.74	2.13	1.22
Keeps promises	5.12	1.25	4.88	1.31	5.38	1.14
Responds to needs	5.19	1.28	4.97	1.39	5.42	1.13
Great trust	4.79	1.59	4.48	1.67	5.11	1.44
AVG-Trust	5.03	1.30	4.78	1.38	5.30	1.16
Emotionally attached	3.26	1.85	3.11	1.90	3.41	1.78
Obligated	2.70	1.77	2.70	1.87	2.71	1.67
Hard to find replacement	3.34	1.91	3.09	1.99	3.61	1.81
Committed	3.29	1.88	3.08	1.91	3.51	1.84
AVG-Commitment	3.15	1.69	3.49	1.78	3.31	1.37

CHAPTER VI

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

This chapter reports the procedures and results related to the testing of the 28 proposed hypotheses. The statistical tests used to test the hypotheses included t-tests, two-way between groups analysis (ANOVAs), one-way ANOVAs, Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations and hierarchical multiple regressions. Results for all statistical procedures are provided in sequential order based on the hypotheses postulated. A summary of the results and the hypotheses (supported/not supported) are included at the end of this chapter.

Study Objective One

The first objective of this study was to better understand, with respect to justice, how the magnitude or severity of a service failure can impact customers' post-recovery evaluations. In order to address the challenges associated with objective one, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- H1a: Post-recovery satisfaction will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.
- H1b: The perception of a lack of distributive justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.
- H1c: The perception of a lack of interactional justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.

- H1d: The perception of a lack of procedural justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.
- H1e: Post-recovery repurchase intentions will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.
- H1f: Post-recovery positive WOM will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.

During the first stage of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to identify their favorite chain restaurant. Respondents were then asked to read an imaginary scenario in which they endure a service failure and subsequent recovery in the restaurant chain they selected to be their favorite. To examine the effect of service failure severity on recovery satisfaction (hypothesis 1a), the three items for the dependent variable “recovery satisfaction” were then summed and averaged, creating a recovery satisfaction mean (see Table 6.1). Each of the three recovery satisfaction items were measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale. The control variable “severity” was already broken into two separate groups (“High” and “Low”).

A one-way, between-subject analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the differences in recovery satisfaction among respondents who experienced a moderate service failure (Low severity) compared to a severe service failure (High Severity). A one-way ANOVA test is a parametric test for comparing the means for three or more groups (Pallant, 2011). Statistically significant results are produced when the significance level is “equal to or less than 0.05 (Pallant, 2011, pg. 254)”.

According to Valeri & VanderWeele (2013), the assumptions associated with performing ANOVAs include the following: the dependent variable is measured at a continuous level; the two independent variables each consist of two or more categorical, independent groups or fixed factors; the observations (participants) of the independent variables are not related; there are no significant outliers in any cell; the distribution of the dependent variable should be, approximately, normally distributed; and the variance of the dependent variance should be equal in every cell design.

Prior to running the one-way between-subject ANOVA, inspection of the boxplot (not shown) revealed that a few outliers exist. However, it was determined that the outliers were not a result of data entry errors or measurement errors. As one-way ANOVA's are considered to be robust to non-normality (Maxwell & Delaney, 2003), the small number of outliers was deemed acceptable. The percentile statistics (PCTL) provided in Table 6.1 indicated that one quarter of the recovery satisfaction scores were equal or less than 4.00, while half of the scores were equal or less than 4.67. The 75.0% percentile was 5.0, indicating that three quarters of the recovery satisfaction scores were equal or less than 5. Although the average scores of the recovery satisfaction were negatively skewed (see Graph 6.1), Normal Q-Q Plots of the recovery satisfaction scores for both "High" and "Low" severity groups indicated the distribution of data to be approximately normal (Field, 2009).

Table 6.1: Summary Statistics for Recovery Satisfaction (AVERecoSAT)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCTL
AveRecoSAT	703	4.60	.047	1.23	-0.466	1.290	4.00	4.67	5.00

Results of the one-way ANOVA indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene’s test for equality of variances ($p \leq .001$). Although ANOVA is considered robust for the violation of the homogeneity assumption (Field, 2009), statistical significance results were also obtained from Welch’s Robust Tests of Equality of Means. The descriptive statistics are provided below (see Table 6.2). Although respondents in the “Low” severity group were more satisfied with the recovery (mean = 4.68) compared to respondents in the “High” severity group (mean = 4.51), the ANOVA results showed no significant difference among the two service failure conditions, Welch’s $F(1, 491.319) = 3.356, p = .068$). Thus, hypothesis 1a was not supported. This suggests that no differences existed in the perception of satisfaction for those who had a moderate service failure versus a severe service failure.

Table 6.2: Descriptive Statistics for Recovery Satisfaction by Severity

	N	Mean	SE	SD	95% Confidence Lower Bound	95% Confidence Upper Bound
High Severity	357	4.51	.084	1.59	4.35	4.68
Low Severity	346	4.68	.037	0.70	4.61	4.76
Total	703	4.60	.047	1.23	4.51	4.69

In order to determine the impact of justice and severity on service recovery satisfaction (h1b, h1c, and h1d), a two-way ANOVA was conducted. According to Pallant (2011), a two-way ANOVA is suitable for testing the “main effects” of two independent variables separately on the dependent variable and the “interaction effects” between two independent variables on the dependent variable.

Regarding preliminary data assumptions, the dependent variable “recovery satisfaction” was measured at a continuous level (each of the three indicators were measured on a 7pt Likert-type scale), and both independent variables consisted of two or more categorical groups (“service failure severity” consisted of two groups while “justice” consisted of four groups). As for independence of observations, MTurk does not allow for respondents to participate in a study multiple times. The maximum

standardized scores (z-scores) were -2.37 and 1.95. As all z scores were within the range of 3 and -3, the assumption of no outliers was satisfied.

In addition, several tests of assumptions were conducted to determine the appropriateness of ANOVA testing. In order to determine the heterogeneity of the population variances, Levene's test for equality of variances was conducted. According to this test, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated ($p \leq .001$). However, due to several factors (including a relatively large samples sizes, an approximately normal distribution of data, and the ratio of largest group variance to smallest group variance was less than 3), it was determined that the two-way ANOVA remained a viable statistical approach (McDonald, Seifert, Lorenzet, Givens, & Jaccard (2002). Results of the descriptive analysis for recovery satisfaction by severity and justice dimension are provided below (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Descriptive Statistics for Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice

Severity	Justice	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
High Severity	Baseline	115	5.79	1.22
	Omission of Distributive Justice	84	2.75	1.37
	Omission of Interactional Justice	69	4.67	0.99
	Omission of Procedural Justice	89	4.41	0.80
	Total	357	4.51	1.59
Low Severity	Baseline	85	4.99	0.66
	Omission of Distributive Justice	103	4.24	0.66
	Omission of Interactional Justice	73	4.92	0.65
	Omission of Procedural Justice	85	4.71	0.53
	Total	346	4.68	0.70
Total	Baseline	200	5.45	1.09
	Omission of Distributive Justice	187	3.57	1.27
	Omission of Interactional Justice	142	4.80	0.84
	Omission of Procedural Justice	174	4.56	0.70
	Total	703	4.60	1.23

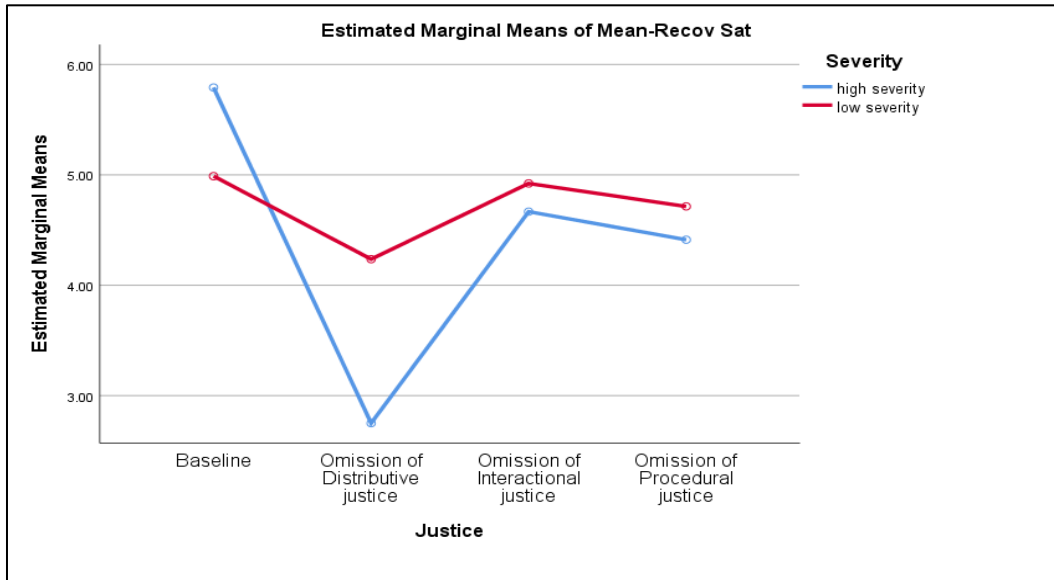
Upon examining the mean scores, several observations can be made. First, the highest recovery satisfaction mean scores for both “High” and “Low” severity groups came from the “Baseline” service recovery attempt. This makes intuitive sense, as the

“Baseline” service recovery attempt was presented to respondents as an attempt incorporating all three justice dimensions (previously referred to as a “flawless” recovery in this study). Also, in ranking the justice dimensions from most impactful to least impactful on recovery satisfaction, the rankings were identical for both “High” and “Low” severity (Baseline followed by IJ, followed by PJ, followed by DJ). This could indicate that, regardless of the severity of the service failure, respondents’ recovery satisfaction is highest (with the exception of a “baseline” recovery) when presented with a service recovery that prioritizes among the justice dimensions the perception of distributive justice, and to a lesser extent, the perception of procedural justice.

Perhaps most interesting is that, while the recovery satisfaction mean scores for the three individual justice dimension omissions were all higher among the “Low” severity group, the highest satisfaction recovery mean score belonged to the baseline condition among the “High” severity group. This finding suggests that, although a “flawless” recovery attempt can result in higher recovery satisfaction for “High” severity service failures, it is easier to achieve higher recovery satisfaction scores when the initial service failure is considered moderate compared to severe.

A visual display of the two-way ANOVA has been provided below (see Graph 6.1). The non-parallel lines in Graph 6.2 suggested a disordinal interaction effect: the predicted recovery satisfaction mean was lower for the “high” severity group for the DJ, IJ, and PJ scenarios, but the predicted recovery satisfaction mean was higher for the Baseline scenario among the “low” severity group.

Graph 6.1: Two-Way ANOVA (Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice)



The results of the two-way ANOVA (see Table 6.4) indicates that the model had an R^2 of 0.457, which suggested that “severity” and “justice” explained 45.7% of the variance in recovery satisfaction. Results of the two-way ANOVA also indicated a statistically significant interaction between “severity” and “justice” for recovery satisfaction: $F(3, 695) = 49.689, p < .0001, \eta^2 = 1.000$. In other words, the effect of severity on service recovery satisfaction may depend on the type(s) of justice afforded during the service. However, based on the results regarding effect size (partial η^2), it appears that “justice” (0.378) had a far stronger effect than “severity” (0.028) on the interaction for service recovery (0.177).

Table 6.4: Two-Way ANOVA Results for Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice

Source	Type III SS ^a	df	MS	F	p	Partial <i>n</i> ²	Observed power ^b
Corrected model	489.273 ^c	7	69.896	83.591	.000	.457	1.000
Intercept	14269.198	1	14269.198	17065.025	.000	.961	1.000
Severity	16.503	1	16.503	19.736	.000	.028	.993
Justice Type	353.058	3	117.686	140.745	.000	.378	1.000
Severity*Justice type	124.644	3	41.548	49.689	.000	.177	1.000
Error	581.136	695	.836				
Total	15929.333	703					
Corrected total	1070.409	702					

a. SS = Sum of squares; MS = Mean of squares

b. Computed using $\alpha = .05$

c. $R^2 = .457$ (adjusted $R^2 = .452$)

Due to the violation of the assumption of heterogeneity, a Bonferroni adjustment was made for multiple comparisons (at the .05 level). As shown in Table 6.5, the simple main effect of service failure severity on recovery satisfaction was significant for the “Baseline” condition ($F = 37.696$, $p < .001$), the “Omission of Distributive Justice” condition ($F = 122.226$, $p < .001$), and the “Omission of Procedural Justice” condition

($F = 4.734, p = .030$), but not for the “Omission of Interactional Justice” condition ($F = 2.319, p = .096$).

Table 6.5: Simple Main Effects of Severity and Justice on Recovery Satisfaction

Justice		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Baseline	Contrast	31.520	1	31.520	37.696	.000
	Error	581.136	695	.836		
Omission of Distributive justice	Contrast	102.201	1	102.201	122.226	.000
	Error	581.136	695	.836		
Omission of Interactional justice	Contrast	2.319	1	2.319	2.774	.096
	Error	581.136	695	.836		
Omission of Procedural justice	Contrast	3.958	1	3.958	4.734	.030
	Error	581.136	695	.836		

Post hoc tests were conducted using both Tukey HSD and Bonferroni. As the results were nearly identical, the results provided below were calculated using Tukey HSD (see Table 6.6). Tukey HSD post tests were chosen based on the need to control for different error rates among groups, while allowing for different group sizes, two advantages for using Tukey HSD rather than Bonferroni (Petrick, 2004; Ott, 1993). Based on the results, participants in the baseline condition who endured a “High Severity” service failure had higher recovery satisfaction ($M_{RecoSat} = 5.79, SE = .09$) than participants in the baseline condition who endured a “Low Severity” service failure ($M_{RecoSat} = 4.99, SE = .10$).

As for participants randomized to the omitted distributive justice condition, those who endured a “High Severity” service failure had lower recovery satisfaction ($M_{RecoSat} = 2.75, SE = .10$) than those who endured a “Low Severity” service failure ($M_{RecoSat} = 4.24, SE = .09$). Similarly, participants in the omitted procedural justice condition who suffered a “High Severity” service failure had lower recovery satisfaction ($M_{RecoSat} = 4.41, SE = .10$) than those participants who encountered a “Low Severity” service failure ($M_{RecoSat} = 4.71, SE = .10$). These results suggest that the severity of a service failure can influence the impact of justice on recovery satisfaction.

Table 6.6: Pairwise Comparisons of Recovery Satisfaction by Severity and Justice

Justice	Severity	RecoSAT Mean	Severity	RecovSAT Mean	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.^a
Baseline	High severity	5.791	Low severity	4.988	.803*	.131	.000
Omission of Distributive justice	High severity	2.750	Low severity	4.236	-1.486*	.134	.000
Omission of Interactional justice	High severity	4.667	Low severity	4.922	-.256	.154	.096
Omission of Procedural justice	High severity	4.412	Low severity	4.714	-.302*	.139	.030

a: Computed using $\alpha = .05$

In order to determine what effect severity had on repurchase intentions (h1e), a one-way between-subject ANOVA was conducted. The two items for the dependent variable “repurchase intentions” were summed and averaged, creating a repurchase intentions mean (see Table 6.7). Each of the two items for repurchase intentions was measured on a 5 point Likert-type scale. Identical to h1a, the control variable “severity” was already broken into two separate groups (“High” and “Low”). Similar to the previous one-way ANOVA conducted to examine hypothesis 1a, a few outliers were identified. As with hypothesis 1a, the small number of outliers was not deemed detrimental to conducting the one-way ANOVA. The percentile statistics (PCTL) provided in the table below (see Table 6.7) indicated that three quarters of the repurchase intentions scores were equal to 5.00.

Table 6.7: Summary Statistics for Repurchase Intentions (AveRepInt)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCTL
AveRepInt	703	3.57	.048	1.26	-0.644	-.595	3.00	4.00	5.00

Based on the descriptive results (see Table 6.8), participants associated with a “Low” severity service failure (mean= 4.10) were more likely to repurchase than those participants associated with a “High” severity service failure (mean = 3.06). Due to the

violation of homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p < .001$), statistical significance results were also obtained from Welch's Robust Tests of Equality of Means.

Table 6.8: Descriptive Statistics for Repurchase Intentions by Severity

	N	Mean	SE	SD	95% Confidence	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
High Severity	357	3.06	.071	1.34	2.92	3.20
Low Severity	346	4.10	.049	0.91	4.00	4.20
Total	703	3.57	.048	1.26	3.48	3.67

Results of the one-way between-subjects ANOVA, provided below (see Table 6.9), indicated that the effect of severity on repurchase intentions was significant ($p < .0005$). The results of the two-way ANOVA also indicated that the model had an R^2 of 0.170, which means that severity explained 17.0% of the variance in repurchase intentions. Thus, hypothesis 1e was supported.

Table 6.9: One-Way ANOVA Results for Repurchase Intentions by Severity

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	P	Partial η^{2b}
Between Groups	189.857	1	189.857	143.607	.000	0.17
Within Groups	926.765	701	1.322			
Total	1116.622	702				

- SS = Sum of squares; MS = Mean of squares
- η^2 was determined by calculating omega squared: $\omega^2 = \frac{SS_b - (df_b)MS_w}{SS_t + MS_w}$
- Welch's $F(1, 628.591) = 145.276, p < .0001$
- $R^2 = .170$ (adjusted $R^2 = .169$)

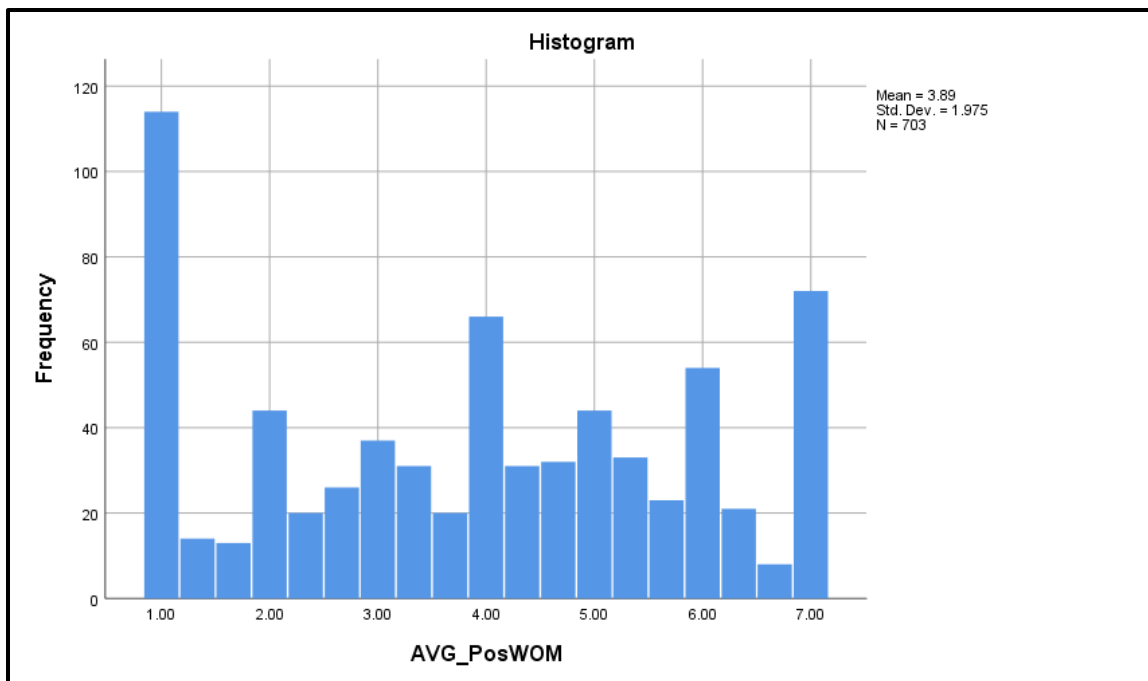
In order to determine what effect severity had on positive word-of-mouth (PosWOM) (h1f), a one-way between-subject ANOVA was conducted. The three items for “PosWOM”, each measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale, were summed and averaged to create a positive word-of-mouth mean. The table below (see Table 6.10) displays the descriptive statistics of the averaged positive WOM item. The percentile statistics (PCTL) indicate that the sample could be split into three relatively equal groups.

Table 6.10: Summary Statistics of Positive WOM (AvePosWOM)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCLT
AvePosWOM	703	3.89	.074	1.97	-0.022	-1.208	2.00	4.00	5.67

However, visual representation of “PosWOM” (see Graph 6.2) indicated that the data was skewed positively and strongly skewed negatively. One explanation for these extreme data points could be that they represented individuals who were and who were not naturally predisposed to providing positive word-of-mouth.

Graph 6.2: Histogram of Positive WOM



Based on the descriptive results (see Table 6.11), participants associated with a “High” severity service failure (mean= 3.16) were less likely to provide positive WOM than those participants associated with a “Low” severity service failure (mean = 4.64).

Table 6.11: Descriptive Statistics for Positive WOM by Severity

	N	Mean	SE	SD	95% Confidence Lower Bound	95% Confidence Upper Bound
High Severity	357	3.16	.101	1.91	2.96	3.36
Low Severity	346	4.64	.094	1.75	4.45	4.82
Total	703	3.89	.074	1.97	3.74	4.04

Results of the one-way ANOVA (see Table 6.12) indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene’s test for equality of variances ($p = .006$). Thus, statistical significance results were also obtained from Welch’s Robust Tests of Equality of Means. Results of the one-way between-subjects ANOVA indicated that the model had an R^2 of 0.170, which meant the model explained 17.0% of the variance in positive WOM. Results also showed that the effect of severity

on positive WOM was significant, $F(1,701) = 113.81, p < 0001$. Thus, hypothesis 1e was supported.

Table 6.12: One-Way ANOVA Results for Positive WOM by Severity

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial η^{2b}
Between Groups	382.443	1	382.443	113.814	.000	0.14
Within Groups	2355.532	701	3.360			
Total	2737.975	702				

- SS = Sum of squares; MS = Mean of squares
- η^2 was determined by calculating omega squared: $\omega^2 = \frac{SS_b - (df_b)MS_w}{SS_t + MS_w}$
- Welch's $F(1, 698.582) = 114.136, p < .0001$
- $R^2 = .140$ (adjusted $R^2 = .138$)

As displayed in the figure below (see Figure 6.1), all of the hypotheses postulated for objective one were supported with the exception of H1a and H1c.

Figure 6.1: Results for Objective One

Hypothesis	Outcome
H1a: Post-recovery satisfaction will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Not supported
H1b: The perception of a lack of distributive justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Supported
H1c: The perception of a lack of interactional justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Not supported
H1d: The perception of a lack of procedural justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Supported
H1e: Post-recovery repurchase intentions will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Supported
H1f: Post-recovery positive WOM will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Supported

Study Objective Two

The second objective of this study was to examine both service recovery satisfaction and satisfaction with the firm via the three separate, yet related, justice dimensions (interactional justice, procedural justice, and distributive justice). In addition, the model was expanded to test culinary and non-culinary travelers. In order to

address the challenges associated with objective one, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- H2a: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.
- H2b: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.
- H2c: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.
- H2d: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.
- H2e: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.
- H2f: Procedural justice has a positive and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.
- H2g: Satisfaction with recovery positively and significantly affects overall firm satisfaction.
- H2h: Satisfaction levels will be higher for culinary travelers compared to non-culinary travelers.

The descriptive statistics for post-recovery satisfaction have been previously reported (see Table 6.13), as well as the assessments regarding outliers and normality of data. However, two additional factors previously unexamined will be presented for second objective of this study. For the variable “overall satisfaction with the restaurant (overall satisfaction)”, each of the five items was measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale. Descriptive statistics for “overall satisfaction with the restaurant” are also provided below. Although not specifically examined in this study, it should be noted that the average overall satisfaction score (mean = 5.14) was higher than the previously

reported average recovery satisfaction score (mean = 4.60). This result could be due in part to the research design: the questionnaire was designed to impress upon the respondents that the service experience described to them was, in effect, happening to them in their favorite chain restaurant.

Table 6.13: Summary Statistics of Overall Satisfaction (AVEOVERSAT)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCTL
AveOVERSAT	703	5.14	.055	1.46	-0.453	-.517	4.00	5.00	6.33

In order to determine what effect justice had on post-recovery satisfaction (H2a, H2b, and H2c), a one-way between-subject ANOVA was conducted. Similar to all of the previous one-way ANOVAs conducted, a few outliers were identified. However, as was the case with all of the previous situations, the ANOVA was deemed appropriate. Based on the graphical display (see Graph 6.3) and the summary descriptives (see Table 6.14), it appears that, when compared with the “Baseline” service recovery condition, the omission of any justice dimension can have a negative effect on recovery satisfaction. However, the most extreme negative effect on recovery satisfaction appears to occur when distributive justice is omitted from the recovery attempt.

Graph 6.3: One-Way ANOVA Results for Recovery Satisfaction by Justice

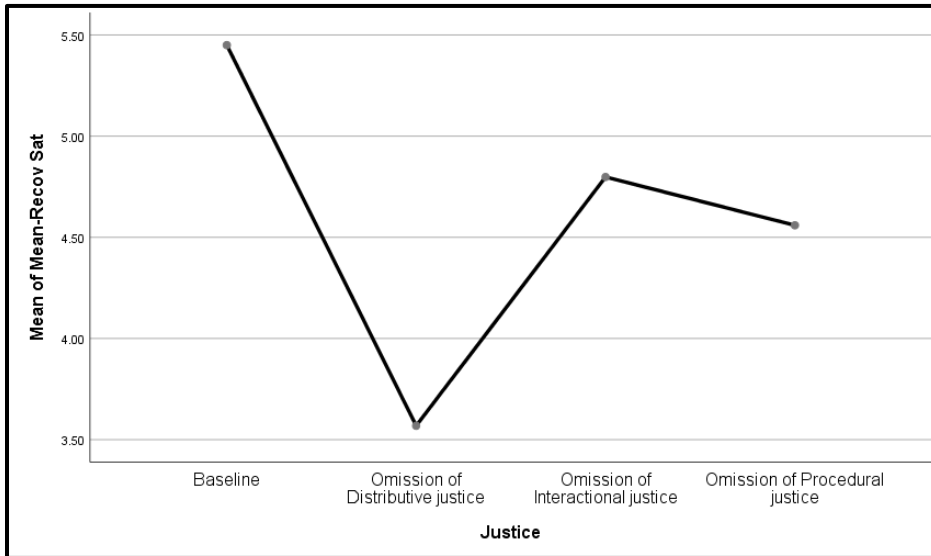


Table 6.14 Summary Statistics of Recovery Satisfaction (AveRecovSAT)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	95% Confidence Lower Bound	95% Confidence Upper Bound
Baseline	200	5.45	.077	1.09	5.30	5.60
Omission of Distributive justice	187	3.57	.093	1.27	3.39	3.75
Omission of Interactional justice	142	4.80	.071	0.84	4.66	4.94
Omission of Procedural justice	174	4.56	.053	0.70	4.46	4.66
Total	703	4.60	.047	1.23	4.51	4.69

Based on the results of the one-way ANOVA (see Table 6.15), the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene’s test for equality of variances ($p = .006$). Thus, statistical significance results were also obtained from Welch’s Robust Tests of Equality of Means. Results of the one-way between-subjects ANOVA indicated that the model had an R^2 of 0.326, which means the model explained over 32% of the variance in recovery satisfaction. The effect of justice on recovery satisfaction was found to be significant, $F(3,699) = 112.851, p < .0001$.

Table 6.15: One-Way ANOVA Results for Recovery Satisfaction by Justice

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial η^{2b}
Between Groups	349.274	3	116.425	112.851	.000	.326
Within Groups	721.135	699	1.032			
Total	1070.409	702				

- SS = Sum of squares; MS = Mean of squares
- η^2 was determined by calculating omega squared: $\omega^2 = \frac{SS_b - (df_b)MS_w}{SS_t + MS_w}$
- Welch’s $F(3, 377.360) = 83.038, p < .0001$
- $R^2 = .326$ (adjusted $R^2 = .323$)

In order to fully examine the effect of justice on satisfaction recovery, Post Hoc Tests were conducted (using both Tukey HSD and Bonferoni). As the results were

nearly identical, the results provided below were obtained using Tukey HSD (see Table 6.16). It was found that any omission of justice, compared to a “Baseline” or flawless recovery attempt had a significant impact on recovery satisfaction.

Table 6.16: Pairwise Comparisons of Recovery Satisfaction by Justice

	Justice Condition	Mean Difference	Std. Error
Baseline Condition	Omission of DJ	1.88*	.103
	Omission of IJ	0.65*	.111
	Omission of PJ	0.89*	.105

*: The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level using Tukey HSD

The mean difference between participants in the baseline condition were also significantly different than participants who were not provided interactional justice (mean differences =0.65, SE = .11). In addition, the mean difference between participants in the baseline condition were significantly different than participants who were not provided procedural justice (mean differences =0.89, SE = .11). Finally, the mean differences in recovery satisfaction among participants in the baseline condition were significantly different than participants who were not provided distributive justice (mean differences =1.88, SE = .10). To summarize, the omission of DJ, or IJ, or PJ,

when compared to the baseline condition, produced a significant and negative impact on recovery satisfaction. Thus, H2a, H2b, and H2c were supported.

Although not incorporated into this study's objectives, it was also found that the mean differences between the omission of distributive justice and the omission of interactional justice (mean differences = -1.23, SE = .11), and the mean differences between the omission of distributive justice and the omission of procedural justice (mean differences = -0.99, SE = .11) were significant. When comparing recovery satisfaction means among justice dimensions, the only mean difference comparison which was not statistically significant was the comparison between the omission of IJ and the omission of PJ (mean difference = 0.24, SE = .11, $p = 0.161$). This finding suggests that the impact of IJ on recovery satisfaction is similar to PJ's impact on recovery satisfaction.

A one-way between-subject ANOVA was also conducted to determine what effect justice had on overall satisfaction with the restaurant (H2d, H2e, and H2f). Again, it was decided that the few outliers found did not warrant a substitution for the one-way between-subject ANOVA. A graphical display (see Graph 6.4) and descriptive statistics summary (see Table 6.17) are provided below. Similar to the previous one-way ANOVA results measuring the relationship between justice and recovery satisfaction, the comparison between the "Baseline" service recovery condition and the omission of distributive justice had an extreme negative effect on overall satisfaction with the restaurant. Unlike the relationship between justice and recovery satisfaction, it appears that the difference between the baseline condition and the omission of procedural justice was modest.

Graph 6.4: One-Way ANOVA Results for Overall Satisfaction by Justice

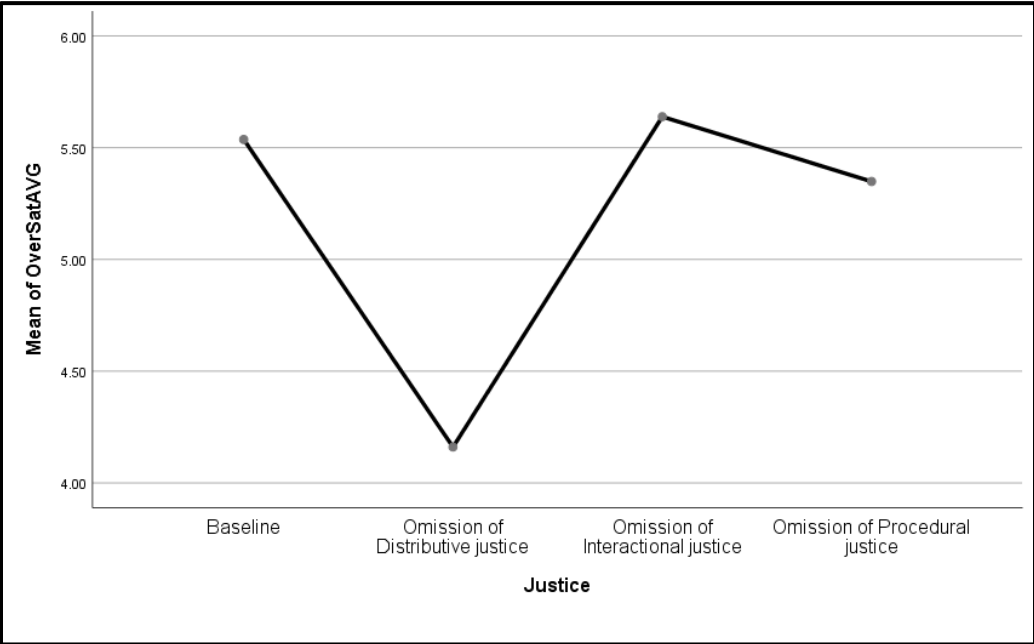


Table 6.17: Descriptive Statistics for Overall Satisfaction by Justice Dimensions

	N	Mean	SE	SD	95% Confidence Lower Bound	95% Confidence Upper Bound
Baseline	200	5.54	.080	1.13	5.38	5.69
Omission of Distributive justice	187	4.16	.100	1.37	3.96	4.36
Omission of Interactional justice	142	5.64	.113	1.35	5.42	5.86
Omission of Procedural justice	174	5.35	.112	1.48	5.13	5.57
Total	703	5.14	.055	1.46	5.04	5.25

However, perhaps most surprising is the seemingly low effect that the omission of interactional justice had on overall satisfaction with the restaurant. Based on the mean scores, the participants who endured a service failure and recovery with no perceived interactional justice had higher overall satisfaction with the restaurant than those participants who received a “Baseline” recovery, one with all three justice dimensions. As this finding makes little intuitive sense, it could be more to do with the “real” relationship participants had with their favorite restaurant chain, and less to do with the scenario participants were asked to “imagine” in the questionnaire. Future research examining these phenomena is recommended.

Based on the results of the one-way ANOVA (see Table 6.18), the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene’s test for equality of variances ($p < .001$). Thus, statistical significance results were also obtained from Welch’s Robust Tests of Equality of Means. Results of the one-way between-subjects ANOVA indicated that the model had an R^2 of 0.170, which means the model explained 17% of the variance in overall satisfaction with the restaurant. The effect of justice on overall satisfaction with the restaurant was significant, $F(3,699) = 84.585$, $p < .0001$. Compared with the results of the ANOVA measuring the effect of justice on recovery satisfaction, results indicated that the effect of justice is more pronounced on participants’ recovery satisfaction.

Table 6.18: One-Way ANOVA Results for Overall Satisfaction by Justice

Source	Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	Partial η^{2b}
Between Groups	253.7558	3	84.585	47.703	.000	.170
Within Groups	1239.431	699	1.773			
Total	1493.186	702				

- SS = Sum of squares; MS = Mean of squares
- η^2 was determined by calculating omega squared: $\omega^2 = \frac{SS_b - (df_b)MS_w}{SS_t + MS_w}$
- Welch’s $F(3, 370.980) = 47.202$, $p < .005$
- $R^2 = .170$ (adjusted $R^2 = .166$)

In order to fully examine the effect of justice on overall satisfaction, Post hoc analysis again conducted (using both Tukey HSD and Bonferoni). As the results were again nearly identical, the results provided in Table 6.15 were obtained from using Tukey HSD (see Table 6.19). The mean differences in overall satisfaction among participants in the baseline condition were significantly different than participants who were not provided distributive justice (mean differences =1.38, SE = .14). However, the mean difference between participants in the baseline condition and those participants not provided interactional justice were not only not significant, but slightly negative (mean differences = -.10, SE = .15). Also, the mean difference between participants in the baseline condition were not significantly different than participants not provided procedural justice (mean differences =0.19, SE = .14). To summarize, the omission of DJ when compared to the baseline condition produced a significant and negative impact on recovery satisfaction. Thus, H2d was supported. However, neither the omission of interactional justice or procedural justice had a significant and negative impact on overall satisfaction. Therefore, H2e and H2f were not supported. These findings suggest that the only justice dimension to have a significantly negative influence on overall satisfaction was the omission of distributive justice.

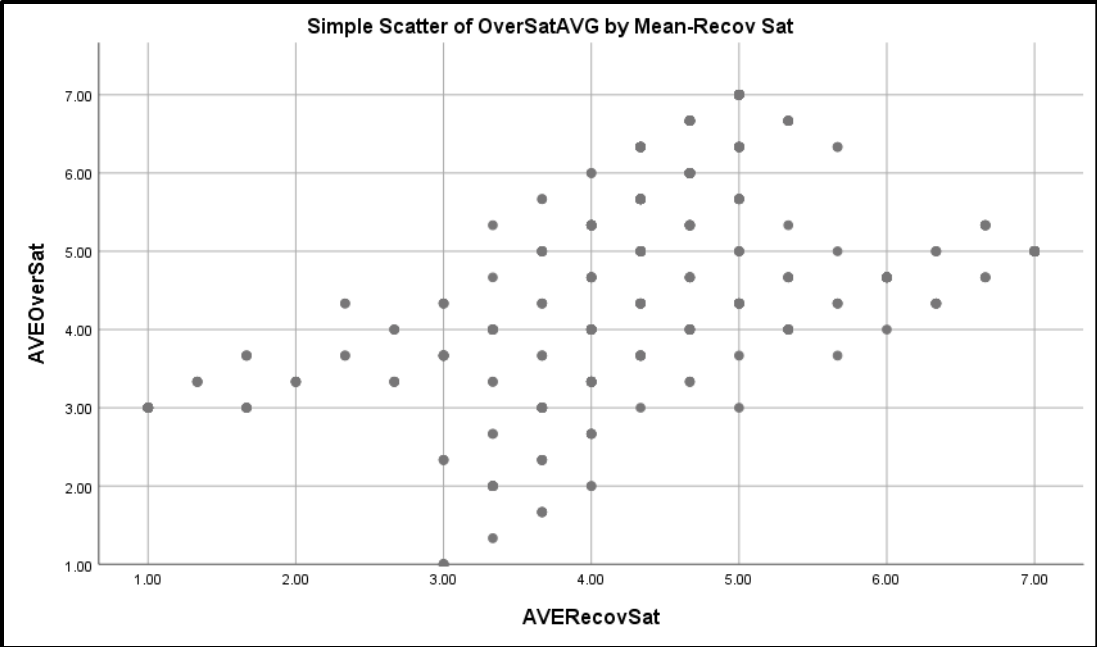
Table 6.19: Pairwise Comparisons of Overall Satisfaction by Justice

	Justice Condition	Mean Difference	Std. Error
Baseline Condition	Omission of DJ	1.38*	.135
	Omission of IJ	-0.10	.146
	Omission of PJ	0.19	.138

*: The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level using Tukey HSD

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between post service failure recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction with a restaurant, as it was hypothesized that recovery satisfaction positively and significantly effects overall satisfaction (H2g). Although the relationship between recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction appeared to be linear (see Graph 6.5), the variables were not all normally distributed, as assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p < .05$). Thus, the analysis was computed using Spearman's rho.

Graph 6.5: Simple Scatterplot of Overall Satisfaction by Recovery Satisfaction



The results provided below (see Table 6.20) indicated that there was a moderate positive correlation between recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction, $r(701) = .497, p < .0005$. Thus, H2g was supported.

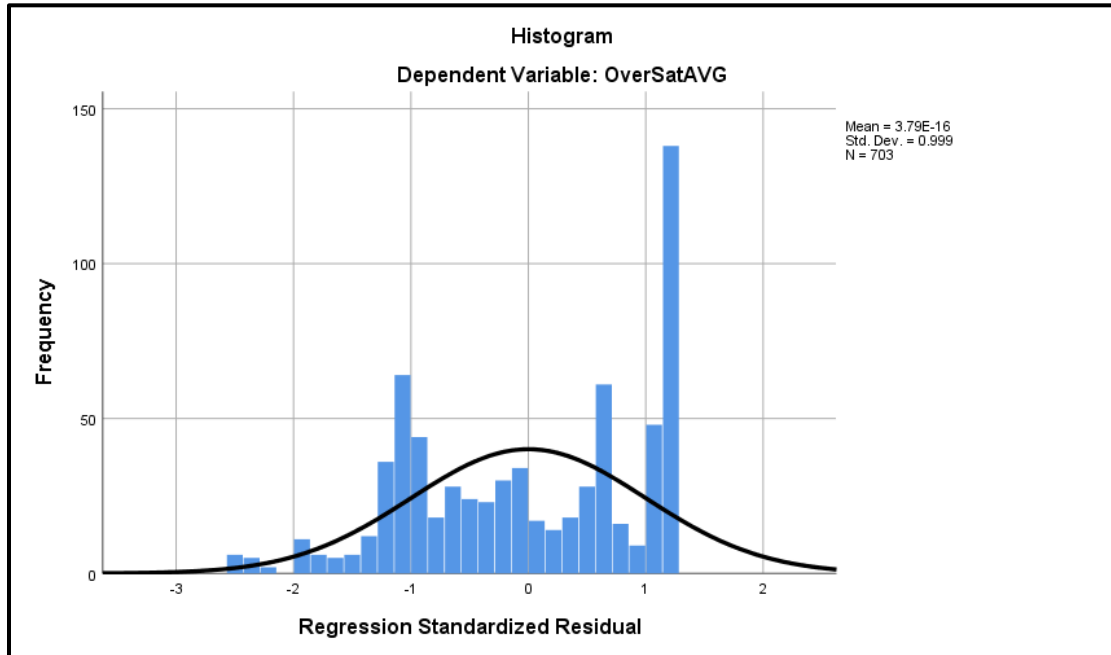
Table 6.20: Correlation Analysis of Recovery Satisfaction and Overall Satisfaction

Spearman's rho		AveRecovSat	AveOVERSAT
AveRecovSat	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.497**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	703	703
AveOVERSAT	Correlation Coefficient	.497**	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	703	703

** : Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

To further examine the relationship between recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction, a linear regression was computed. Several assumptions were violated. First, visual assessment of the histogram (see Graph 6.6) indicates that the residuals were positively skewed, and thus not normally distributed. In addition, results of the Durbin-Watson statistic (0.860) suggested dependence of residuals. The results of the linear regression indicated that the model had an R^2 of 0.444, which means that recovery satisfaction was found to explain 44.4% of the variance in overall satisfaction. Although some caution should be taken due to the violations of assumptions, the linear regression indicated that recovery satisfaction significantly predicted overall satisfaction: $F(1,701) = 172.584, p < .0005$.

Graph 6.6: Histogram of Overall Satisfaction by Recovery Satisfaction



Hypothesis H2h introduced a second variable previously unaddressed in this chapter: the culinary traveler. In order to distinguish culinary from non-culinary travelers, respondents were asked four questions concerning culinary travel. Each of the four culinary travel items was measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale. The four items were then summed and averaged, creating a culinary travel mean (see Table 6.21).

Table 6.21: Summary Statistics of Culinary Travel (AveCulTrav)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCTL
AveCulTrav	703	3.87	.096	2.54	-0.188	0.184	1.00	5.25	6.00
2 Groups	646	1.53	.020	0.50	-0.24	-1.991			

It was determined that the median of the scores (median = 21), would serve as the cutoff between culinary and non-culinary respondents. In other words, respondents with an overall culinary traveler scale score of 22 or higher (mean ≥ 5.5) were deemed culinary travelers. Respondents with an overall culinary travel scale score of 20 or lower (mean ≥ 4) were identified as non-culinary travelers. A total of 57 respondents were thus deleted from data analysis. Based on the summary descriptives, just over 50% of the participants were defined as culinary travelers.

Prior to computing an independent samples *t*-test, a means comparison was used to examine the differences in recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction among culinary and non-culinary travelers (see Table 6.22). There was a homogeneity of variances for culinary and non-culinary travelers, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variance ($p = .261$)

Table 6.22: Summary Statistics of Satisfaction Levels by Culinary Travel Types

		Recovery Satisfaction	Overall Satisfaction
Culinary Traveler	N	343	343
	Mean	4.58	5.06
	SE	.070	.081
	SD	1.29	1.52
Non-Culinary Traveler	N	303	303
	Mean	4.61	5.20
	SE	.069	.083
	SD	1.21	1.44

As displayed in the table below (see Table 6.23), there was no statistically significant difference in mean recovery satisfaction scores between culinary and non-culinary travelers. Furthermore, there was no significantly significant mean difference among overall satisfaction scores between culinary and non-culinary travelers. Thus, H2h was not supported.

Table 6.23: Independent Samples t-test for Recovery Satisfaction and Overall Satisfaction by Culinary Travel Types

	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)
Recovery Satisfaction	.274	644	.784
Overall Satisfaction	1.135	644	.257

As displayed in the figure below (see Figure 6.2), hypotheses H2a, H2b, H2c, H2d, and H2g were supported while hypotheses H2e, H2f, and H2h were not.

Figure 6.2: Results for Objective Two

Hypothesis	Outcome
H2a: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H2b: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H2c: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H2d: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Supported
H2e: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Not Supported

Figure 6.2 Continued

H2f: The omission of procedural justice has a positive and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Not Supported
H2g: Satisfaction with recovery positively and significantly affects overall firm satisfaction.	Supported
H2h: Satisfaction levels will be higher for non-culinary travelers compared to culinary travelers.	Not Supported

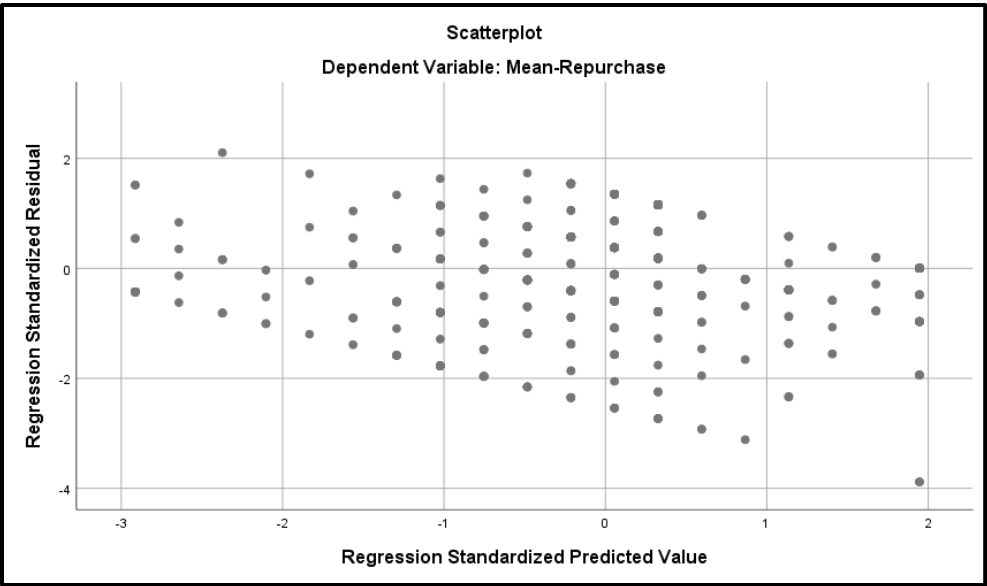
Study Objective Three

The third objective of this study was to determine the impact of satisfaction on customer evaluations. Specifically, the third objective of this study was to examine how post-recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction effects repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM. In order to address the challenges associated with objective three, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- H3a: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on repurchase intentions
- H3b: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on positive WOM.
- H3c: Post-recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on negative WOM.
- H3d: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.
- H3e: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on positive WOM.
- H3f: Satisfaction with the firm has a negative effect on negative WOM.

In order to determine the effect of satisfaction (both recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction) on customer evaluations, a series of correlation analyses and bivariate linear regressions were conducted. The first of these tests were conducted to examine recovery satisfaction on repurchase intentions. To assess the linearity of the relationship, a scatterplot between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions was visually inspected (see Graph 6.7). A close inspection of the scatterplot revealed a linear relationship. Based on the scatterplot, it was also determined that no significant outliers were present. However, it was determined that the assumption of normality was violated, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$). Despite this violation of assumptions, the Pearson correlation was computed, as the Pearson's correlation has been suggested to be robust to deviations from normality (Lehmann, 2009).

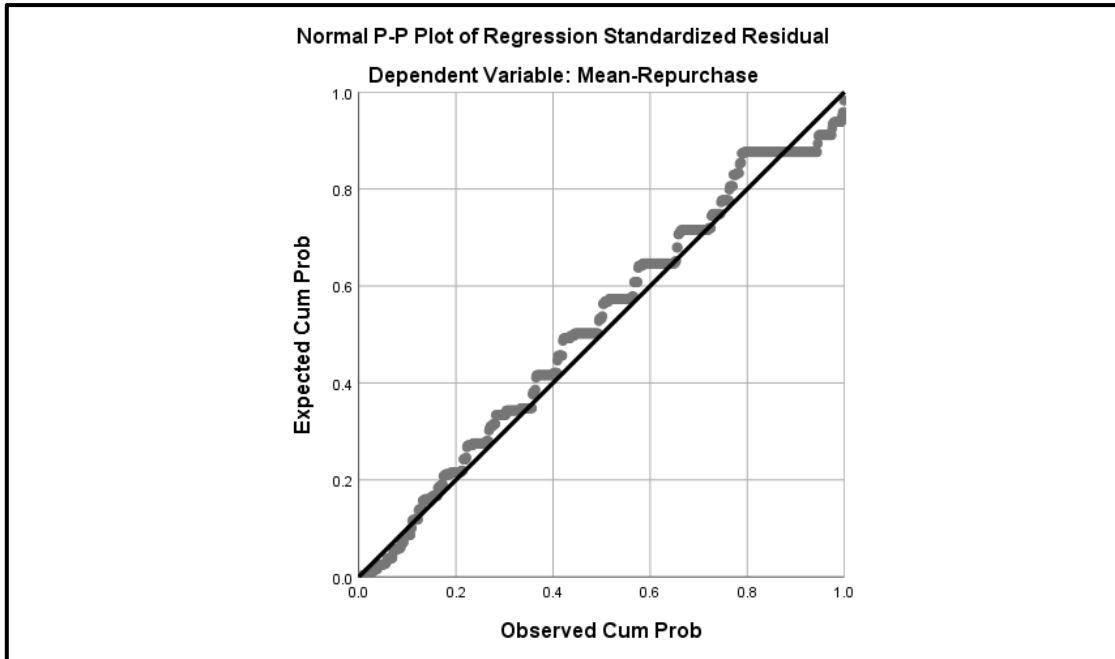
Graph 6.7: Scatterplot of Repurchase Intentions by Recovery Satisfaction



Results of the Pearson correlation coefficient suggested a moderate positive correlation between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions, $r(701) = .580$, $p < 0.01$, with recovery satisfaction explaining 33.6% of repurchase intentions.

In addition to computing a Pearson correlation coefficient, a bivariate linear regression was run to further examine the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.140. Recognizing that the data suffered only slightly from positive kurtosis (see Graph 6.8), residuals were assessed to be approximately normal. The linear regression established that recovery satisfaction could statistically predict repurchase intentions, $F(1,701) = 375.907$, $p < .0005$. Thus, based on these results, H3a was supported.

Graph 6.8: Normal Q-Q Plot of Repurchase Intentions by Recovery Satisfaction



The next variable to be examined with recovery satisfaction was positive word-of-mouth; a variable yet to be discussed in this chapter. For the variable “positive word-of-mouth”, each of three items was measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale. Descriptive statistics for “positive word-of-mouth”, or “AvePosWOM”, are provided below (see Table 6.24).

Table 6.24: Summary Statistics of Positive WOM (AvePosWOM)

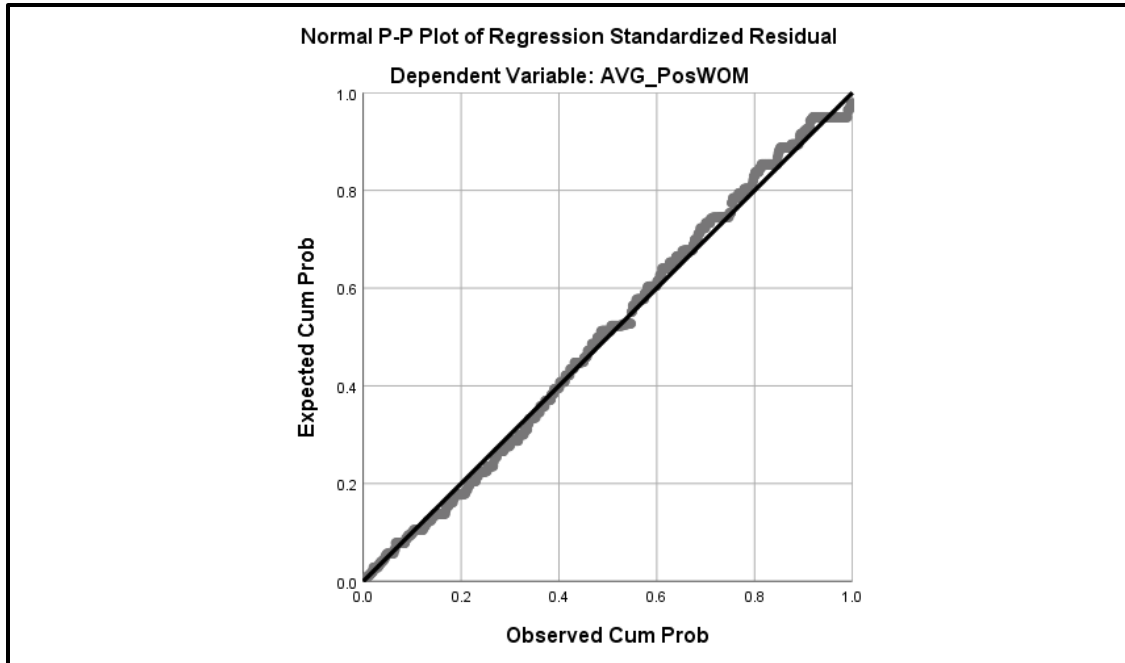
	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCTL
AvePosWom	703	3.89	.074	1.97	-.022	-1.208	2.00	4.00	5.67

An inspection of the scatterplot revealed a linear relationship between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM. It was also determined that no significant outliers were present. However, it was determined that the assumption of normality was violated, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > .05$). Despite this violation of assumptions, the Pearson correlation was computed for reasons previously explained.

Results of the Pearson correlation coefficient suggested a moderate positive correlation between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM, $r(701) = .519$, $p < 0.01$, with recovery satisfaction explaining 26.9% of positive WOM.

In addition to computing a Pearson correlation coefficient, a bivariate linear regression was run to further examine the relationship between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM. Based on the Durbin-Watson statistic (1.264), the assumption of independence of residuals was not violated. A visual inspection of the residuals (see Graph 6.9) suggested the data to be approximately normal. The linear regression established that recovery satisfaction could statistically predict positive WOM, $F(1,701) = 258.710$, $p < .0005$. Thus, H3b was supported.

Graph 6.9: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Recovery Satisfaction

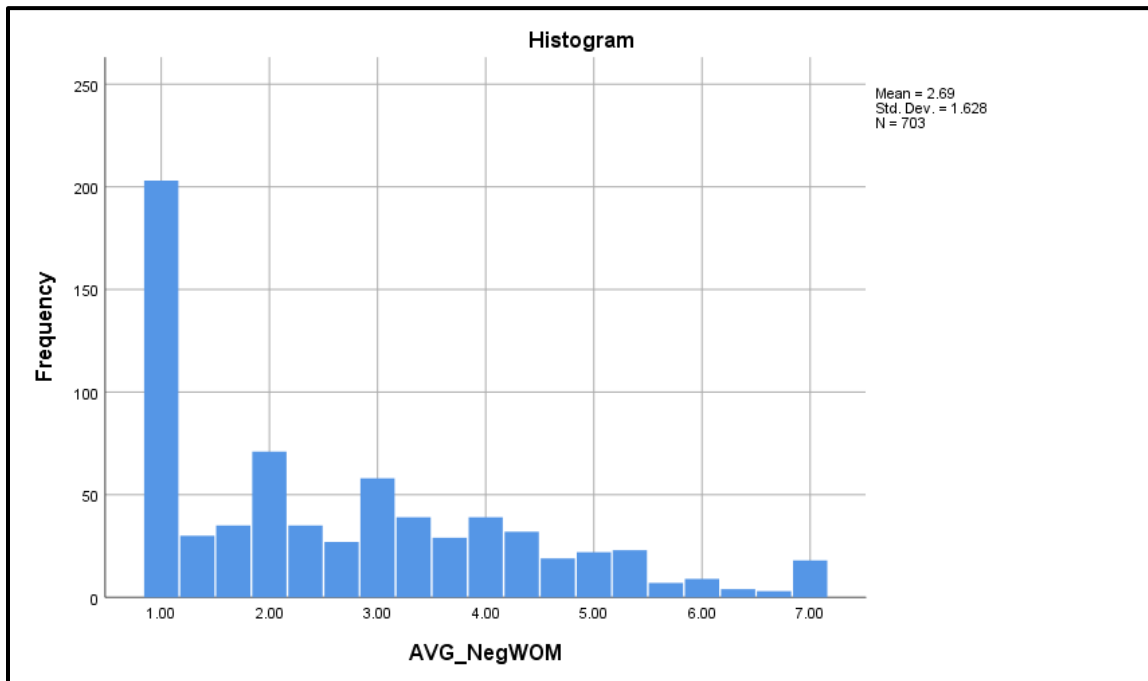


Next, negative word-of-mouth (an additional factor previously unexamined in this chapter) was examined. For the variable “negative word-of-mouth”, each of three items was measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale. Descriptive statistics for “negative word-of-mouth”, or “AveNegWOM”, are provided below (see Table 6.25). The histogram provided below (see Graph 6.10), indicates an extreme unequal distribution of data. Due to the abnormal distribution of the data, confirmed by the Shapiro-Wilk’s test ($p < .001$), a nonparametric statistic was conducted to examine the relationship between recovery satisfaction and negative WOM.

Table 6.25: Summary Statistics of Negative WOM (AveNegWOM)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCTL
AveNegWom	703	2.69	.061	1.63	.778	-.238	1.00	2.33	4.00

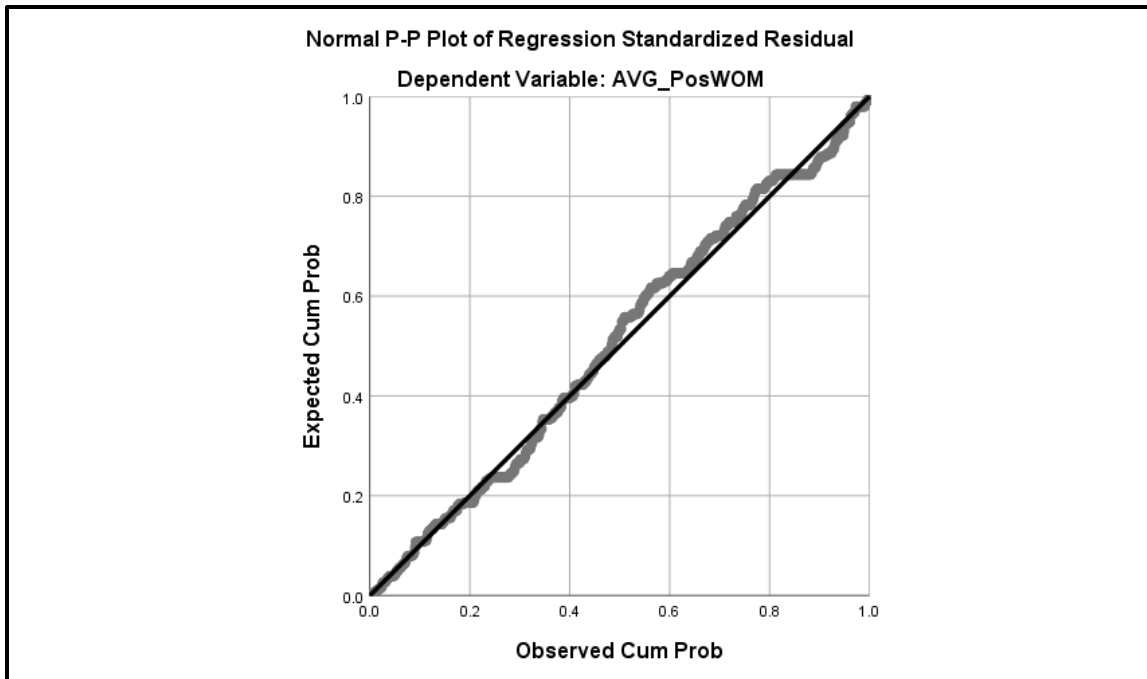
Graph 6.10: Histogram of Negative WOM by Recovery Satisfaction



Results of the Spearman's rho correlation analysis suggested a moderate negative correlation between recovery satisfaction and negative WOM, $r(701) = -.396$, $p < 0.01$, and these results were quite similar to those found using a parametric test, $r(701) = -.403$, $p < 0.01$. Based on the regression analysis, recovery satisfaction explained 16.2% of negative WOM. Hypothesis H3c was thus supported, as the linear regression established that recovery satisfaction could statistically predict negative WOM, $F(1,701) = 301.578$, $p < .0005$.

The next correlation analysis examining the relationship between overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions also resulted in a significant positive correlation, $r(701) = .654$, $p < 0.01$, with overall satisfaction explaining 42.8% of repurchase intentions. Based on the linear regression, none of the assumptions were violated, including the assumption of normality (see Graph 6.11). In addition, the linear regression established that overall satisfaction statistically predicted repurchase intentions, $F(1,701) = 478.034$, $p < .0005$. Thus, results of the Pearson correlation and bivariate linear regression support H3d.

Graph 6.11: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Overall Satisfaction



Results of the last correlation analysis suggested a significant positive correlation between overall satisfaction and positive WOM, $r(701) = .607$, $p < 0.01$, with overall satisfaction explaining 36.8% of positive WOM. Results of the bivariate linear regression indicated that the assumption of independence of residuals was not violated (Durbin-Watson statistic = 1.586). The linear regression established that overall satisfaction statistically predicted positive WOM, $F(1,701) = 408.514$, $p < .0005$. Thus, results of the Pearson correlation and bivariate linear regression support H3e.

A moderate positive correlation was also found between overall satisfaction and negative WOM, $r(701) = -.560$, $p < 0.01$, with overall satisfaction explaining 31.4% of

negative WOM. Results of the bivariate linear regression indicated that the assumption of independence of residuals was not violated (Durbin-Watson statistic = 1.767). The linear regression established that overall satisfaction statistically predicted negative WOM, $F(1,701) = 583.500, p < .0005$. Therefore, results of the Pearson correlation and bivariate linear regression support H3f.

As displayed in the figure below (see Figure 6.3), hypotheses H3a, H3b, H3c, H3d, H3e, and H3f were supported.

Figure 6.3: Results for Objective Three

Hypothesis	Outcome
H3a: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on repurchase intentions	Supported
H3b: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on positive WOM.	Supported
H3c: Post-recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on negative WOM.	Supported
H3d: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.	Supported
H3e: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on positive WOM.	Supported
H3f: Satisfaction with the firm has a negative effect on negative WOM.	Supported

Study Objective Four

The fourth objective of this study was to better understand the impact of trust and commitment on the relationships between satisfaction (both recovery and overall) and customer evaluations. Specifically, the fourth objective of this study was to determine if trust or commitment had a moderating effect on repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM. In order to address the challenges associated with objective four, the following hypotheses were proposed:

- H4a: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.
- H4b: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.
- H4c: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and repurchase intentions.
- H4d: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and positive WOM.
- H4e: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and negative WOM.
- H4f: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and negative WOM.
- H4g: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.
- H4h: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.

Two variables previously unexamined in this chapter, trust and commitment, are now introduced. Prior to the experiment, participants were asked to rate their level of trust with their favorite chain restaurant. In addition, participants were asked to rate

their level of commitment to their favorite restaurant chain. For the variable “trust”, each of three items was measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale. For the variable “commitment”, each of the four items was measured on a 7 point Likert-type scale. Descriptive statistics for “trust” (AveTrust) and “commitment” (AveCommit) are provided below (see Table 6.26).

Table 6.26: Summary Statistics of Trust (AveTrust) and Commitment (AveCommit)

	N	Mean	SE	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	25% PCTL	50% PCTL	75% PCLT
AveTrust	702	5.65	.092	1.63	.254	-.414	5.00	5.83	6.33
AveCommit	703	3.42	.061	1.63	.254	-.809	2.00	3.50	4.50

As trust and commitment were measured pre and post experiment, two paired t-tests were conducted to determine if service recovery had produced a significant change in trust and commitment to the respondents’ favorite restaurant chain (see Table 6.27). T tests are generally the most accepted statistical tool for examining differences between the means of two groups (Field, 2009). Paired t-tests were used to determine whether the mean difference between two sets of observations (measured twice) was zero.

In determining potential outliers, it was found that two cases for “trust” violated the assumption of outliers (with z scores above 3), and were thus omitted from the data. Although the assumption of normality was violated for both “trust” and “commitment”, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk’s test ($p < .001$), the differences between both trust and commitment averages were approximately normally distributed, as assessed by visual inspection of a Normal Q-Q Plot (not shown).

Table 6.27: Pairwise Comparisons of Commitment and Trust (Pre and Post Test)

Paired Variable	N	Mean	SE	SD
Paired Trust				
Trust-Pretest	700	5.65	.038	1.00
Trust- Posttest	700	5.04	.054	1.42
Paired Commitment				
Commitment-Pretest	703	3.42	.061	1.63
Commitment-Posttest	703	3.30	.065	1.72

Regarding participants’ favorite restaurant chain, service failures (as demonstrated in the hypothetical scenario) elicited a statistically significant decrease in trust, $t(699) = 12.521$, $p < .0005$. Commitment levels were also significantly and

negatively impacted by the service failure, $t(702) = 2.742, p < .0005$. Thus, it was found that one-time service failures, regardless of neither severity nor the level of care provided during the recovery process, could have a significant and negative impact on commitment and trust.

In order to determine the moderating effect of trust and commitment on post-recovery evaluations, a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. The approach to conducting multiple regression analysis, as prescribed by Baron & Kenny (1986), include the following: center the independent variables and the moderator variable, multiply the centered moderator to create an interaction term, and determine if the moderation variable alters the strength of the causal relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. First, a Pearson's product-moment correlation was run to determine collinearity among the independent variables (see Table 6.28). It was found that recovery satisfaction was significantly correlated with trust, $r(698) = .102, p < .01$. Although this finding indicated a violation of the assumption of multicollinearity, it was decided to continue with the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Table 6.28: Correlation Analysis among the Independent Variables

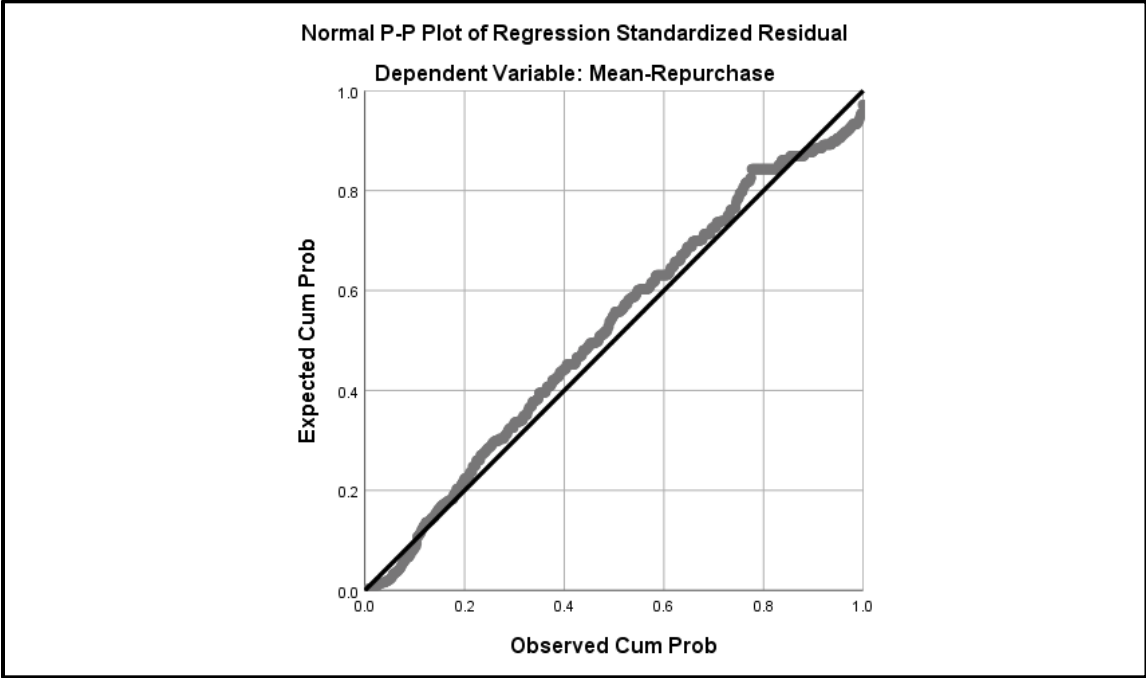
		Recovery Sat.	Overall Sat.	Trust	Commitment
Recovery Sat.	Pearson Correlation	1	.445**	.102**	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.007	.341
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	1069.440	561.510	87.765	50.898
	Covariance	1.530	.803	.126	.073
	N	700	700	700	700
Overall Sat.	Pearson Correlation	.445**	1	.062	-.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.103	.612
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	561.510	1488.262	62.700	-32.000
	Covariance	.803	2.129	.090	-.046
	N	700	700	700	700
Trust	Pearson Correlation	.102**	.062	1	.473**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.103		.000
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	87.765	62.700	694.804	538.472
	Covariance	.126	.090	.994	.770
	N	700	700	700	700
Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.036	-.019	.473**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.341	.612	.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	50.898	-32.000	538.472	1865.609
	Covariance	.073	-.046	.770	2.669
	N	700	700	700	700

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As the first hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if the variable trust moderated the relationship between repurchase intentions and recovery satisfaction, two models were run: The first model measured the relationship between repurchase

intentions, recovery satisfaction and trust. The second model measured the interaction between recovery satisfaction and trust. Based on a simple scatterplot of the residuals by unstandardized predicted values, the relationship appeared to be linear, with homoscedasticity. Multicollinearity diagnostics were then assessed and were found to be within an acceptable range (none of variables had correlations greater than .602). However, the assumption of outliers was violated, as three cases scored below 3 SDs. In addition, the assumption of normality was tested with a Normal Q-Q plot (see Graph 6.12).

Graph 6.12: Normal Q-Q Plot of Repurchase Intentions



The first model (see Table 6.29) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .587$, $F(2,697) = 183.488$, $p < .005$, with recovery satisfaction and trust explaining nearly 34.5% of the variance of repurchase intentions. However, the interaction model was not statistically significant, with an R^2 change of $\leq .001$. As trust was not found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions, H4a was not supported. This suggests that, while trust was found to have a significant impact on repurchase intentions, it does not moderate the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

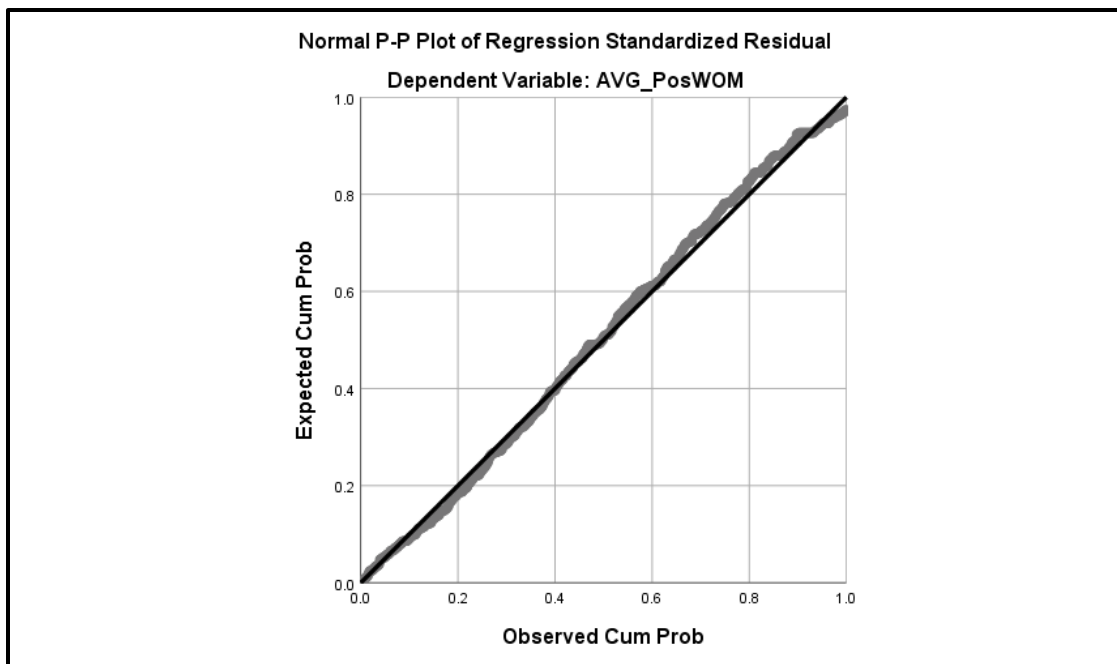
Table 6.29: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Trust on Repurchase Intentions

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Repurchase Intention	.228	.254		.896	.370
	Recovery Satisfaction	.582	.031	.570	18.503	.000
	Trust	.119	.039	.094	3.050	.002
2	Repurchase Intention	.227	.254		.892	.373
	Recovery Satisfaction	.582	.032	.571	18.418	.000
	Trust	.119	.039	.094	3.046	.002
	Moderator (Recovery Satisfaction * Trust)	-.004	.031	-.004	-.102	.905

The second hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if the variable trust moderated the relationship between positive WOM and recovery satisfaction. A simple scatterplot of the residuals by unstandardized predicted values suggested the

relationship to be linear, with homoscedasticity. Multicollinearity diagnostics were assessed and were within an acceptable range, as none of the variables have correlations greater than .519 (recovery satisfaction and positive WOM). Results from the casewise diagnostics indicated that two cases scored slightly below 3 SDs. Finally, the assumption of normality was tested with a Normal Q-Q plot (see Graph 6.13).

Graph 6.13: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM



The first model (see Table 6.30) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .534$, $F(2,697) = 139.237$, $p < .005$, with recovery satisfaction and trust explaining 28.5% of the variance of positive WOM. However, the interaction model was not statistically

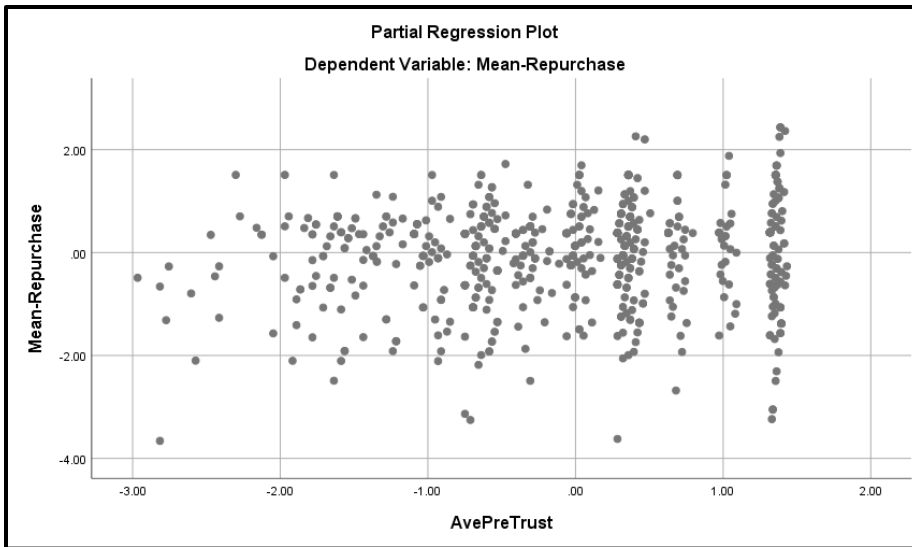
significant, with a R^2 change of .001. As trust was not found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM, H4b was not supported. This suggests that, while trust was found to have a significant impact on positive WOM, it does not moderate the relationship between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.

Table 6.30: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Trust on Positive WOM

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Positive WOM	-1.238	.414		-2.983	.003
	Recovery Satisfaction	.807	.051	.506	15.726	.000
	Trust	.252	.064	.127	3.953	.000
2	Positive WOM	-1.230	.415		-2.965	.003
	Recovery Satisfaction	.804	.052	.504	15.579	.000
	Trust	.252	.064	.128	3.962	.000
	Moderator (Recovery Satisfaction * Trust)	.038	.051	.703	.743	.458

The third hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if the variable trust moderated the relationship between repurchase intentions and overall satisfaction. With regard to multicollinearity, none of the variables had correlations greater than .654 (overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions). A partial regression scatterplot provided below (see Graph 6.14) suggested that the assumption of linearity was not violated.

Graph 6.14: Partial Regression Plot of Repurchase Intentions



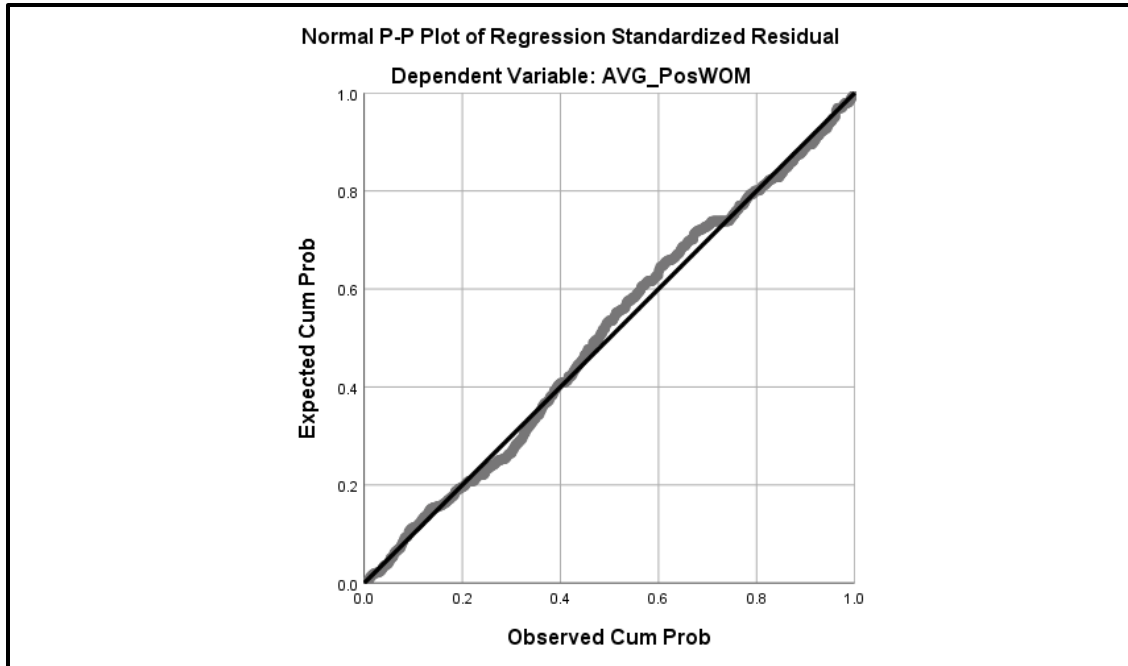
The first model (see Table 6.31) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .664$, $F(2,697) = 274.810$, $p < .005$, with overall satisfaction and trust explaining 44.1% of the variance of repurchase intentions. However, the interaction model was not statistically significant, with an R^2 change of $\leq .001$. As trust was not found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions, H4c was not supported. As it has been previously demonstrated that trust has a significant impact on repurchase intentions, this finding also suggests that trust does not moderate the relationship between overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

Table 6.31: Interaction of Overall Satisfaction and Trust on Repurchase Intentions

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Repurchase Intention	-.110	.235		-.466	.641
	Overall Satisfaction	.560	.025	.648	22.821	.000
	Trust	.142	.036	.112	3.951	.000
2	Repurchase Intention	-.110	.235		-.467	.641
	Overall Satisfaction	.560	.025	.648	22.765	.000
	Trust	.142	.036	.112	3.943	.000
	Moderator (Overall Satisfaction * Trust)	-.005	.024	-.005	-.185	.854

The next hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if the variable trust moderated the relationship between positive WOM and overall satisfaction. There was independence of residuals, as assessed by a Durbin Watson statistic of 1.479. In addition, the scatterplot provided below (see Graph 6.15) suggested the relationship to be linear. With regard to collinearity, none of the variables had correlations greater than .609 (overall satisfaction and positive WOM). Results from the casewise diagnostics indicated that one case scored below 3 SDs. As with the previous models, assumption of normality was tested with a Normal Q-Q plot (see Graph 6.15).

Graph 6.15: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Trust and Overall Satisfaction



The first model (see Table 6.32) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .391$, $F(2,697) = 224.142$, $p < .005$, with overall satisfaction and trust explaining 39% of the variance in positive WOM. The interaction model was also statistically significant, with an R^2 change of .006, $R^2 = .391$, $F(1,696) = 6.599$, $p < .01$. As trust was found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions, H4d was supported. This finding is consistent with previous research (Chaparro-Pelaez et al., 2015), and suggests trust plays a critical role in the customer-service provider relationship over time.

Table 6.32: Interaction of Overall Satisfaction and Trust on Positive WOM

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Positive WOM	-1.868	.383		-4.875	.000
	Overall Satisfaction	.812	.040	.601	20.290	.000
	Trust	.280	.059	.142	4.787	.000
2	Positive WOM	-1.868	.382		-4.882	.000
	Overall Satisfaction	.805	.040	.596	20.149	.000
	Trust	.284	.058	.144	4.872	.000
	Moderator (Overall Satisfaction * Trust)	.102	.040	.076	2.569	.010

A fifth hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if the variable trust moderated the relationship between negative WOM and overall satisfaction. With the exception of outliers (three cases scored above 3 SDs), none of the other assumptions were violated.

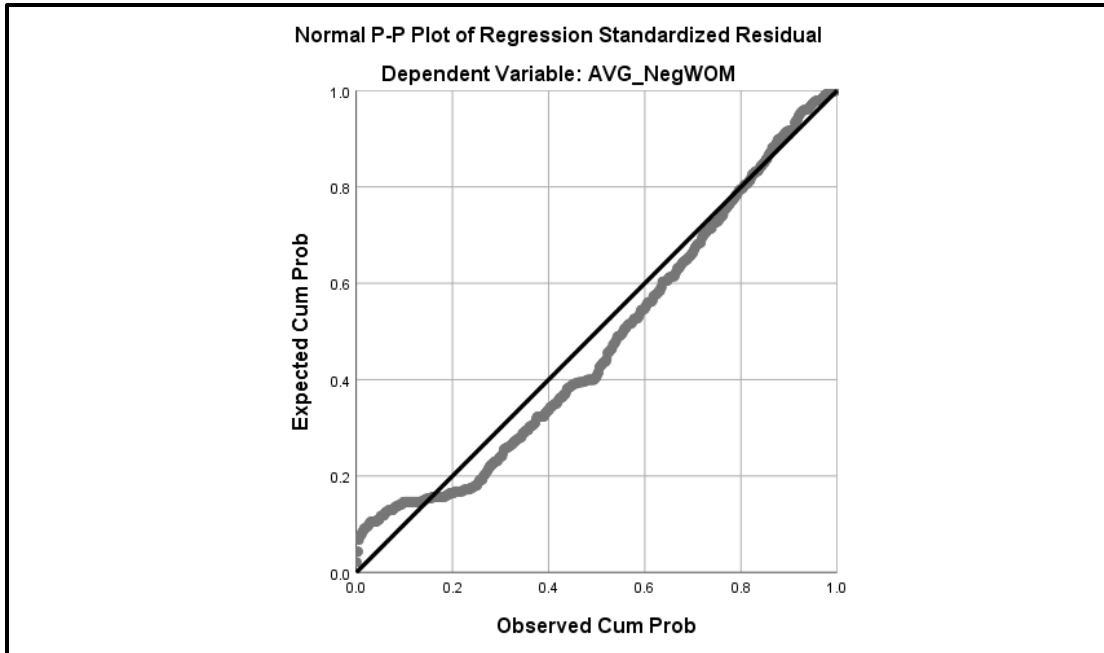
The first model was statistically significant, $R^2 = .561$, $F(2,697) = 160.297$, $p < .005$, with overall satisfaction and trust explaining 44.1% of the variance of repurchase intentions (see Table 6.33). However, the interaction model was not statistically significant, with an R^2 change of $\leq .001$. As trust was not found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions, H4e was not supported. This finding suggests that the role that trust plays on the relationship between overall satisfaction and negative WOM is different than the one it was found to play on the relationship between and overall satisfaction and positive WOM.

Table 6.33: Interaction of Overall Satisfaction and Trust on Negative WOM

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Negative WOM	5.497	.336		-4.875	.000
	Overall Satisfaction	-.628	.035	-.562	20.290	.000
	Trust	.074	.051	.045	4.787	.149
2	Negative WOM	5.498	.336		-4.882	.000
	Overall Satisfaction	-.629	.035	-.564	20.149	.000
	Trust	.075	.051	.046	4.872	.144
	Moderator (Overall Satisfaction * Trust)	.024	.035	.021	2.569	.500

A sixth hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if the variable trust moderates the relationship between negative WOM and recovery satisfaction. A simple scatterplot of the residuals by unstandardized predicted values suggested the relationship to be linear, with homoscedasticity. Multicollinearity diagnostics were assessed and were within an acceptable range (none of the variables have correlations greater than -.404). Although the assumption of outliers was violated, as three cases scored below 3 SD, the assumption of normality (see Graph 6.16) did not appear to be violated.

Graph 6.16: Normal Q-Q Plot of Negative WOM



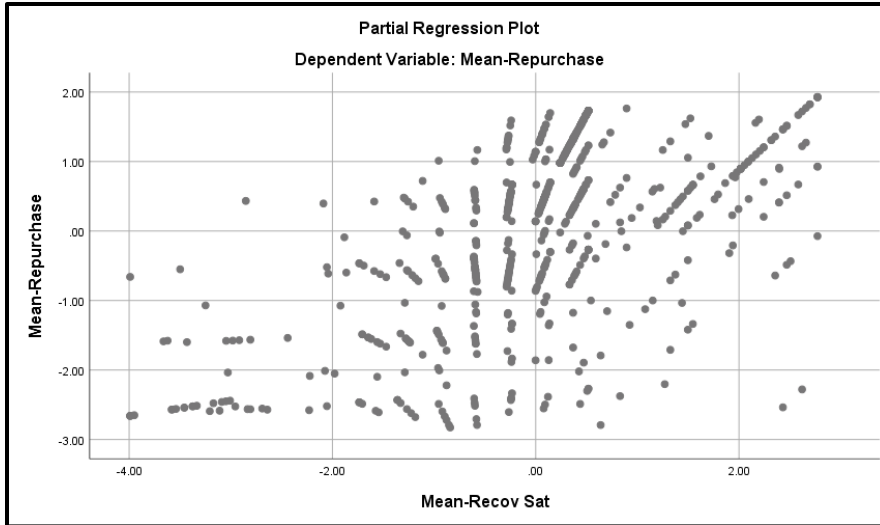
The first model (see Table 6.34) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .408$, $F(2,697) = 69.472$, $p < .005$, with recovery satisfaction and trust explaining 16.4 % of the variance of negative WOM. However, the interaction model was not statistically significant, with an R^2 change of .001. As trust was not found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between overall satisfaction and negative WOM, H4f was not supported. Thus, this finding further demonstrated that trust does not moderate the relationship between recovery satisfaction and the post-recovery outcomes (repurchase intentions, positive WOM, or negative WOM).

Table 6.34: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Trust on Negative WOM

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Negative WOM	4.682	.370		12.669	.000
	Recovery Satisfaction	-.539	.046	-.410	-11.783	.000
	Trust	.086	.057	.052	1.508	.132
2	Negative WOM	4.672	.370		12.638	.000
	Recovery Satisfaction	-.535	.046	-.406	-11.638	.000
	Trust	.085	.057	.052	1.494	.136
	Moderator (Recovery Satisfaction * Trust)	-.044	.045	.033	-.963	.336

A seventh hierarchical regression was conducted to determine if the variable commitment moderated the relationship between repurchase intentions and recovery satisfaction. The scatterplot provided below (see Graph 6.17) suggested the relationship to be linear. With regard to collinearity, none of the variables had correlations greater than .580 (recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions). However, two violations were assessed. First, the assumption of independence of residuals, as assessed by Durbin Watson (.031), suggested the assumption of independent observations was violated. Second, the assumption of outliers was violated, as three cases scored above 3 SDs. As with the previous models, the assumption of normality, tested with a Normal Q-Q plot indicated that the data was approximately normally distributed.

Graph 6.17: Partial Regression Plot of Repurchase Intentions by Recovery Satisfaction



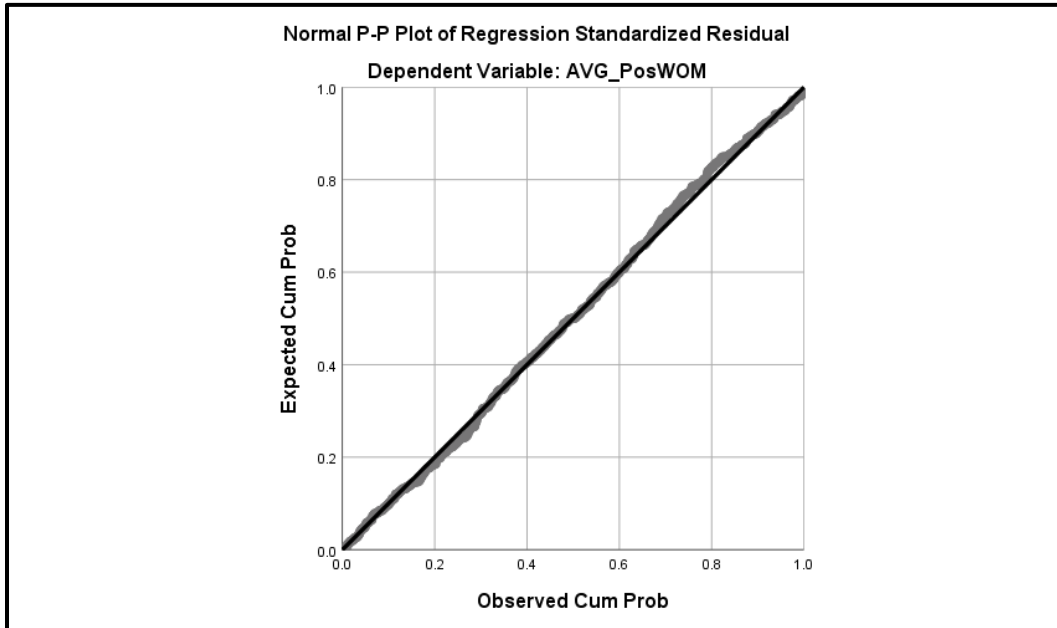
The first model was statistically significant, $R^2 = .593$, $F(2,697) = 188.613$, $p < .005$, with recovery satisfaction and commitment explaining 35.1% of the variance of repurchase intentions. However, the interaction model was not statistically significant, with an R^2 change of $\leq .001$ (see Table 6.35). Since commitment was not found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions, H4g was not supported. Thus, the findings suggested that commitment does not play a significant moderating role in the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

Table 6.35: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Commitment on Repurchase Intentions

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Repurchase Intention	4.682	.370		12.669	.000
	Recovery Satisfaction	-.539	.046	-.410	-11.783	.000
	Commitment	.086	.057	.052	1.508	.132
2	Repurchase Intention	4.672	.370		12.638	.000
	Recovery Satisfaction	-.535	.046	-.406	-11.638	.000
	Commitment	.085	.057	.052	1.494	.136
	Moderator (Recovery Satisfaction * Commitment)	-.044	.045	.033	-.963	.336

The eighth (and final hierarchical regression) was conducted to determine if the variable commitment moderated the relationship between positive WOM and recovery satisfaction. None of the assumptions of a hierarchical multiple regression were violated, including the normality of data (see Graph 6.18).

Graph 6.18: Normal Q-Q Plot of Positive WOM by Commitment and Recovery Satisfaction



The first model (see Table 6.36) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .575$, $F(2,697) = 172.208$, $p < .005$, with recovery satisfaction and commitment explaining 33.1% of the variance in positive WOM. However, the interaction model was not statistically significant, with an R^2 change of .001. Since commitment was not found to be a moderating factor on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM, H4h was not supported. However, commitment was found to have a significant impact on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.

Table 6.36: Interaction of Recovery Satisfaction and Commitment on Positive WOM

Model	Variable	B	SE B	β	t	Sig.
1	Positive WOM	-.869	.264		-3.289	.001
	Recovery Satisfaction	.814	.049	.510	16.453	.000
	Commitment	.299	.037	.248	7.988	.000
2	Positive WOM	-.843	.265		-3.180	.002
	Recovery Satisfaction	.808	.050	.507	16.282	.000
	Commitment	.298	.037	.247	7.954	.000
	Moderator (Recovery Satisfaction * Commitment)	.033	.029	.036	1.169	.243

As displayed in the figure below (see Figure 6.4), hypothesis H4d was supported. H4a, H4b, H4c, H4e, H4g, H4h were not supported.

Figure 6.4: Results for Objective Four

Hypothesis	Outcome
H4a: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.	Not Supported
H4b: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.	Not Supported
H4c: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and repurchase intentions.	Not Supported
H4d: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and positive WOM.	Supported

Figure 6.4 Continued

H4e: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and negative WOM.	Not Supported
H4f: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and negative WOM.	Not Supported
H4g: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.	Not Supported
H4h: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.	Not Supported

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The final chapter of this study is divided into three sections. The first section provides an in-depth assessment of the findings reported in Chapter VI. In the second section, the theoretical and practical implications derived from the findings are discussed. In the third and final section limitations to this current study, as well as recommendations for future research, are provided.

Inspection of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of the determinants and outcomes of service recovery through the use of Rawls' (1971) justice theory in a hospitality context. Specifically, the study aimed to assess the dimensionality of the service recovery construct proposed by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998) and identify measures of service recovery satisfaction from a multidimensional perspective. The model proposed by Tax, Brown, and Chandreshekar (1998) was further extended to include the magnitude or severity of the service failure; the service experience which predates the service failure. Furthermore, this study examined how “culinary travelers” differed from “non-culinary travelers” in the context of restaurant service recovery. Finally, this study aimed at incorporating the variables of “trust” and “commitment” in an attempt to better understand the impact of service recovery on the service provider –

customer relationship. Results of each of the hypotheses are provided below (see Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Study Hypotheses and Results

Hypothesis		Results
Objective One	H1a: Post-recovery satisfaction will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Not Supported
	H1b: The perception of a lack of distributive justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Supported
	H1c: The perception of a lack of interactional justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Not Supported
	H1d: The perception of a lack of procedural justice will have a significant and negative impact on post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure is perceived to be severe compared to moderate.	Supported
	H1e: Post-recovery repurchase intentions will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Supported
	H1f: Post-recovery positive WOM will be significantly higher for service failures perceived to be moderate compared to severe.	Supported
Objective Two	H2a: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
	H2b: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
	H2c: The omission of procedural justice has a negative and significant impact on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
	H2d: The omission of distributive justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Supported
	H2e: The omission of interactional justice has a negative and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Not Supported
	H2f: The omission of procedural justice has a positive and significant impact on overall firm satisfaction.	Not Supported

Table 7.1 Continued

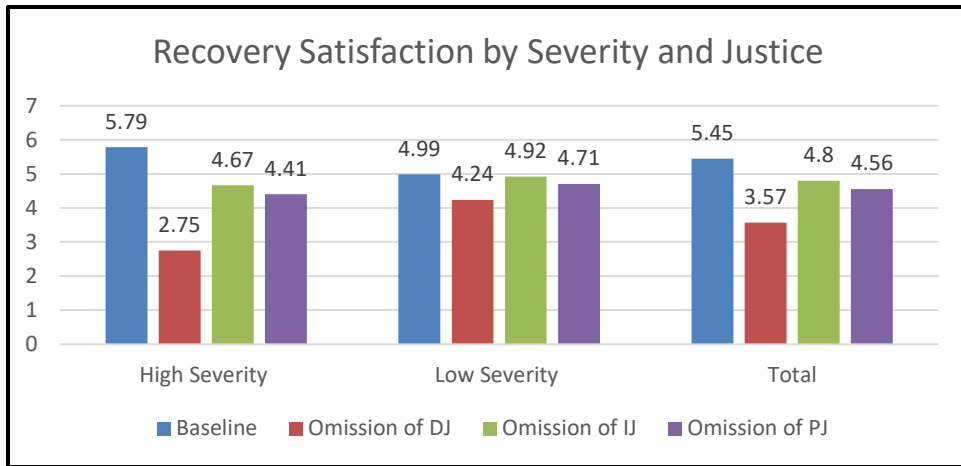
	H2g: Satisfaction with recovery positively and significantly affects overall firm satisfaction.	Supported
	H2h: Satisfaction levels will be higher for non-culinary travelers compared to culinary travelers.	Not Supported
Objective Three	H3a: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on repurchase intentions	Supported
	H3b: Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on positive WOM.	Supported
	H3c: Post-recovery satisfaction has a negative effect on negative WOM.	Supported
	H3d: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on repurchase intentions.	Supported
	H3e: Satisfaction with the firm has a positive effect on positive WOM.	Supported
	H3f: Satisfaction with the firm has a negative effect on negative WOM.	Supported
Objective Four	H4a: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.	Not Supported
	H4b: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and positive WOM.	Not Supported
	H4c: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and repurchase intentions.	Not Supported
	H4d: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and positive WOM.	Supported
	H4e: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and negative WOM.	Not Supported
	H4f: Trust has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between satisfaction with the firm and negative WOM.	Not Supported
	H4g: Commitment has a significant moderating effect on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions.	Not Supported

Although the mean scores for recovery satisfaction for low severity were mostly higher than those for respondents in the high severity group, results of the initial one-way ANOVA suggested no significant difference in service recovery satisfaction among the two severity groups ($p > .05$), and thus H1a was not supported. This finding contradicts the research previously examining the role of severity on service recovery satisfaction, which has found severity to play a critical role in service recovery (Chang et al., 2015). Specifically, previous research has intimated that service failures identified as severe are less likely to result in recovery satisfaction (Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999).

It should be noted, however, that no account was taken for the level or quality of the service recovery in what was the initial examination of severity. In other words, the perception of justice was not included in this analysis. To more fully examine the impact of severity on service recovery satisfaction, additional tests were conducted.

To determine the impact of service failure severity and recovery justice on post-recovery satisfaction (H1b, H1c, and H1d), a two-way ANOVA was conducted. Upon inspecting the descriptive statistics of recovery satisfaction by severity and justice (see Table 7.1), a potential explanation for the rejection of H1 was revealed.

Graph 7.1: Descriptive Statistics of Recovery Satisfaction



The predicted outcomes, as it was assumed respondents of the low severity group would record a higher recovery satisfaction mean compared to respondents' of the high severity group, matched the results with one exception: participants of the "high severity baseline" condition scored higher recovery satisfaction than the "low severity baseline" condition group. This finding suggests that the impact of severity can be neutralized when service recovery attempts provide all three justice dimensions.

Regarding the results of the two-way ANOVA measuring severity and justice for recovery satisfaction, a significant interaction was found ($p < .001$). Thus, severity was found to be a critical factor in recovery satisfaction when justice is considered. However, results also indicated that of the two, justice has a stronger impact on service recovery than severity. Furthermore, post hoc tests confirmed that, among the two

severity types, participants in the high severity group who were denied distributive justice (H1b) or denied procedural justice (H1d) were significantly less satisfied with the recovery than those in the low severity group.

Although severity has been prominently discussed and examined in service recovery research (Swanson & Hsu, 2011), the interaction between severity and justice has not. Therefore, the finding that recovery satisfaction (resulting from a justice) is more difficult to produce when the service failure is severe provided empirical evidence to what had previously been proposed. The finding that the omission of interactional justice was not statistically significant between the two severity groups (H1c), combined with the relatively high mean scores for both groups (second highest to the baseline condition), suggests that interactional justice is likely to be less impactful on recovery satisfaction regardless of the severity of the service failure. In sum, service recovery satisfaction is most significantly impacted by severity when respondents are denied distributive justice, followed by procedural justice.

In addition to recovery satisfaction, results of a two-way ANOVA found the interaction between severity and justice on repurchase intentions to be statistically significant ($p < 0.001$). The average mean score among participants in the high severity condition was 3.06 (on a 5-point scale), while the average mean score among participants in the low severity condition was 4.10. Thus, while participants in the high severity condition barely registered a positive repurchase intentions score, participants in the low severity condition, regardless of the justice dimensions provided in the service recovery, scored a “likely” repurchase intentions score. However, the interaction

between justice and severity only explained 17% of the variance on repurchase intentions. Compared to the impact of severity and justice on recovery satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.457$), it would appear that factors other than severity may better explain post-recovery repurchase intent.

It was also found that positive WOM was significantly higher among those respondents who had experienced a service failure considered to be moderate as opposed to severe ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the interaction between severity and justice on both repurchase intentions and positive WOM were significant (H1e and H1f were supported). However, as with repurchase intentions, the interaction between severity and justice explained just 17% of the variance of positive WOM. Based on these findings, the interaction between severity and justice was most successful in explaining the variance on recovery satisfaction.

The findings associated with objective one indicated that the severity of the service failure can have a critical impact on recovery satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and positive WOM. Specifically, severe service failures were found to be less likely to result in repurchase intentions or positive WOM. Although the results concerning recovery satisfaction are relatively less explicit, the results suggest that (in most cases), the odds of delivering a satisfactory service recovery are better when the service failure is considered to be moderate.

The primary objective of this study was to determine which (if any) justice dimension(s) were most impactful on customer satisfaction following a service recovery.

However, two important aspects of this study should be mentioned. First, in order to determine the impact each of the three justice dimensions has on satisfaction, each justice dimension was manipulated in four unique service recovery experience scenarios. The baseline condition incorporated all three justice dimensions, to create a subjectively “flawless” recovery. The other three scenarios individually exposed the lack of one justice dimension by omitting it from the service recovery. The “results” attributed to the omitted justice dimension were then compared with the “results” of a baseline service recovery condition. It should be further noted that this strategy was also used to examine H1a, H1b, H1c, and H1d.

Second, although nearly all of the previous studies have examined the impact of justice on post-recovery satisfaction (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016), this study also measured the impact of service recovery on overall satisfaction. As previously mentioned, overall satisfaction has very rarely been incorporated in service recovery research.

Results of a one-way ANOVA indicated that any omission of justice had a significant impact on recovery satisfaction (supporting H2a, H2b, and H2c), with justice accounting for 32% of the variance of recovery satisfaction. This finding is very much in line with findings from previous studies examining service recovery and justice theory (Wen & Chi, 2013; Wirtz & Matilla, 2004; Cheung & To, 2016). This result would indicate that the most successful service recovery attempts are those which incorporate distributive, interactional and procedural justice.

Of the several studies that have previously examined service recovery and justice in the context of hospitality (hotels and restaurants), results have been mixed. While some studies have identified distributive justice to be the most influential determinant of post-recovery satisfaction (Choi & Choi, 2014; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999), other studies have suggested procedural justice (del Rio-Lanza et al., 2009; Karande et al., 2007) or interactional justice (Karatape, 2006; Tax et al., 1998) to be most influential among the three justice dimensions.

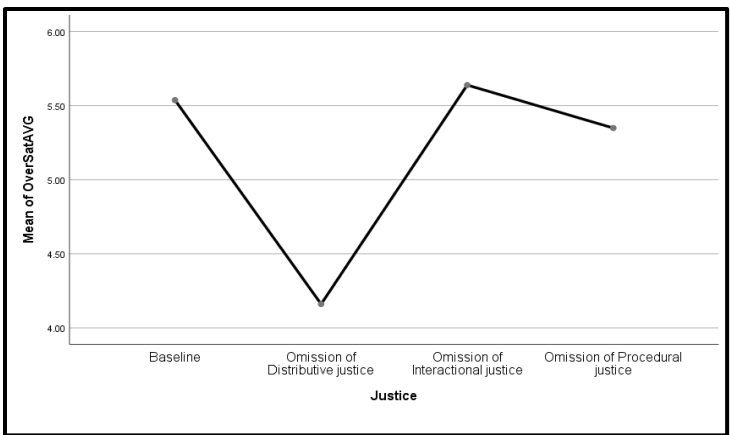
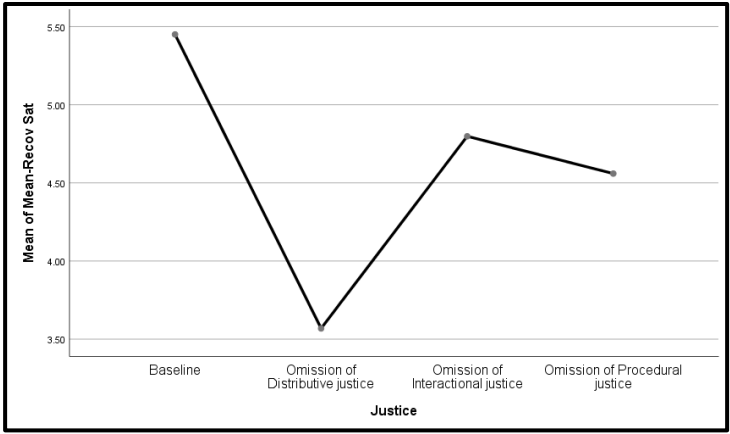
In this study, respondents of the baseline condition recorded a mean recovery satisfaction score of 5.45 (out of a possible 7). The only omission of justice to result in a mean score below 3.58 was distributive justice. Thus, the omission of distributive justice was found to have the most significant and negative impact on recovery satisfaction. The second most significant and negative influence on recovery satisfaction was the omission of procedural justice (mean of 4.56). The omission of interactional justice, also significant, was found to have the least negative impact on recovery satisfaction (mean of 4.80). Among the three omissions of justice dimensions, a statistically significant difference was found between all three with the exception of the omission of interactional justice and the omission of procedural justice. Thus, distributive justice was recognized in this study as the single most influential determinant of recovery satisfaction (or lack of satisfaction) among the three justice dimensions.

Another one-way ANOVA, examining the impact of justice on overall satisfaction with the restaurant, was conducted. The comparisons of descriptive statistics

(see Graph 7.2) illustrate the similarities and differences in results pertaining to the impact of justice on recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction with the restaurant.

The lines representing the mean scores for both graphs appear to follow a similar pattern, with the line indicating the omission of distributive justice falling sharply from the baseline condition, and the distance between the omission of interactional and procedural justice being rather narrow.

Graph 7.2: Comparison of Descriptive Results for Recovery Satisfaction (top) and Overall Satisfaction (bottom)



However, the omission of distributive justice was the only condition found to be statistically significant for overall satisfaction. Thus, while H2d was supported, H2e and H2f were not. In addition, the mean justice scores for all of the recovery satisfaction scores are lower than the corresponding overall satisfaction scores. For example, the baseline condition for recovery satisfaction was 5.45 (out of 7), while the baseline condition for overall satisfaction was 5.54 (out of 7). This makes intuitive sense, in that isolated service recovery attempts may have less influence on overall satisfaction than they have on recovery satisfaction.

Finally, the mean overall satisfaction score for the omission of interactional justice (5.64) was found to be higher than the baseline condition (5.54), suggesting that the omission of interactional justice has a positive impact on overall satisfaction. This finding is contradictory to Gelbrich & Roschk (2011), and will be revisited shortly. However, consideration for all of the results pertaining to recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction would suggest that justice has a more critical influence on recovery satisfaction than overall satisfaction.

As previously reported, few previous studies have incorporated measures of both recovery and overall satisfaction (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016). Not surprisingly, few studies have examined the influence of recovery satisfaction on overall satisfaction. Results of statistical analyses (correlation analysis and linear regression analysis) suggested recovery satisfaction to be moderately correlated *with* and a statistically significant predictor *of* overall satisfaction, with recovery satisfaction explaining 44.4% of the variance of overall satisfaction. Thus, recovery satisfaction was

found to have a significant ($p < .05$) influence on overall satisfaction (H2g was supported). Therefore, service recoveries appear to have the potential to influence the customer-service provider relationship beyond the isolated service failure.

It was presumed that, based on the desires congruency model (Spreng & Olshavsky, 1993), that culinary travelers would be less satisfied than non-culinary travelers with any service recovery attempt. Subsequent findings resulting from paired t-tests (among culinary and non-culinary travelers) did not indicate a significant difference in recovery satisfaction. An independent t-test examining overall satisfaction also failed to uncover a statistically significant difference between the two groups (H2h was not supported). These results suggest there is no discerning difference in service recovery satisfaction between the two groups. However, these results could also indicate that either the distinction between the two groups was not sufficient, or the context (a restaurant chain) failed to truly identify people more involved (culinary travelers) with the restaurant selected as the participant's favorite restaurant chain. Although no significant differences were found between culinary and non-culinary travelers with respect to satisfaction, this study is the first to extend service recovery research focused on hospitality to include an examination of culinary travelers. Thus, future research is needed to better understand this phenomenon.

Part of the second objective of this study was to determine the relationship between justice and overall satisfaction. Findings indicated that the omission of distributive justice had a significant impact on overall satisfaction. Thus, distributive justice (for the second time in this study) was recognized as the single most influential

determinant of customer satisfaction. Results also indicated that a linear relationship between recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction was significant, and that recovery satisfaction could serve as a strong predictor of overall satisfaction.

Review of the service recovery literature suggests that the primary reason for restaurants to pursue better service recovery strategies is to: offset or counter a drop in repurchase intentions and positive WOM, and stave off increases in negative WOM (Chuang et al, 2012; Ambrose, Hess, & Ganesan, 2007; Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993). In short, the utility of service recovery has most often been posited as a means of mitigating potentially negative evaluations. Thus, the primary focus in service recovery research has been to examine recovery satisfaction, and how service recovery has impacted consumer evaluations. Results of a correlation analysis and a bivariate linear regression confirmed previous findings: recovery satisfaction was found to be significantly related to repurchase intentions, explaining 33.6 % of the variance of repurchase intent (H3a was supported). This finding further establishes the need for further examination of service recovery, specifically the relationship between successful service recovery and the sustainability of a hospitality firm.

Results of a second a bivariate linear regression indicated that recovery satisfaction was significantly related to positive WOM as well, explaining 26.9 % of the variance of positive WOM. Thus, H3b was supported. This finding is consistent with previous service recovery research (Choi & Choi, 2014), and serves to underscore the criticality of service recovery in producing positive customer evaluations.

An examination of negative WOM, conducted in the same manner as repurchase intentions and positive WOM, indicated that recovery satisfaction was also significantly related to negative WOM (H3c was supported). However, when compared to both repurchase intentions and positive WOM, recovery satisfaction was found to be less impactful on negative WOM. These results suggest that service recovery satisfaction is critical to positive customer evaluations. Although recovery satisfaction was found to explain only 16.3% of the variance of negative WOM, the findings give credence to the inclusion of negative WOM in future service recovery research. Although the impact of negative WOM has been suggested to have a more significant impact on the sustainability of a hospitality firm following a service failure than positive WOM (Chan & Ngai, 2010), it has been missing from much of the previous research.

The next series of bivariate regression analyses were conducted to examine the impact of overall satisfaction on repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM. As was the case with recovery satisfaction, overall satisfaction was found to be a significant predictor of repurchase intentions, positive WOM, negative WOM. Furthermore, compared to recovery satisfaction, overall satisfaction found to explain the most variance in overall repurchase intentions (42.8% versus 33.6%), positive WOM (36.8% versus 26.9%), and negative WOM (31.4% versus 16.2%). Thus, not only were H3d, H3e, and H3f supported, but the results suggest overall satisfaction with the restaurant to be a crucial factor in shaping customer post-recovery evaluations. Although the finding that overall satisfaction influences post-recovery behavior makes

intuitive sense, as overall satisfaction is likely derived from multiple past visits, overall satisfaction has been largely ignored in service recovery research.

As trust and commitment were incorporated into this study to better understand the role of “relationship marketing” in service recovery, the fourth and final objective of this study was to examine the moderating impact of trust and commitment on the relationship between the two types of customer satisfaction examined in this study and consumer evaluations (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). Preliminary correlation analyses found trust and recovery satisfaction to be significantly correlated ($r = .101$).

Specifically, regression analyses were performed to determine the moderating impact of trust on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and the following post-recovery consumer evaluations: repurchase intentions, positive WOM and negative WOM. Although trust and recovery satisfaction were found to be significant predictors of repurchase intentions (34.5%), positive WOM (28.5%), and negative WOM (16.4%), the interaction between trust and recovery satisfaction did not produce a significant change from the original model, and thus H4a, H4b, and H4e were not supported.

Beta coefficients resulting from the regression analyses indicate that both trust and recovery satisfaction significantly impacted all three consumer evaluations. However, of the two independent factors (trust and recovery satisfaction), recovery satisfaction was found to have more influence on repurchase intentions ($\beta = .570$ versus $.094$), positive WOM ($\beta = .506$ versus $.127$), and negative WOM ($\beta = -.410$ versus $.052$).

Based on these results, it would appear that while trust (with recovery satisfaction) has a significant role in explaining consumer evaluations, it is not of the moderating nature. Finally, the inverse relationship found between recovery satisfaction and negative WOM further substantiates the notion that recovery satisfaction can help to mitigate negative WOM.

A second series of regression analyses were conducted to examine the moderating impact of trust on the relationship between overall satisfaction and consumer evaluations. Based on the preliminary correlation analyses, trust and overall satisfaction were not significantly correlated ($r = .062$). As was the case with trust and recovery satisfaction, trust was not found to have a moderating effect on the relationship between overall satisfaction and repurchase intentions, or the relationship between overall satisfaction and negative WOM, and thus H4c and H4f were not supported.

Trust and overall satisfaction were both found to be significant predictors of repurchase intentions (44.1%) and negative WOM (44.1%). Comparatively speaking, the results suggested that of the two interactions (recovery satisfaction and trust OR overall satisfaction and trust), the relationship between overall satisfaction and trust had a greater influence on repurchase intentions and negative WOM. The importance of overall satisfaction with regard to repurchase intentions and negative WOM has been well supported in services marketing research (Hauser & Schwartz, 2016; Hellier et al., 2003), but has rarely been incorporated into service recovery research.

As was the case with recovery satisfaction, overall satisfaction (rather than trust) was found to have a far bigger impact on repurchase intentions and negative WOM. Also, the inverse relationship found between overall satisfaction and negative WOM further supports the premise that, in addition to recovery satisfaction, overall satisfaction can help to mitigate negative WOM.

Regression analysis was also used to examine the moderating role of trust. The findings revealed trust to be a moderating factor on the relationship between overall satisfaction and positive WOM, and thus hypothesis 4d was supported ($p < .05$). While the interaction between trust and positive WOM was found to be significant, it was also found that overall satisfaction played a larger role (than trust) in explaining positive WOM. Regardless, these findings support the notion that trust (a critical factor in relationship marketing), can have a significant moderating role in post-recovery customer evaluations.

Two regression analyses were also performed to examine the potential moderating role of commitment on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions and between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM. The results indicated that commitment (with recovery satisfaction) did not have a moderating effect on either repurchase intentions or positive WOM (and thus H4g and H4h were not supported). Furthermore, while commitment (with recovery satisfaction) was not found to be a significant factor in explaining repurchase intentions, it was found to be a significant factor in explaining positive WOM following a service recovery. Thus,

results suggest that trust and commitment, are suitable for inclusion in future service recovery research.

Although not specifically hypothesized, one last finding of the statistical tests should be addressed. A pre- and post-experimental test was conducted to determine the impact, regardless of the severity or perception of justice prescribed, of a service failure (and subsequent service recovery) on a respondent's level of trust and commitment with his or her favorite restaurant chain. As mentioned previously, the impact of trust and commitment on customer evaluations following a service recovery was found to be significant. Results of two paired t-tests indicated that service recovery had a significant and negative effect on both trust and commitment. These results provide further support for trust and commitment to be included in future service recovery research.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Theoretical Implications and Discussions

Several theoretical implications can be derived from this study. Based on Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry's (1993) concept of a "zone of tolerance", it has been postulated that an initial service failure can greatly contribute to the expectations of the service recovery, and that those expectations rise when the service experience is particularly negative. Thus, it has been suggested that service failure severity plays a key role in post-recovery attitudes and behavior (Susskind & Viccari, 2011). Supported by several studies, including Magnini et al. (2007) and Hur & Jang (2016), a central premise of this study was to examine the inverse relationship between service failure

severity and post-recovery satisfaction. According to Mattila (1999), this also applies to restaurant settings.

Descriptive results and results of a one-way ANOVA (recovery satisfaction by severity) indicated that, while recovery satisfaction was higher for “low severity” participants, the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant. These findings do not support the notion that, regardless of other factors, the severity of a service failure can significantly impinge upon a service firm’s ability to achieve post-recovery customer satisfaction. Based on these findings a more accurate assessment would be that, while severity can influence recovery satisfaction, it cannot independently determine recovery satisfaction.

To better understand how the severity of a service failure could impact customer’ post-recovery satisfaction, additional statistical analyses were conducted. Although the meta-analysis by Gelbrich & Roschk (2011) posited the link between severity and post-recovery satisfaction, few studies have specifically examined the impact of both severity and justice on post-recovery satisfaction. One such study was conducted by Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999).

Conducting identical experiments in a hotel and restaurant setting, Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999), found that both distributive and procedural justice could provide higher levels of post-recovery satisfaction when the service failure (in the hotel setting) was moderate. For restaurant patrons, only procedural justice achieved the same effect, and no significant difference in recovery satisfaction was found between the two severity

groups with respect to interactional justice. In the current study, results of a two-way ANOVA (severity and justice for recovery satisfaction) indicated that severity combined with justice had a significant influence on recovery satisfaction. In addition, participants who were omitted distributive justice and participants who were omitted procedural justice group were significantly more satisfied with the recovery when the service failure was moderate. Thus, these findings support Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999) and suggest that distributive and procedural justice can positively impact recovery satisfaction when the service failure is considered moderate and not severe.

It has also been theorized that, regardless of the service recovery strategy, severe service failures are more likely to result in negative customer behaviors than service failures deemed to be less severe (Cho, Jang, & Kim, 2017; Wang et al., 2011). However, only one previous study was found to have examined the impact of justice and severity on post-recovery repurchase intentions (Susskind & Viccari, 2011), and those results were inconclusive. Although not directly transferable, Nikbin, Iranmanesh, Hyun, Baharun, & Kim (2015) examined the interaction between justice and severity on negative emotions. Results of their study indicated that interactional justice and procedural justice lessened negative emotions when the service failure was deemed to be minor.

Findings of the current study, based on two one-way ANOVAs, suggest that severity has a significant impact on both repurchase intent and positive WOM. Subsequently, severity was found to explain 17% of the variance in repurchase intentions and 17% of the variance in positive WOM. This is an important contribution

to service recovery research, as it further supports the notion that severe service failures are, regardless of the quality of the service recovery, less likely to result in positive customer behaviors.

To summarize, the majority of this study's findings for objective one would suggest that severity plays a significant role in recovery satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and positive WOM. However, as severity was found to have no significant impact on recovery satisfaction, combined with the finding that severity had a small (albeit significant) effect size on explaining service recovery (compared to justice), it would appear that severity does not play as large a role in influencing service recovery as was previously theorized. It was also found that only some justice dimensions (distributive and procedural) interact with severity to impact service recovery. Therefore, a more accurate assessment of severity based on the findings of this study would be: although severity can significantly influence repurchase intentions and positive WOM, the relationship between the severity of a service failure and service recovery is more complex than previously proposed.

As the second objective of this study was to assess the impact of justice on customer satisfaction, the justice model originally proposed by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998) was tested. According to the justice model, the perception of justice for all three dimensions (distributive justice, interactional justice, and procedural justice) has a direct and positive impact on post-recovery customer satisfaction. Although the majority of previous studies have found all three justice dimensions to be

significant, it remains unclear which justice dimension(s) has the most influence on customer satisfaction (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016; Murphy et al., 2015).

Similar inconsistencies have been reported for studies which have examined the justice model in a restaurant setting. For example, while Blodgett et al (1997) and Chang & Chang (2010) reported interactional justice as the justice dimension most responsible for customer satisfaction, Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005) and del Rio-Lanza et al (2009) found procedural justice to have the largest influence on satisfaction. Key findings from this study, based on a one-way ANOVA (recovery satisfaction by justice dimensions), include the following: First, the three distinct, yet interrelated dimensions of justice have a significant impact on recovery satisfaction. Thus, this study supports the underlying premise of the model proposed by Tax et al. (1998); the most successful service recoveries (with respect to recovery satisfaction) are those which provide distributive justice, interactional justice, and procedural justice. Furthermore, the justice model explained 32% of the variance in recovery satisfaction.

Second, it was found that, among the three justice dimensions, the omission of distributive of justice had the most significant and negative impact on recovery satisfaction. In other words, distributive justice was found to be the most influential justice dimension on recovery satisfaction. Although previous attempts to identify the most critical justice dimension have been mixed, studies within the context of hospitality have, more often than not, suggested distributive justice to be the least impactful of the three justice dimensions on recovery satisfaction (Tax et al., 1998; Ok, Back, & Shanklin., 2005; Choi & Choi, 2014). Researchers have previously attributed this to the

intimacy associated with hospitality, and equate dining to an “experience” rather than a simple transaction. This finding may be due in part to the context of the experimental design. In the current study, participants were provided a list of popular restaurant chains, and asked to select their favorite. Thus, it is possible that respondents indicated distributive justice to be the most important justice dimension because they had not formed true loyalty to any of the chain restaurants provided.

The theoretical underpinning for justice in a hospitality setting appears to lack empirical consistency. Based on this study’s finding, it would appear that previous theoretical declarations could potentially have been based on “romanticized” notions of justice for restaurant patrons. The finding of distributive justice to be the most significant of the three justice dimensions on recovery satisfaction contributes to the existing body of “mixed results”. However, the finding also provides credence to the notion that justice is context-specific, meaning that different justice dimensions are likely more important than others depending on the service failure setting.

While customer satisfaction has been examined in nearly all previous studies examining service recovery, few studies have differentiated transaction-specific satisfaction from overall satisfaction (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016). To date, it is believed that only Maxham & Netemeyer (2002) has examined the impact of justice on both types of satisfaction. They found that all three dimensions of justice positively and significantly influenced both recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Findings from this current study further only one of these claims. While results of a one-way ANOVA (overall satisfaction by justice) indicated the impact of justice on overall

satisfaction to be significant, Post hoc tests revealed the omission of distributive justice to be the only justice dimension significantly different than the baseline condition. Thus, another important theoretical implication of this study would be the validation of distributive justice as a critical factor for both recovery satisfaction and satisfaction with the firm.

Perhaps the single most surprising result of this study involves the impact of interactional justice on overall satisfaction. Participants selected to the baseline condition averaged a lower overall satisfaction score than participants who were selected to the omission of interactional justice condition. This finding is in stark contrast with previous research, but does provide for another potentially important theoretical implication: because recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction are distinct types of satisfaction, future research in service recovery should determine how they are uniquely influenced by the three justice dimensions.

Maxham & Netemeyer (2002) also found recovery satisfaction to have a significant impact on overall firm satisfaction. The theoretical significance of this finding is based on the assertion that overall satisfaction significantly influences the long-term relationship between customers and service providers (Seiders & Berry, 1998). Therefore, in order to better ensure a customer's overall satisfaction with a firm, the service firm would likely be best served in providing satisfactory service recovery. This assertion was validated in this study, as results of a linear regression indicated that recovery satisfaction significantly predicted overall satisfaction. Recovery satisfaction

was also found to explain 44.4% of the variance in overall satisfaction, suggesting that the ramifications of service recovery extend beyond single incidents of service failure.

Although no previous literature was found to have examined service recovery with regard to heavy and light users, the notion that culinary travelers would be significantly less satisfied with service recovery than non-culinary travelers was underpinned by Spreng & Olshavsky's (1993) desires congruency model. Their model suggests that the higher a patron's expectations are, or the more they desire an experience (i.e. the more involved they are), the less likely they are to be satisfied. In this study, no significant difference was found between culinary and non-culinary travelers. However, the inclusion of culinary travelers in a hospitality context is believed to be an important addition to the body of service recovery research. This finding suggests that future research should better delineate the more involved patrons.

In all, several theoretical implications can be made from this study's second objective. First, findings from this study validate the justice model proposed by Tax et al. (1998). Second, additional service recovery research is needed, as the impact of each justice dimension remains unclear. Third, based on the findings of this study, the (largely anecdotal) presupposition that recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction are distinct but interrelated has merit. And last, the model proposed by Tax et al. (1998) should be extended to groups like culinary travelers, in order to better determine how different usage levels impacts justice perceptions.

Regarding this study's third objective, the proposed hypotheses were designed to examine how both recovery satisfaction and recovery with the firm influenced post-recovery evaluations. According to the model proposed by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998), and verified many times over (Van Vaerenbergh & Orsingher, 2016; Li & Zhan, 2011), post-recovery satisfaction has been conceptualized to have a significant and positive impact on repurchase intentions and positive WOM.

Results of correlation analyses and linear regressions suggested that recovery satisfaction had a significant and positive influence on both repurchase intentions and positive WOM. Thus, the role that recovery satisfaction has been previously theorized to play on post-recovery customer behavior was verified by this study. This is believed to be an important theoretical finding, as it illustrates the long-term impact of service recovery.

Although the distinction between both types of satisfaction has been largely unexamined in service recovery research (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011), the following examples provide some insight into how the present beliefs on recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction were formed. Findings from Siu, Zhang, & Yau (2013) suggested that recovery satisfaction alone does not significantly influence repurchase intentions. However, additional results from their study found a significant and positive indirect effect of recovery satisfaction on repurchase intentions through overall satisfaction with the firm. Similarly, Maxham & Netemeyer (2002) found recovery satisfaction to positively influence positive WOM, and overall satisfaction to positively impact repurchase intentions. With little empirical support to provide direction, it was thus

hypothesized that satisfaction with the firm would significantly and positively impact repurchase intentions and positive WOM.

As was the case with recovery satisfaction, results of correlation analyses and linear regressions suggested overall satisfaction had a significant and positive influence on both repurchase intentions and positive WOM. However, it should also be noted that overall satisfaction was identified in the current study as a better predictor for both repurchase intentions and positive WOM. Whereas recovery satisfaction was found to explain 33.6% of the variance of repurchase intent and 26.9% of the variance on positive WOM, overall satisfaction was found to explain 42.8% of the variance on repurchase intentions and 36.8% of the variance on positive WOM. This is also believed to be an important theoretical implication; as overall satisfaction has been largely omitted from service recovery research.

Similar to overall satisfaction, negative WOM has not been of particular focus for much of the previous research of service recovery (Orsingher, Valentini, & de Angelis, 2010). However, both positive and negative forms of WOM have been suggested to be important outcomes of service recovery (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008; Choi & Choi, 2014). Although not directly tied to the justice model proposed by Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar (1998), it has been postulated that recovery satisfaction can mitigate negative WOM (Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski, 2017; Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993). In addition, Wirtz & Mattila (2004), who examined service recovery in a casual dining setting, found overall satisfaction to have a significant and positive impact on negative WOM.

As both recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction were found to be significant predictors of negative WOM, the current study provides empirical support to this contested proposition. This theoretical contribution to the service recovery model is believed to be important, as negative WOM has been suggested to surpass positive WOM in terms of reach (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2015) and impact (Murphy et al., 2015). Guided by prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), researchers have posited that customers are twice as likely to engage in negative WOM as they are likely to engage in positive WOM (Israeli, Lee, & Karpinski, 2017; Ye, Law, & Gu, 2009). Thus, future service recovery research should likely include examination of negative WOM.

To summarize, the theoretical implications associated with objective three include the following: it was further demonstrated that recovery satisfaction is a significant predictor of repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM. Overall satisfaction was also demonstrated to be a significant predictor of repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM, and to an even greater extent than recovery satisfaction. Thus, these findings serve to illustrate the potential long-term repercussions of service recovery via both recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction. Finally, a case for extending the justice model to include negative WOM was supported empirically.

The fourth objective of this study was to synthesize two theoretical approaches into one service recovery model by incorporating key components of relationship marketing to service recovery research. Specifically, the moderating effects of “trust” and “commitment” on repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM were

examined. Although service recovery studies have rarely adopted the relationship marketing (RM) approach in explaining consumer evaluations (Basso & Pizzutti, 2016), the positive influence of trust and commitment on service inconsistencies has been well-established (Hsu, Liu, & Lee, 2010). According to Morgan & Hunt (1994), trust and commitment (as critical elements of RM), are vital to the service recovery process because of the role they play in maintaining and enhancing the relationship between customers and service providers.

Previously, trust has been suggested to moderate the relationship between recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions, and the relationship between recovery satisfaction and positive WOM (Ding, Ho, & Lii, 2015). Although no previous study was found to have examined the moderating influence of trust on the relationship between recovery satisfaction and negative WOM, previous research suggests trust to have a significant and positive impact on many types of negative post-recovery consumer behavior (Ha & Jang, 2009; DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008). As for overall satisfaction, no previous study was found which specifically suggested trust to moderate the relationship between overall satisfaction and post-recovery evaluations.

Although the link between trust and commitment (customer vulnerability) has been well-established in RM research (Bilgihan & Bujisic, 2015), commitment has scarcely been included in service recovery research (Wang & Chang, 2013). However, Ok, Back, & Shanklin (2005) found commitment to have a positive effect on post-recovery behavioral intentions. In addition, Matilla & Ro (2008) posited that affective commitment moderated customer responses to poor service recovery.

Results of a series regression analyses resulted in one supported hypothesis. Specifically, it was found that trust had a moderating effect on the relationship between overall satisfaction and positive WOM. This finding is believed to be important, as it identifies trust as a valuable factor in understanding service recovery. Although the lack of evidence tying commitment to service recovery could suggest that no significant relationship exists, this study was among the few to incorporate RM into the justice model, and only examined trust and commitment as moderating variables. Thus, future research should extend the justice model to include both trust and commitment in order to better understand the roles they play in the recovery process.

Practical Implications and Discussions

The current study also has implications for restaurant management. It was first determined that, when service recovery attempts are equal, the severity of the service failure did not significantly impact recovery satisfaction. While this finding is contrary to much of the past findings regarding severity (Goodwin & Ross, 1992; Wang et al., 2011; McQuilken, 2010), it serves a valuable lesson. In practice, restaurant employees typically react to a service failure based on their assessment of the severity. Thus severe service failures commonly induce expedited forms of service recovery, accompanied by atypically large crowds of staff members, exhibiting an increase in levels of interest and participation in the service recovery.

The potential problems with this scenario are twofold. Less effort is perceivably demonstrated for moderate service failures (damaging the potential for successful service recovery), and the “heightened” awareness and reaction by the staff could cause

an omission to the steps of what should be a standardized, well-rehearsed service recovery strategy. Therefore, by downplaying the importance of service failure severity, restaurant management would likely be better able to communicate objective recovery expectations and encourage uniformity for all service recovery attempts, regardless of severity type.

Moreover, a significant interaction between severity and justice on recovery satisfaction was also found. Specifically, it was determined that recovery satisfaction was higher for participants selected to the low severity group among all justice dimensions, save for interactional justice. Furthermore, the recovery satisfaction mean difference was found to be greatest among the two severity types selected to the omission of distributive justice condition. For restaurant management, these findings provide an important implication for future service recovery practices. In order to better ensure recovery satisfaction for restaurant patrons who suffer a severe service failure, it is imperative that they experience, above all else, the perception of distributive justice. To recall, distributive justice refers to compensation, often provided by way of discounted or free food/drink.

Restaurant management would likely thus benefit by allocating resources to best determine parameters for distributive justice (minimum, maximum, and optimum) and matching those estimates with a system for classifying service failures by severity type. A posting of this information in the back-of-the-house (BOH) would likely serve to maintain consistency and allow for revisions/updates as needed. In addition, a visual reminder for “distributive justice best practices” would likely aid in the speed of the

recovery, and thus further aid for the provision of procedural justice. In order to control costs associated with service recovery, it is further recommended that restaurant practitioners allocate percentages rather than dollar amounts whenever possible.

The impact of repurchase intentions on the sustainability of a restaurant is demonstrated by the considerable resources used in that pursuit. Accordingly, participants in this study who had suffered a severe service failure were significantly less likely to return. Of those participants, distributive justice was found to have the most significant impact on recovery satisfaction. Recognizing that service recovery is an opportunity, restaurant practitioners should consider creating a recovery which serves a dual purpose: providing patrons with what they want most in a service recovery while achieving the objective of enticing them to return.

Thus, when restaurant patrons have endured a severe service failure, practitioners should likely focus less on interactional or procedural justice. Nor should they focus on forms of distributive justice which fail to provide patrons an incentive to return. Instead, restaurant practitioners should focus on forms of distributive justice contingent upon return visits. An example of this would be a coupon for a free or discounted meal redeemable at some future date. However, delaying justice may fail to result in recovery satisfaction or repurchase intent. Therefore, restaurant practitioners should consider providing distributive justice in multiple forms, provided that one of those forms is an incentive to return.

Moreover, it was found that, regardless of the severity of the service failure, recovery satisfaction was a strong predictor of repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM. For restaurant practitioners, these findings should help to underscore the substantial need for employing successful service recovery strategies. Thus, it is recommended that restaurant practitioners develop a hiring process that identifies potential employees who are observant, coachable, and goal-oriented. This finding further suggests that restaurant managers should work at understanding best practices for obtaining recovery satisfaction. While the previously stated results suggest that distributive justice is the key, an understanding of specifically how this can be done, is likely important in forming customer loyalty.

In addition, restaurant practitioners should effectively communicate the important outcomes of recovery satisfaction with the staff. In sharing specific opportunity costs associated with repurchase intentions and incidents of positive and negative WOM, restaurant practitioners would be contributing to the concept of shared ownership. Examples of positive WOM should be regarded as team wins, and examples of negative WOM should be regarded as team losses. To further incentivize the staff, team wins (and losses) should be accompanied by team gains (and penalties).

Another important practical implication of this study is based on the finding that any omission of justice was found to have a significant impact on recovery satisfaction. In other words, a service recovery attempt which provides all three justice dimensions is significantly more likely to result in recovery satisfaction than any one justice dimension, or any combination of two justice dimensions. For restaurant practitioners,

the implication is simple: design a service recovery strategy that provides the perception of distributive, interactional, and procedural justice. Specifically, restaurant practitioners should attempt to devise a strategy aimed to fulfil all three justice dimension perceptions.

However, the findings also indicated that, among the three justice dimensions, there is a hierarchy with regard to recovery satisfaction: distributive justice is the best predictor, followed by procedural justice, followed by interactional justice. This finding can be operationalized in two ways: in situations where it is possible to provide all three dimensions of justice, restaurant practitioners should endeavor to do so, but acknowledge the existence of the hierarchy by excelling at providing distributive justice (via more resources). Further, the current study suggests that the least amount of resources should be awarded to efforts associated with interactional justice. More research is necessary in order to determine optimum levels of each type of recovery, to maximize benefits to the consumer.

It was also demonstrated that overall satisfaction was a better predictor of customer evaluations than recovery satisfaction. Also, it was also found that overall satisfaction was significantly influenced by both recovery satisfaction and justice. Thus, the implication for restaurant practitioners is that justice and recovery satisfaction transcend fleeting single service recovery experience. As restaurant staffs are likely to be unaware of this, it is imperative that restaurant practitioners communicate the far-reaching consequences of service recovery to FOH and BOH employees. They need to realize that gaining customer loyalty over the lifetime of their visits to their restaurant is

more important than just working hard once a service mistake has occurred. Thus, providing reliable customer service can help overcome future service errors.

Furthermore, among the three justice dimensions, only distributive justice was found to significantly impact overall satisfaction. This finding further demonstrates the critical impact of distributive justice. It was also again found that interactional justice had the smallest effect across all performance measures. This finding suggests that restaurant managers utilize more resources towards devising a system for providing distributive justice than for providing interactional justice.

In addition, it was found that the relationship between overall satisfaction and positive WOM was significantly moderated by trust. As the importance of positive WOM on the sustainability of a restaurant has previously been discussed, this finding demonstrates an important implication. In this study, trust was operationalized as “keeping one’s promises” and “responding to my needs”. Thus, it is recommended that trust be woven into the collective as part of the restaurant’s core values – categorized into measurable objectives. It also suggests that future research should be conducted to better understand the determinants of “trust.”

Furthermore, by demonstrating that trust moderated the relationship between overall satisfaction and positive WOM but what not found to moderate the relationship between overall satisfaction and other types of customer evaluations (repurchase intentions and negative WOM), suggests that customer evaluations are not homogenous. In other words, repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM might be

impacted differently and be situation specific. Therefore, in order to improve customer evaluations following a service failure, restaurant practitioners should consider devising service recovery strategies with specific goals. For example, if restaurant management has determined an increase in negative WOM following a service recovery poses the biggest obstacle to sustainability, the focus for service recovery strategy should be predicated on countering an increase in negative WOM. Furthermore, this finding suggests that future research should be conducted to better understand which (if any) justice dimension(s) has the most impact on each of the following: repurchase intentions, positive WOM, and negative WOM.

In this study, culinary travelers were used as a proxy for “heavy” or highly motivated users. Having demonstrated that no significant differences existed between culinary travelers and non-culinary travelers with respect to recovery satisfaction and overall satisfaction, the following implication is proposed: treat all customers with the same level of care, including service recovery. This point may seem obvious, but front of house (FOH) employees often make observation-based judgements about their guests, and these judgements could potentially influence the type of care they provide. To illustrate this point, consider the restaurant “regular”. FOH staff members generally treat patrons who regularly frequent the same restaurant (known as regulars) either with atypical levels of attentiveness or informality. Either service experience is a result of the FOH employee altering his or her “typical” level of service. As it is likely that FOH employees could identify culinary travelers through observation, it is also likely that this knowledge could influence the service experience. Therefore, restaurant practitioners

should make an effort to ensure that all guests are treated with the same level of service, including incidents of service failure.

Thus, two additional recommendations are proposed. First, the service recovery strategy must be viewed as an important requirement for all employees. Although service recovery has been suggested to be critical to a restaurant's long-term success, and a strong indicator of the quality of management, based on the current researcher's history in the food industry, it is likely that many restaurateurs do not take recovery serious enough. Although orientation handbooks for casual chain restaurants often exceed 300 pages (filled with recipes, food handling procedures and steps of service) the words "service recovery" can rarely be found. In an effort to promote consistency, both FOH and back of house (BOH) staff are typically provided step-by-step instructional guides, given live demonstrations, and closely monitored each shift. Yet, it could be argued, much less time is typically given to service recovery. In an effort to ensure effectiveness, many restaurant chains hold pre-shift meetings, at which time the staff is often reminded of daily specials and current promotional activities. These are opportunities for restaurant practitioners to reaffirm their expectations of their staff, particularly with relation to service recovery.

Second, an attempt must be made to get the staff to "buy in" to the importance of service recovery. Although many restaurant chains hold "contests" for outstanding service, it could be argued that little attention is made to successful service recovery. With the exception of customer satisfaction surveys or secret shoppers, employees generally have little insight into their own or their restaurant's service performance. In

addition, employees are also seldom likely to be given specific examples of how service recovery negatively impacts the restaurant. It is thus recommended that restaurant practitioners share all intelligence related to service recovery with the staff, while consistently discussing its importance as it relates to the restaurant's goals

Lastly, commitment was not found to be a moderating variable in this study. It was, however, demonstrated that participants' commitment levels decreased after enduring the hypothetical service failure. Although previous research has found commitment to be relatively impervious to isolated incidents of service failure, this finding would indicate that may not be the case. The lesson for restaurant practitioners can be best summarized by a quote by Dr. Leonard Berry (Zemke & Bell, 2000, pg. 30): "Do it right the first time. Fix it properly if it ever fails. Remember, there are no third chances."

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

In addition to the finite resources available for the current study, several additional limitations exist. Specifically, there were limitations associated with the sampling design, methodology, research context, and variables chosen for examination for this study. These additional limitations will now be discussed in detail.

As the sample for this study was recruited via MTurk, an online panel recruiting service, participants for this study were limited to MTurk "workers" willing and available to participate during the recruiting period (March 28th through February 2nd 2018). Although MTurk has been suggested as a good option among online recruiting

firms (Horton, Rand, & Zeckhauser, 2011; Aguinis & Lawal, 2012), the use of any panel data in empirical research is subject to scrutiny (Chandler & Shapiro, 2016). In addition, although the criteria for selection was deemed appropriate for this study (i.e., U.S. resident, over the age of 18, and had experienced a service failure in the past two years), it remains a non-probabilistic quota sample. As the sample was neither a census nor a true random sample of the general population, results of this study should likely not be generalized to the general population (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

With respect to methodology, one limitation was associated with the arbitrary process by which the “culinary traveler” was identified. To date, it is believed this study was the first to examine the role of culinary travel with respect to service recovery, and thus no methodological blueprint was available. In this study, all participants were requested to self-identify as culinary or non-culinary travelers based on a culinary travel scale (Stone & Migacz, 2016). Subsequently, culinary travelers were determined to be participants who achieved a score above a mean average of 5.5, and non-culinary travelers were those participants with a mean score below 5.5. Although the strategy for differentiating culinary travelers from non-culinary travelers seemed acceptable, the lack of results (no significant difference was found between culinary and non-culinary satisfaction) could be in part due to the manner in which the culinary traveler was determined. Thus, future researchers should explore a more effective strategy for determining culinary travelers. One potential way for doing this would be to cluster analyze the items from the culinary traveler scale, to see if differential dimensions exist beyond “high” and “low.”

Further limiting the methodology of this study involved the manner in which “severity” and “justice”, the two experimental condition of this study, were manipulated. In this study, the impact of the service failure was only considered as either moderate or severe. Although the parameters for service failure severity were based on previous research, it is likely that severity is a more complex concept, contingent upon a customer’s previous experiences, culture, and circumstance. Thus, it is recommended that the complexity of service failure severity should be addressed in future research, by potentially including at least three levels of failure.

Regarding justice, one of the objectives of this study was to determine the contribution of each of the three distinct yet interrelated justice dimensions. To do so, participants were randomly selected to one of the following conditions: a baseline condition, the omission of distributive justice, the omission of interactional justice, or the omission of procedural justice. To identify the impact of each justice dimension, each condition of omission was assessed by comparison to the baseline condition. Although the majority of previous empirical studies have examined justice dimensions by randomly selecting participants to isolating each justice dimension, this study was not the first to examine justice in this manner (Migacz, Zou, & Petrick, 2018). Despite the proposition that the current methodology provided an acceptable comparison, it has become clear in hindsight that the examination of each justice dimension, with regard to service recovery, was not fully explored. Thus, future research should consider the inclusion of an additional option, a “no justice” condition, to be implemented as an additional object of comparison to the previous four justice conditions.

Much of the methodological limitations, however, are tied to the experimental design. As previously described, service recovery research has either requested respondents to recall previous incidents of service recovery or provided respondents with hypothetical scenarios in which they experience an “imaginary” service recovery. Although it was decided that the advantages to an experimental design (i.e., no memory bias, control of extraneous variables) outweighed the disadvantages, those disadvantages remain.

Also, the use of hypothetical scenarios and justice conditions, as they have been previously conceptualized, can compromise the ecological validity of a study (Bryman & Bell, 2011). A “manufactured” setting, as opposed to a field setting, is likely to result in controlling for variables that may alter the results in unexpected ways. Thus, future research should attempt to examine justice in real/organic settings, instead of using fictitious scenarios.

Further, although interactional justice has previously been operationalized with human interactions ranging from courtesy to kindness (Kau & Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006), it was manipulated in this study via an apology- the restaurant representative apologizes twice for the service failure. For those participants who were randomly selected to the omission of interactional justice condition, no apology was provided. Did the manipulation incorporated in this study effectively represent interactional justice? Based on the results of the manipulation checks, it can be posited that participants were competently able to discern justice from a lack of justice. However, contrary to previous research (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2003; Gelbrich & Roschk, 2011), interactional justice

was not found to significantly contribute to post-recovery satisfaction. It is possible that a more inclusive operationalization of each justice dimension would have gleaned different results.

Furthermore, the use of hypothetical scenarios could pose as too demanding upon the participant's ability to evoke perceptions of justice in a manner comparable to a "real" service recovery experience. As true service failures have been suggested to engender strong emotion (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Berry & Parasuraman, 1993), it is more than likely that a certain level of "emotional awareness" cannot be duplicated via hypothetical scenarios. Future research should consider providing participants with hypothetical scenarios designed to increase engagement (i.e., embedded images, videos, or cartoons), and/or, as suggested above, attempt to use real/organic experiences.

A final limitation associated with methodology involves the statistical analyses conducted for this study. One-way and two-way ANOVAs, T tests, and regression analyses were run because they were thought to test the proposed hypotheses in a clear and explicit manner. Although the author feels that the analyses designed to test the proposed hypotheses met those expectations, more advanced research analysis methods could have been incorporated. Theoretically, a structural equation model (SEM) could have been used to examine several relationships between the variables of interest in this study simultaneously. Although advanced research analysis will undoubtedly demand more stringent requirements with regard to statistical assumptions, SEM should be employed in future research endeavors.

Another limitation of this study involves the context. This study focused on the hospitality industry, specifically the chain restaurant context. Based on previous research, service recovery is context-specific (Xu, Tronvoll, & Edvardson, 2014), meaning that the reactions, expectations, and implications of any service failure are partly attributable to the service type in question. The justification for examining service recovery in the context of restaurants, discussed in detail in the introduction of this study, is based on several factors which include the following: the hospitality industry is more heavily scrutinized for service recovery performance than most other service industries, restaurant-specific service failures (and recoveries) are common and thus easy for participants to recognize, and the long-standing lack of success in service recovery has negatively and significantly impacted restaurant management and customers alike.

Although the rationale for examining service recovery in the context of restaurants was attempted to be justified, previous research suggests that no service industry is immune to service failure (Murphy et al., 2015; Park, Kim, & O'Neill, 2014; McCollough & Bharadwaj, 1992). Therefore, it can be assumed that examining service recovery in other service contexts is both necessary and likely to result in findings different than those derived from this study. Thus, further examination of service recovery within and without the context of hospitality, should be pursued as well as examination of different types of restaurants (i.e. high-end or chain) and different hospitality experiences (i.e., hotels, resorts, flights, etc.).

An additional limitation of this study is also related to the context of the service recovery. Participants, provided a list of the most popular restaurant chains in the

United States, were asked to identify their favorite. Their response became part of the experimental design of this study, as the response was couched in the hypothetical service failure. Thus, while the context of the service recovery was limited to a restaurant service failure, it was further limited to one particular type of restaurant. For future research, it is recommended to replicate the current study with additional hospitality contexts (i.e. fast-food restaurants, fine-dining restaurant, pubs, hotels, etc.). It is additionally recommended that a future study examine the differences between different types of restaurants.

And finally, although the variables examined in this study were selected because they were found to be critical to a better understanding of service recovery, additional variables that have been suggested to play a significant role service recovery were not included. These omitted variables include (but are not limited to) service criticality (Mattila, 1999), service failure type (Park et al., 2014), and empowerment (Choi & Mattiila, 2008). Furthermore, additional variables that have been largely omitted from service recovery research could pose to aid in future research. Those variables could include age, gender, socioeconomic status, and country of origin.

In conclusion, this dissertation was an attempt to extend the justice model originally proposed by Tax et al. (1998). In addition, this study is arguably one of the first attempts to synthesize justice theory with relationship marketing. Although additional research is needed to further the applicability of justice theory to the hospitality field, it is presumed that the present study's results support an influential

theoretical framework of service recovery and provide hospitality management with specific directions on how to incorporate a successful service recovery strategy.

REFERENCES

- Aarts, H., Dijksterhuis, A., & Custers, R. (2003). Automatic normative behavior in environments: The moderating role of conformity in activating situational norms. *Social Cognition*, 21(6), 447-464.
- Abratt, R., & Goodey, S. D. (1990). Unplanned buying and in-store stimuli in supermarkets. *Managerial and Decision Economics*, 11(2), 111-121.
- Adams, J.S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 67, 422-36.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). Academic Press.
- Adams, J. M., & Jones, W. H. (1997). The conceptualization of marital commitment: An integrative analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72(5), 1177.
- Adler, L. (1966). Symbiotic marketing. *Harvard Business Review*, 44(6), 59-71.
- Aflaki, S., & Popescu, I. (2013). Managing retention in service relationships. *Management Science*, 60(2), 415-433.
- Aguinis, H., & Lawal, S. O. (2012). Conducting field experiments using eLancing's natural environment. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 27(4), 493-505.
- Akamavi, R. K., Mohamed, E., Pellmann, K., & Xu, Y. (2015). Key determinants of passenger loyalty in the low-cost airline business. *Tourism Management*, 46, 528-545.
- Ali, F., Ryu, K., & Hussain, K. (2016). Influence of experiences on memories, satisfaction and behavioral intentions: A study of creative tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 33(1), 85-100.
- Allaway, A. W., D'Souza, G., Berkowitz, D., & Kim, K. K. (2014). Dynamic segmentation of loyalty program behavior. *Journal of Marketing Analytics*, 2(1), 18-32.
- Allen, A. M., Brady, M. K., Robinson, S. G., & Voorhees, C. M. (2015). One firm's loss is another's gain: capitalizing on other firms' service failures. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(5), 648-662.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 63(1), 1-18.

- Alvarez, L. S., Casielles, R. V., & Martín, A. M. D. (2010). Analysis of the role of complaint management in the context of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27(1-2), 143-164.
- Ambrose, M., Hess, R. L., & Ganesan, S. (2007). The relationship between justice and attitudes: An examination of justice effects on event and system-related attitudes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 103(1), 21-36.
- Ambrose, M. L., & Schminke, M. (2003). Organization structure as a moderator of the relationship between procedural justice, interactional justice, perceived organizational support, and supervisory trust. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 295.
- Anderson, E. W. (1998). Customer satisfaction and word of mouth. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(1), 5-17.
- Anderson, J. C., & Narus, J. A. (1990). A model of distributor firm and manufacturer firm working partnerships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 42-58.
- Andreasen, A. R. (1977). Consumer dissatisfaction as a measure of market performance. *Zeitschrift für Verbraucherpolitik*, 1(4), 311-322.
- Andreassen, E.W. (2000). Antecedents to satisfaction with service recovery. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(1/2), 156-175.
- Andreassen, E. W., & Lindestad, B. (1997). Customer loyalty and complex services—The impact of corporate image and loyalty for customer with varying degrees of service expertise. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 9(1).
- Andreassen, E. W., & Olsen, L. L. (2008). The impact of customers' perception of varying degrees of customer service on commitment and perceived relative attractiveness. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 18(4), 309-328.
- Ante, S. E. (2009). Amazon: Turning consumer opinions into gold. *Business Week*, 15.
- Arvan, M. (2014). First steps toward a nonideal theory of justice. *Ethics & Global Politics*, 7(3), 95-117.
- Astuti, H.J., & Nagase, K. (2014). Patient Loyalty to Healthcare Organizations: Relationship Marketing and Satisfaction. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 7(2), 39-56.
- Aurier, P., & N'Goala, G. (2010). The differing and mediating roles of trust and relationship commitment in service relationship maintenance and development. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38(3), 303-325.

- Aurier, P., & Siadou-Martin, B. (2007). Perceived justice and consumption experience evaluations: A qualitative and experimental investigation. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 18(5), 450-471.
- Babin, B. J., Lee, Y. K., Kim, E. J., & Griffin, M. (2005). Modeling consumer satisfaction and word-of-mouth: restaurant patronage in Korea. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 19(3), 133-13.
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1975). Social exchange in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 3(3-4), 314-327.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, 27(2), 184-206.
- Bakan, D. (1966). *The duality of human existence: An essay on psychology and religion*. Oxford, England: Rand McNally.
- Ballantyne, D. (2003). A relationship-mediated theory of internal marketing. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(9), 1242-1260.
- Banks, S. (1951). Relative severity of airline passenger complaints. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 35, 260-264.
- Bansal, H. S., Irving, P. G., & Taylor, S. F. (2004). A three-component model of customer to service providers. *Journal of the Academy of marketing Science*, 32(3), 234-250.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- Barsky, J. D. (1992). Customer satisfaction in the hotel industry: meaning and measurement. *Hospitality Research Journal*, 16(1), 51-73.
- Bashykar, M., & Menon, M. J. (2010). Building trust in organization. *Global Management Review*, 4(2), 27-32.
- Basso, K., & Pizzutti, C. (2016). Trust recovery following a double deviation. *Journal of Service Research*, 19(2), 209-223.
- Bearden, W. O., & Teel, J. E. (1983). Selected determinants of consumer satisfaction and complaint reports. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 21-28.
- Behrend, T. S., Sharek, D. J., Meade, A. W., & Wiebe, E. N. (2011). The viability of crowdsourcing for survey research. *Behavior Research Methods*, 43(3), 800.

- Bejou, D., & Palmer, A. (1998). Service failure and loyalty: an exploratory empirical study of airline customers. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 12(1), 7-22.
- Bell, C. R., & Zemke, R. E. (1987). Service breakdown: the road to recovery. *Management Review*, 76(10), 32.
- Berg, J., Dickhaut, J., & McCabe, K. (1995). Trust, reciprocity, and social history. *Games and Economic Behavior*, 10(1), 122-142.
- Berinsky, A. J., Huber, G. A., & Lenz, G. S. (2012). Evaluating online labor markets for experimental research: Amazon. com's Mechanical Turk. *Political Analysis*, 20(3), 351-368.
- Berry, L. L. (1983). Relationship marketing. *Emerging Perspectives on Services Marketing*, 25-28.
- Berry, L. L. (1995). Relationship marketing of services—growing interest, emerging perspectives. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(4), 236-245.
- Berry, L. L. (2002). Relationship marketing of services perspectives from 1983 and 2000. *Journal of Relationship Marketing*, 1(1), 59-77.
- Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1993). Building a new academic field—The case of services marketing. *Journal of Retailing*, 69(1), 13-60.
- Betts, T. K., Wood, M. S., & Tadisina, S. K. (2011). The impact of failure severity, prior failure, and company control on service recovery outcomes. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 18(3), 365-376.
- Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1987). Interactional fairness judgments: The influence of causal accounts. *Social Justice Research*, 1(2), 199-218.
- Bijmolt, T.H.A., Huizingh, E., & Krawczyk, A. (2014). Effects of complaint behaviour and service recovery satisfaction on consumer intentions to repurchase on the internet. *Internet Research*, 24(5), 608-628.
- Bilgihan, A., & Bujisic, M. (2015). The effect of website features in online relationship marketing: A case of online hotel booking. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 14(4), 222-232.
- Bitner, M. J. (1995). Building service relationships: it's all about promises. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 23(4), 246-251.
- Bitner, M. J., Booms, B. H., & Tetreault, M. S. (1990). The service encounter: diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. *The Journal of Marketing*, 71-84.

- Blodgett, J. G., Granbois, D. H., & Walters, R. G. (1993). The effects of perceived justice on complainants' negative word-of-mouth behavior and repatronage intentions. *Journal of Retailing*, 69(4), 399-428.
- Blodgett, J. G., Hill, D. J., & Tax, S. S. (1997). The effects of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice on postcomplaint behavior. *Journal of Retailing*, 73(2), 185-210.
- Blodgett, J. G., Wakefield, K. L., & Barnes, J. H. (1995). The effects of customer service on consumer complaining behavior. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 9(4), 31-42.
- Bloemer, J., & Odekerken-Schröder, G. (2007). The psychological antecedents of enduring customer relationships: An empirical study in a bank setting. *Journal of Relationship Marketing*, 6(1), 21-43.
- Bonache, J. (2004). Towards a re-examination of work arrangements: An analysis from Rawls' theory of justice. *Human Resource Management Review*, 14(4), 395-408.
- Bonifield, C., & Cole, C. (2007). Affective responses to service failure: Anger, regret, and retaliatory versus conciliatory responses. *Marketing Letters*, 18(1-2), 85-99.
- Bonifield, C., & Cole, C. A. (2008). Better him than me: social comparison theory and service recovery. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36(4), 565-577.
- Boshoff, C. (1999). RECOVSAT: An instrument to measure satisfaction with transaction-specific service recovery. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(3), 236-249.
- Boshoff, C. (2012). Can service firms overdo service recovery? An assessment of non-linearity in service recovery satisfaction. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 43(3), 1-12.
- Bowden, J. L. H. (2009). The process of customer engagement: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 17(1), 63-74.
- Bowen, D., & Clarke, J. (2002). Reflections on tourist satisfaction research: Past, present and future. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 8(4), 297-308.
- Bowen, J. T., & Shoemaker, S. (2003). Loyalty: A strategic commitment. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 44(5-6), 31-46.
- Brinberg, D., & Wood, R. (1983). A resource exchange theory analysis of consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10(3), 330-338.
- Brodie, R. J., Coviello, N. E., & Winklhofer, H. (2008). Contemporary Marketing Practices research program: a review of the first decade. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 23(2), 84-94.

- Brotherton, B. (1999). Towards a definitive view of the nature of hospitality and hospitality management. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11(4), 165-173.
- Brühlhart, M., & Usunier, J. C. (2012). Does the trust game measure trust?. *Economics Letters*, 115(1), 20-23.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). Ethics in business research. *Business Research Methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data?. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(1), 3-5.
- Buhrmester, M. D., Talaifar, S., & Gosling, S. D. (2018). An Evaluation of Amazon's Mechanical Turk, Its Rapid Rise, and Its Effective Use. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 13(2), 149-154.
- Bujisic, M., Parsa, H. G., Bilgihan, A., Galloway, J., & Hern, L. (2014). Service Failure, Tipping Behavior, and the Effect of Service Industry Experience. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 15(3), 253-268.
- Buttle, F. A. (1998). Word of mouth: understanding and managing referral marketing. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, 6(3), 241-254.
- Calnan, M., & Rowe, R. (2005, December). Trust Relations in the new NHS: theoretical and methodological challenges. In *Taking Stock of Trust ESRC Conference, LSE*.
- Cantalalops, A. S., & Salvi, F. (2014). New consumer behavior: A review of research on eWOM and hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 36, 41-51.
- Cardozo, R. N. (1965). An experimental study of customer effort, expectation, and satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 244-249.
- Carlsmith, J. M., & Aronson, E. (1963). Some hedonic consequences of the confirmation and disconfirmation of expectancies. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66(2), 151.
- Casado, A. B., Nicolau, J. L., & Mas, F. J. (2011). The harmful consequences of failed recoveries in the banking industry. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 29(1), 32-49.
- Casidy, R., & Shin, H. (2015). The effects of harm directions and service recovery strategies on customer forgiveness and negative word-of-mouth intentions. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 27, 103-112.

- Čater, B., Žabkar, V., & Čater, T. (2011). Commitment in marketing research services: two alternative models. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 12(4), 603-628.
- Chadee, D. D., & Mattsson, J. (1996). An empirical assessment of customer satisfaction in tourism. *Service Industries Journal*, 16(3), 305-320.
- Chan, H. C., & Ngai, E. W. T. (2010). What makes customers discontent with service providers? An empirical analysis of complaint handling in information and communication technology services. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 91(1), 73-110.
- Chandler, J., & Shapiro, D. (2016). Conducting clinical research using crowdsourced convenience samples. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, 12.
- Chang, H. H., Tsai, Y. C., Wong, K. H., Wang, J. W., & Cho, F. J. (2015). The effects of response strategies and severity of failure on consumer attribution with regard to negative word-of-mouth. *Decision Support Systems*, 71, 48-61.
- Chang, Y. W., & Chang, Y. H. (2010). Does service recovery affect satisfaction and customer loyalty? An empirical study of airline services. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 16(6), 340-342.
- Chaparro-Peláez, J., Hernández-García, Á., & Urueña-López, A. (2015). The role of emotions and trust in service recovery in business-to-consumer electronic commerce. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research*, 10(2), 77-90.
- Chaudhry, A. S., & Al-Sagheer, L. (2011). Information behavior of journalists: Analysis of critical incidents of information finding and use. *The International Information & Library Review*, 43(4), 178-183.
- Chebat, J. C., & Slusarczyk, W. (2005). How emotions mediate the effects of perceived justice on loyalty in service recovery situations: an empirical study. *Journal of Business Research*, 58(5), 664-673.
- Chell, E. (2014). The critical incident technique: philosophical underpinnings, method and application to a case of small business failure. *Handbook of Research on Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, 106.
- Chen, P. T., & Hu, H. H. (2010). The effect of relational benefits on perceived value in relation to customer loyalty: An empirical study in the Australian coffee outlets industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(3), 405-412.
- Chen, P., & Kim, Y. G. (2017). Role of the perceived justice of service recovery: A comparison of first-time and repeat visitors. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 0(0), 1-14.

- Chen, W. J., & Chen, M. L. (2014). Factors affecting the hotel's service quality: Relationship marketing and corporate image. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 23(1), 77-96.
- Chen, Y. F., & Law, R. (2016). A review of research on electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 17(4), 347-372.
- Chenet, P., Dagger, T. S., & O'Sullivan, D. (2010). Service quality, trust, commitment and service differentiation in business relationships. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 24(5), 336-346.
- Cheng, S., Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. (2006). Negative word-of-mouth communication intention: An application of the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(1), 95-116.
- Cheung, F.M., & To, W.M. (2016). A customer-dominant logic on service recovery and customer satisfaction. *Management Decision*, 54 (10): 2524-43.
- Cho, J. E., & Hu, H. (2009). The effect of service quality on trust and commitment varying across generations. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 33(4), 468-476.
- Cho, S. B., Jang, Y. J., & Kim, W. G. (2017). The Moderating Role of Severity of Service Failure in the Relationship among Regret/Disappointment, Dissatisfaction, and Behavioral Intention. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 18(1), 69-85.
- Cho, M., Schweickart, T., & Haase, A. (2014). Public engagement with nonprofit organizations on Facebook. *Public Relations Review*, 40(3), 565-567.
- Choi, B., & Choi, B. J. (2014). The effects of perceived service recovery justice on customer affection, loyalty, and word-of-mouth. *European Journal of Marketing*, 48(1/2), 108-131.
- Choi, B., & La, S. (2013). The impact of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and customer trust on the restoration of loyalty after service failure and recovery. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 27(3), 223-233.
- Choi, S. H., & Cai, L. A. (2010). Tourist attribution and the moderating role of loyalty. *Tourism Analysis*, 15(6), 729-734.
- Choi, S., & Mattila, A. S. (2008). Perceived controllability and service expectations: Influences on customer reactions following service failure. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(1), 24-30.

- Christopher, M., Payne, A., & Ballantyne, D. (2013). *Relationship marketing*. Oxford: Taylor & Francis.
- Chuang, S. C., Cheng, Y. H., Chang, C. J., & Yang, S. W. (2012). The effect of service failure types and service recovery on customer satisfaction: a mental accounting perspective. *The Service Industries Journal*, 32(2), 257-271.
- Churchill Jr, G. A., & Surprenant, C. (1982). An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 491-504.
- Clemmer, E.C. An investigation into the relationship of fairness and customer satisfaction with services. In: Cropanzano R, editor. *Justice in the workplace: approaching fairness in human resource management*. Hillsdale, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1993. pp. 193 – 207.
- Clemmer, E. C., & Schneider, B. (1996). Fair service. *Advances in Services Marketing and Management*, 5, 109-126.
- Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: Attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4), 755-778.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Rodell, J. B. (2011). Justice, trust, and trustworthiness: A longitudinal analysis integrating three theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Journal*, 54(6), 1183-1206.
- Cook, T. D., Campbell, D. T., & Shadish, W. (2002). *Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for generalized causal inference*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Cranage, D. A., & Mattila, A. S. (2006). Service recovery and pre-emptive strategies for service failure: Both lead to customer satisfaction and loyalty, but for different reasons. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 13(3-4), 161-181.
- Crocker, J., & Canevello, A. (2008). Creating and undermining social support in communal relationships: the role of compassionate and self-image goals. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(3), 555.
- Cronin Jr, J. J., Brady, M. K., & Hult, G. T. M. (2000). Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of Retailing*, 76(2), 193-218.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.

- Crosby, L. A., Evans, K. R., & Cowles, D. (1990). Relationship quality in services selling: an interpersonal influence perspective. *The Journal of Marketing*, 68-81.
- Cugueró-Escofet, N., & Fortin, M. (2014). One justice or two? A model of reconciliation of normative justice theories and empirical research on organizational justice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 124(3), 435-451.
- Dahlén, M., Sjödin, H., Thorbjørnsen, H., Hansen, H., Linander, J., & Thunell, C. (2013). "What will 'they' think?" Marketing leakage to undesired audiences and the third-person effect. *European Journal of Marketing*, 47(11/12), 1825-1840.
- da Silva Terres, M., & Pizzutti dos Santos, C. (2012). The Importance of Affect to Build Consumer Trust in High-Consequences Exchange. *Revista de Administração FACES Journal*, 11(4).
- Davidow, M. (2000). The bottom line impact of organizational responses to customer complaints. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 24(4), 473-490.
- Davidow, M. (2003). Have you heard the word? The effect of word of mouth on perceived justice, satisfaction and repurchase intentions following complaint handling. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 16, 67.
- Day, R. L., & Bodur, M. (1978). Consumer response to dissatisfaction with services and intangibles. *ACR North American Advances*, 5(1), 263-272.
- Dean, A. M. (2007). The impact of the customer orientation of call center employees on customers' affective commitment and loyalty. *Journal of Service Research*, 10(2), 161-173.
- DeCarlo, T. E., Laczniak, R. N., Motley, C. M., & Ramaswami, S. (2007). Influence of image and familiarity on consumer response to negative word-of-mouth communication about retail entities. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 15(1), 41-51.
- del Bosque, I. A. R., San Martín, H., & Collado, J. (2006). The role of expectations in the consumer satisfaction formation process: Empirical evidence in the travel agency sector. *Tourism Management*, 27(3), 410-419.
- Delcourt, C., Gremler, D. D., Van Riel, A. C., & Van Birgelen, M. (2013). Effects of perceived employee emotional competence on customer satisfaction and loyalty: The mediating role of rapport. *Journal of Service Management*, 24(1), 5-24.
- De Matos, C. A., Henrique, J. L., & Rossi, C. (2007). Service recovery paradox: a meta-analysis. *Journal of Service Research*, 10(1), 60-77.

- De Matos, C.A., Luiz Henrique, J.L., & de Rosa, F. (2013). Customer reactions to service failure and recovery in the banking industry: the influence of switching costs. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 27(7), 526-538.
- De Matos, C. A., & Rossi, C. A. V. (2008). Word-of-mouth communications in marketing: a meta-analytic review of the antecedents and moderators. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36(4), 578-596.
- De Matos, C. A., Vieira, V. A., & Veiga, R. T. (2012). Behavioural responses to service encounter involving failure and recovery: the influence of contextual factors. *The Service Industries Journal*, 32(14), 2203-2217.
- del Río-Lanza, A. B., Vázquez-Casielles, R., & Díaz-Martín, A. M. (2009). Satisfaction with service recovery: Perceived justice and emotional responses. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(8), 775-781.
- Devece, C., Garcia-Agreda, S., & Ribeiro-Navarrete, B. (2015). The Value of Trust for Travel Agencies in Achieving Customers' Attitudinal Loyalty. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 21(4), 516-529.
- DeWitt, T., Nguyen, D. T., & Marshall, R. (2008). Exploring customer loyalty following service recovery: The mediating effects of trust and emotions. *Journal of Service Research*, 10(3), 269-281.
- De Wulf, K., & Odekerken-Schröder, G. (2000). *The influence of seller relationship orientation and buyer relationship proneness on trust, commitment, and behavioral loyalty in a consumer environment*. RUG, Faculteit Economie en Bedrijfskunde.
- Dick, A. S., & Basu, K. (1994). Customer Loyalty: Toward an Integrated Conceptual Framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 22(2), 99-113.
- Ding, M. C., Ho, C. W., & Lii, Y. S. (2015). Is corporate reputation a double-edged sword? Relative effects of perceived justice in airline service recovery. *International Journal of Economics and Business Research*, 10(1), 1-17.
- Doney, P. M., & Cannon, J. P. (1997). An examination of the nature of trust in buyer-seller relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 35-51.
- Dunn and Bradstreet Reports, *Business Failure Record* (New York: Dunn and Bradstreet, 2001).
- Dunn, J. R., & Schweitzer, M. E. (2005). Feeling and believing: the influence of emotion on trust. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 88(5), 736.
- Dwyer, F. R., Schurr, P. H., & Oh, S. (1987). Developing buyer-seller relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 11-27.

- Eisingerich, A. B., & Bell, S. J. (2008). Perceived service quality and customer trust: Does enhancing customers' service knowledge matter?. *Journal of Service Research*, 10(3), 256-268.
- Engel, J.F., Blackwell, R.D., & Miniard, P.W. (1993). *Consumer Behavior* (8th ed.), Fort Worth: Dryden Press.
- Engel, J. F., Kollat, D. T., & Blackwell, R. D. (1968). *Consumer Behavior* Holt. Rinehart and Winston, New York, NY.
- Evans, A. M., & Krueger, J. I. (2009). The psychology (and economics) of trust. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 3(6), 1003-1017.
- Evanschitzky, H., Brock, C., & Blut, M. (2011). Will you tolerate this? The impact of affective commitment on complaint intention and postrecovery behavior. *Journal of Service Research*, 14(4), 410-425.
- Evanschitzky, H., & Wunderlich, M. (2006). An examination of moderator effects in the four-stage loyalty model. *Journal of Service Research*, 8(4), 330-345.
- Farrell, M. (2007, January). The 10 Riskiest Businesses to Start. Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/2007/01/18/fairisaac-nordstrom-verizon-ent-fin-cx_mf_0118risky.html#515e3a593370
- Fatima, J. K., Razzaque, M. A., & Di Mascio, R. (2015). Modelling roles of commitment on rapport and satisfaction. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, 33(3), 261-275.
- Fehr, E. (2009). On the economics and biology of trust. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 7(2-3), 235-266.
- Fernandes, T. M., & Proença, J. F. (2008). The blind spot of relationships in consumer markets: the consumer proneness to engage in relationships. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 24(1-2), 153-168.
- Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Evanston, IL: Stanford University Press.
- Field, A.P. (2009). *Discovering Statistics using SPSS*. Sage Publications.
- Flanagan, J. C. (1954). The critical incident technique. *Psychological Bulletin*, 51(4), 327.
- Folger, R., & Konovsky, M. A. (1989). Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32(1), 115-130.

- Frank, B., Enkawa, T., & Schvaneveldt, S. J. (2014). How do the success factors driving repurchase intent differ between male and female customers?. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 42(2), 171-185.
- Frazier, M. L., Johnson, P. D., & Fainshmidt, S. (2013). Development and validation of a propensity to trust scale. *Journal of Trust Research*, 3(2), 76-97.
- Fullerton, G. (2003). When does commitment lead to loyalty?. *Journal of Service Research*, 5(4), 333-344.
- Fullerton, G. (2005). How commitment both enables and undermines marketing relationships. *European Journal of Marketing*, 39(11/12), 1372-1388.
- Fullerton, G. (2014). The moderating effect of normative commitment on the service quality-customer retention relationship. *European Journal of Marketing*, 48(3/4), 657-673.
- Gamblin, B. W., Winslow, M. P., Lindsay, B., Newsom, A. W., & Kehn, A. (2017). Comparing in-person, sona, and mechanical turk measurements of three prejudice-relevant constructs. *Current Psychology*, 36(2), 217-224.
- Garbarino, E., & Johnson, M. S. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust, and commitment in customer relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 70-87.
- Garfinkel, H. (1963). A conception of and experiments with "trust" as a condition of concerted stable actions. *The Production of Reality: Essays and Readings on Social Interaction*, 381-392.
- Geiger, I., & Kleinaltenkamp, M. (2015). Internal Implementation of Business Relationship Management. In *Business Relationship Management and Marketing* (pp. 245-288). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.
- Gelbrich, K., & Roschk, H. (2011). A meta-analysis of organizational complaint handling and customer responses. *Journal of Service Research*, 14(1), 24-43.
- George, B. P., Salgaonkar, P., & Hegde, P. G. (2007). SERICSAT: The development of a preliminary instrument to measure service recovery satisfaction in tourism. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 8(1), 21-42.
- Getz, D., Andersson, T., Vujicic, S., & Robinson, R. N. (2015). Food events in lifestyle and travel. *Event Management*, 19(3), 407-419.
- Getz, D., & Robinson, R. N. (2014). Foodies and food events. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 14(3), 315-330.

- Ghosh, T. (2018). Predicting hotel book intention: The influential role of helpfulness and advocacy of online reviews. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 27(3), 299-322.
- Ghosh, A., Varshney, S., & Venugopal, P. (2014). Social media WOM: definition, consequences and inter-relationships. *Management and Labour Studies*, 39(3), 293-308.
- Gilly, M. C., & Gelb, B. D. (1982). Post-purchase consumer processes and the complaining consumer. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(3), 323-328.
- Goodman, J. K., Cryder, C. E., & Cheema, A. (2013). Data collection in a flat world: The strengths and weaknesses of Mechanical Turk samples. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 26(3), 213-224.
- Goodwin, C., & Ross, I. (1990). Consumer evaluations of responses to complaints: What's fair and why. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 7(2), 39-47.
- Goodwin, C., & Ross, I. (1992). Consumer responses to service failures: Influence of procedural and interactional fairness perceptions. *Journal of Business Research*, 25(2), 149-163.
- Gorry, G. A., & Westbrook, R. A. (2011). Can you hear me now? Learning from customer stories. *Business Horizons*, 54(6), 575-584.
- Goyette, I., Ricard, L., Bergeron, J., & Marticotte, F. (2010). e-WOM Scale: word-of-mouth measurement scale for e-services context. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 27(1), 5-23.
- Grégoire, Y., Tripp, T. M., & Legoux, R. (2009). When customer love turns into lasting hate: The effects of relationship strength and time on customer revenge and avoidance. *Journal of Marketing*, 73(6), 18-32.
- Gremler, D. D. (2004). The critical incident technique in service research. *Journal of Service Research*, 7(1), 65-89.
- Grewal, R., Chandrashekar, M., & Citrin, A. V. (2010). Customer satisfaction heterogeneity and shareholder value. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 47(4), 612-626.
- Grisaffe, D. B., & Nguyen, H. P. (2011). Antecedents of emotional attachment to brands. *Journal of Business Research*, 64(10), 1052-1059.
- Grönroos, C. (1991). The Marketing Strategy Continuum: Towards a Marketing Concept for the 1990s. *Management Decision*, 29(1), 7-13.

- Grönroos, C. (2009). Marketing as promise management: regaining customer management for marketing. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 24(5/6), 351-359.
- Gruen, T. W., Summers, J. O., & Acito, F. (2000). Relationship marketing activities, commitment, and membership behaviors in professional associations. *Journal of Marketing*, 64(3), 34-49.
- Guarino, C. M., Reckase, M. D., & Wooldridge, J. M. (2015). Can value-added measures of teacher performance be trusted?. *Education Finance and Policy*, 10(1), 117-156.
- Gummesson, E. (2011). *Total Relationship marketing*. New York: Routledge.
- Gundlach, G. T., Achrol, R. S., & Mentzer, J. T. (1995). The structure of commitment in exchange. *Journal of Marketing*, 78-92.
- Gustafsson, A., Johnson, M. D., & Roos, I. (2005). The effects of customer satisfaction, relationship commitment dimensions, and triggers on customer retention. *Journal of marketing*, 69(4), 210-218.
- Gutman, J. (1982). A means-end chain model based on consumer categorization processes. *Journal of Marketing*, 60-72.
- Gwinner, K. P., Gremler, D. D., & Bitner, M. J. (1998). Relational benefits in services industries: the customer's perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(2), 101-114.
- Ha, J., & Jang, S. S. (2009). Perceived justice in service recovery and behavioral intentions: The role of relationship quality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), 319-327.
- Halliday, S. V. (2003). Which trust and when? Conceptualizing trust in business relationships based on context and contingency. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 13(4), 405-421.
- Halstead, D., Morash, E. A., & Ozment, J. (1996). Comparing objective service failures and subjective complaints: An investigation of domino and halo effects. *Journal of Business Research*, 36(2), 107-115.
- Halstead, D., & Page, T. J. (1992). The effects of satisfaction and complaining behavior on consumer repurchase intentions. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 5(1), 1-11.

- Han, H., Kim, W., & Hyun, S. S. (2011). Switching intention model development: Role of service performances, customer satisfaction, and switching barriers in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 619-629.
- Han, H., Kim, Y., & Kim, E. K. (2011). Cognitive, affective, conative, and action loyalty: Testing the impact of inertia. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(4), 1008-1019.
- Harker, M. J., & Egan, J. (2006). The past, present and future of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 22(1-2), 215-242.
- Harris, K. E., Grewal, D., Mohr, L. A., & Bernhardt, K. L. (2006). Consumer responses to service recovery strategies: the moderating role of online versus offline environment. *Journal of Business Research*, 59(4), 425-431.
- Harrison-Walker, L. J. (2001). The measurement of word-of-mouth communication and an investigation of service quality and customer commitment as potential antecedents. *Journal of Service Research*, 4(1), 60-75.
- Hart, C. W., Heskett, J. L., & Sasser, J. W. (1990). The profitable art of service recovery. *Harvard Business Review*, 68(4), 148-156.
- Hauser, M., Nussbeck, F. W., & Jonas, K. (2013). The impact of food-related values on food purchase behavior and the mediating role of attitudes: A swiss study. *Psychology & Marketing*, 30(9), 765-778.
- Hauser, D. J., & Schwarz, N. (2016). Attentive Turkers: MTurk participants perform better on online attention checks than do subject pool participants. *Behavior Research Methods*, 48(1), 400-407.
- Hellier, P. K., Geursen, G. M., Carr, R. A., & Rickard, J. A. (2003). Customer repurchase intention: A general structural equation model. *European Journal of Marketing*, 37(11/12), 1762-1800.
- Helson, H. (1964). *Adaptation-level theory: an experimental and systematic approach to behavior*. Harper and Row: New York.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., & Gremler, D. D. (2002). Understanding relationship marketing outcomes: an integration of relational benefits and relationship quality. *Journal of Service Research*, 4(3), 230-247.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., & Gremler, D. D. (2004). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: What motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the Internet?. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 18(1), 38-52.

- Hennig-Thurau, T., & Hansen, U. (2000). Relationship marketing—Some reflections on the state-of-the-art of the relational concept. In *Relationship Marketing* (pp. 3-27). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Wiertz, C., & Feldhaus, F. (2015). Does Twitter matter? The impact of microblogging word of mouth on consumers' adoption of new movies. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43(3), 375-394.
- Hess, R. L. (2008). The impact of firm reputation and failure severity on customers' responses to service failures. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22(5), 385-398.
- Hess, R. L., Ganesan, S., & Klein, N. M. (2003). Service failure and recovery: The impact of relationship factors on customer satisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(2), 127.
- Hocutt, M. A., Chakraborty, G., & Mowen, J. C. (1997). The impact of perceived justice on customer satisfaction and intention to complain in a service recovery. *ACR North American Advances*, 24, 457-463.
- Hoffman, K.D., & Chung, B.G. (1999). Hospitality recovery strategies: Customer preference versus firm use. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 23(1), 71-84.
- Hoffman, K.D. & Kelley, S.W. (2000). Perceived justice needs and recovery evaluation: a contingency approach. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(3/4), pg. 418-430.
- Hoffman, K. D., Kelley, S. W., & Chung, B. C. (2003). A CIT investigation of servicescape failures and associated recovery strategies. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 17(4), 322-340.
- Hoffman, K. D., Kelley, S. W., & Rotalsky, H. M. (1995). Tracking service failures and employee recovery efforts. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 9(2), 49-61.
- Homburg, C., Stierl, M., & Bornemann, T. (2013). Corporate social responsibility in business-to-business markets: How organizational customers account for supplier corporate social responsibility engagement. *Journal of Marketing*, 77(6), 54-72.
- Horton, J. J., Rand, D. G., & Zeckhauser, R. J. (2011). The online laboratory: Conducting experiments in a real labor market. *Experimental Economics*, 14(3), 399-425.
- Hosmer, L. T. (1995). Trust: The connecting link between organizational theory and philosophical ethics. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(2), 379-403.
- Howard, J. A., & Sheth, J. N. (1969). *The Theory of Buyer Behavior*, New York: John Wiley.

- Howcroft, B., Hewer, P., & Durkin, M. (2003). Banker-customer interactions in financial services. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 19(9-10), 1001-1020.
- Hsu, C. L., Liu, C. C., & Lee, Y. D. (2010). Effect of commitment and trust towards micro-blogs on consumer behavioral intention: A relationship marketing perspective. *International Journal of Electronic Business Management*, 8(4), 292.
- Huang, J. L., Liu, M., & Bowling, N. A. (2015). Insufficient effort responding: Examining an insidious confound in survey data. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(3), 828.
- Hui, C. (2011). Personality's Influence on the Relationship between Online Word-of-mouth and Consumers' Trust in Shopping Website. *Journal of Software*, 6(2), 265-272.
- Huppertz, J. W., Arenson, S. J., & Evans, R. H. (1978). An application of equity theory to buyer-seller exchange situations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 250-260.
- Hur, J., & Jang, S. (2016). Toward service recovery strategies: The role of consumer-organization relationship norms. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 30(7), 724-735.
- Hur, W. M., Park, J., & Kim, M. (2010). The role of commitment on the customer benefits-loyalty relationship in mobile service industry. *The Service Industries Journal*, 30(14), 2293-2309.
- Israeli, A., Lee, S. A., & Karpinski, A. C. (2017). Investigating the Dynamics and the Content of Customers' Social Media Reporting after a Restaurant Service Failure. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 26(6), 606-626.
- Jaakkola, E., Meiren, T., Witell, L., Edvardsson, B., Schäfer, A., Reynoso, J., Sebastiani, R., & Weitlaner, D. (2017). Does one size fit all? New service development across different types of services. *Journal of Service Management*, 28(2), 329-347.
- Jacobson, D. (2008). Utilitarianism without consequentialism: the case of John Stuart Mill. *Philosophical Review*, 117(2), 159-191.
- Jacoby, J., & Chestnut, R. W. (1978). *Brand Loyalty Measurement and Management*. New York: John Wiley.
- Jani, D., & Han, H. (2011). Investigating the key factors affecting behavioral intentions: Evidence from a full-service restaurant setting. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 23(7), 1000-1018.
- Javalgi, R., & Moberg, C. R. (1997). Service loyalty: implications for service providers. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 11(3), 165-179.

- Jeong, E., & Jang, S. S. (2011). Restaurant experiences triggering positive electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) motivations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(2), 356-366.
- Jin, N., Lee, S., & Huffman, L. (2012). Impact of Restaurant Experience on Brand Image and Customer Loyalty: Moderating Role of Dining Motivation. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 29(6), 532-51.
- Johnson, C., & Mathews, B. P. (1997). The influence of experience on service expectations. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(4), 290-305.
- Johnson, E. J., & Russo, J. E. (1984). Product familiarity and learning new information. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11(1), 542-550.
- Johnson, M. D., & Fornell, C. (1991). A framework for comparing customer satisfaction across individuals and product categories. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 12(2), 267-286.
- Johnson, R. L., & Kellaris, J. J. (1988). An exploratory study of price/perceived-quality relationships among consumer services. *ACR North American Advances*, 15, 316-322.
- Joireman, J., Grégoire, Y., Devezer, B., & Tripp, T. M. (2013). When do customers offer firms a “second chance” following a double deviation? The impact of inferred firm motives on customer revenge and reconciliation. *Journal of Retailing*, 89(3), 315-337.
- Jones, M. A., Reynolds, K. E., Mothersbaugh, D. L., & Beatty, S. E. (2007). The positive and negative effects of switching costs on relational outcomes. *Journal of Service Research*, 9(4), 335-355.
- Jones, M. A., & Suh, J. (2000). Transaction-specific satisfaction and overall satisfaction: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14(2), 147-159.
- Jones, T., & Taylor, S. F. (2007). The conceptual domain of service loyalty: how many dimensions?. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 21(1), 36-51.
- Jones, T., Taylor, S. F., & Bansal, H. S. (2008). Commitment to a friend, a service provider, or a service company—are they distinctions worth making?. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36(4), 473.
- Jung, T. H., Ineson, E. M., & Green, E. (2013). Online social networking: Relationship marketing in UK hotels. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 29(3-4), 393-420.
- Kahneman, D. & Tversky, A. (1979). Prospect theory: an analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica*, 47, 263-291.

- Kandampully, J., Zhang, T., & Bilgihan, A. (2015). Customer loyalty: a review and future directions with a special focus on the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(3), 379-414.
- Karande, K., Magnini, V. P., & Tam, L. (2007). Recovery voice and satisfaction after service failure: an experimental investigation of mediating and moderating factors. *Journal of Service Research*, 10(2), 187-203.
- Karatepe, O. M. (2006). Customer complaints and organizational responses: the effects of complainants' perceptions of justice on satisfaction and loyalty. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(1), 69-90.
- Karatepe, O. M., & Vatankhah, S. (2014). The effects of high-performance work practices and job embeddedness on flight attendants' performance outcomes. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 37, 27-35.
- Karren, R. J., & Barringer, M. W. (2002). A review and analysis of the policy-capturing methodology in organizational research: Guidelines for research and practice. *Organizational Research Methods*, 5(4), 337-361.
- Kau, A. K., & Wan-Yiun Loh, E. (2006). The effects of service recovery on consumer satisfaction: a comparison between complainants and non-complainants. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(2), 101-111.
- Keaveney, S. M. (1995). Customer switching behavior in service industries: An exploratory study. *The Journal of Marketing*, 71-82.
- Kees, J., Berry, C., Burton, S., & Sheehan, K. (2017). An analysis of data quality: professional panels, student subject pools, and Amazon's mechanical Turk. *Journal of Advertising*, 46(1), 141-155.
- Keiningham, T. L., Morgeson III, F. V., Aksoy, L., & Williams, L. (2014). Service failure severity, customer satisfaction, and market share: An examination of the airline industry. *Journal of Service Research*, 17(4), 415-431.
- Keith, M. G., Tay, L., & Harms, P. D. (2017). Systems perspective of Amazon Mechanical Turk for organizational research: Review and recommendations. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 1359.
- Kelley, S. W. (1993). Discretion and the service employee. *Journal of Retailing*, 69(1), 104-126.
- Kelley, S. W., & Davis, M. A. (1994). Antecedents to customer expectations for service recovery. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 22(1), 52-61.

- Kim, W. G., Han, J. S., & Lee, E. (2001). Effects of relationship marketing on repeat purchase and word of mouth. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 25(3), 272-288.
- Kim, J. H., & Jang, S. S. (2014). The fading affect bias: Examining changes in affect and behavioral intentions in restaurant service failures and recoveries. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 40, 109-119.
- Kim, T. T., Kim, W. G., & Kim, H. B. (2009). The effects of perceived justice on recovery satisfaction, trust, word-of-mouth, and revisit intention in upscale hotels. *Tourism Management*, 30(1), 51-62.
- Kim, H. B., Kim, T. T., & Shin, S. W. (2009). Modeling roles of subjective norms and eTrust in customers' acceptance of airline B2C eCommerce websites. *Tourism Management*, 30(2), 266-277.
- Kim, W., & Ok, C. (2009). The effects of relational benefits on customers' perception of favorable inequity, affective commitment, and repurchase intention in full-service restaurants. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(2), 227-244.
- Kim, M. K., Park, M. C., & Jeong, D. H. (2004). The effects of customer satisfaction and switching barrier on customer loyalty in Korean mobile telecommunication services. *Telecommunications Policy*, 28(2), 145-159.
- Kim, G. M., Wang, C., & Mattila, A. S. (2010). The relationship between consumer complaining behavior and service recovery: An integrative review. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(7), 975-991.
- Kim, T., Yoo, J., & Lee, G. (2012). Post-recovery customer relationships and customer partnerships in a restaurant setting. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 24(3), 381-401.
- Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2005). Gastronomy tourism: A meaningful travel market segment. *Journal of Culinary Science & Technology*, 4(2-3), 39-55.
- Kleinaltenkamp, M., Plinke, W., & Söllner, A. (2015). *Phenomenon and Challenge to Management*. In Business Relationship Management and Marketing (pp. 3-26). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- Kliewer, B. W., & Zacharakis, J. (2015). Leadership Education and Development for Justice Using the Canonical Framework of John Rawls's A Theory of Justice. *Educational Considerations*, 43(1), 7.
- Kneesel, E., Baloglu, S., & Millar, M. (2010). Gaming destination images: Implications for branding. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(1), 68-78.

- Kodish, S. (2017). Communicating organizational trust: An exploration of the link between discourse and action. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 54(4), 347-368.
- Kozub, R. K., Anthony O'Neill, M., & A. Palmer, A. (2014). Emotional antecedents and outcomes of service recovery: an exploratory study in the luxury hotel industry. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 28(3), 233-243.
- Krishna, A., Dangayach, G. S., & Jain, R. (2011). Service recovery: Literature review and research issues. *Journal of Service Science Research*, 3(1), 71.
- Krishna, A., Dangayach, G. S., & Sharma, S. (2014). Service recovery paradox: the success parameters. *Global Business Review*, 15(2), 263-277.
- Kumar, N., Hibbard, J. D., & Stern, L. W. (1994). The nature and consequences of marketing channel intermediary commitment. *Report-Marketing Science Institute Cambridge Massachusetts*.
- Kumar, V., & Shah, D. (2004). Building and sustaining profitable customer loyalty for the 21st century. *Journal of Retailing*, 80(4), 317-329.
- Kuo, N. T., Chang, K. C., Cheng, Y. S., & Lai, C. H. (2013). How service quality affects customer loyalty in the travel agency: The effects of customer satisfaction, service recovery, and perceived value. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(7), 803-822.
- Kuo, Y. F., & Wu, C. M. (2012). Satisfaction and post-purchase intentions with service recovery of online shopping websites: Perspectives on perceived justice and emotions. *International Journal of Information Management*, 32(2), 127-138.
- La, S., & Choi, B. (2012). The role of customer affection and trust in loyalty rebuilding after service failure and recovery. *The Service Industries Journal*, 32(1), 105-125.
- Landon, E.L. (1980). Consumer satisfaction, dissatisfaction and complaining behavior: Indicators of market performance. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 7, 186-191,
- Lastner, M. M., Folse, J. A. G., Mangus, S. M., & Fennell, P. (2016). The road to recovery: Overcoming service failures through positive emotions. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(10), 4278-4286.
- Larzelere, R. E., & Huston, T. L. (1980). The dyadic trust scale: Toward understanding interpersonal trust in close relationships. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 595-604.
- LaTour, S. A., & Peat, N. C. (1979). Conceptual and methodological issues in consumer satisfaction research. *ACR North American Advances*, 6, 431-437.

- Lazarus, R.S. (1991). Cognition and Motivation in Emotion. *American Psychologist*, 46, 352-367.
- Lee, E. J., & Park, J. (2010). Service failures in online double deviation scenarios: justice theory approach. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 20(1), 46-69.
- Lehmann, E. L. (2009). Parametric versus nonparametrics: two alternative methodologies. *Journal of Nonparametric Statistics*, 21(4), 397-405.
- Leung, K., LI, W. K., & AU, Y. F. (1998). The impact of customer service and product value on customer loyalty and purchase behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(18), 1731-1741.
- Levesque, T. J., & McDougall, G. H. (2000). Service problems and recovery strategies: An experiment. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 17(1), 20-37.
- Lewis, J. D., & Weigert, A. (1985). Trust as a social reality. *Social Forces*, 63(4), 967-985.
- Li, X., & Petrick, J. F. (2005). A review of festival and event motivation studies. *Event Management*, 9(4), 239-245.
- Li, J., & Zhan, L. (2011). Online persuasion: How the written word drives WOM: Evidence from consumer-generated product reviews. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 51(1), 239-257.
- Liao, H. (2007). Do it right this time: The role of employee service recovery performance in customer-perceived justice and customer loyalty after service failures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(2), 475.
- Libai, B., Bolton, R., Bügel, M. S., De Ruyter, K., Götz, O., Risselada, H., & Stephen, A. T. (2010). Customer-to-customer interactions: broadening the scope of word of mouth research. *Journal of Service Research*, 13(3), 267-282.
- Lin, W. B. (2009). A study of relations among service quality differences, post-purchase behavior intentions with personality traits, and service recovery strategy as intervening variables. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 19(2), 137-157.
- Lin, W. B. (2011). Construction of a service failure severity and recovery model. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 38(10), 12221-12230.
- Lin, H. H., Wang, Y. S., & Chang, L. K. (2011). Consumer responses to online retailer's service recovery after a service failure: a perspective of justice theory. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 21(5), 511-534.

- Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgments as pivotal cognitions in organizational relations. *Advances in Organizational Justice*, 56(8).
- Lindsfold, S. (1978). Trust development, the GRIT proposal, and the effects of conciliatory acts on conflict and cooperation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85(4), 772.
- Lioukas, C. S., & Reuer, J. J. (2015). Isolating trust outcomes from exchange relationships: Social exchange and learning benefits of prior ties in alliances. *Academy of Management Journal*, 58(6), 1826-1847.
- Litvin, S. W., Goldsmith, R. E., & Pan, B. (2008). Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 458-468.
- Loo, P. T., Boo, H. C., & Khoo-Lattimore, C. (2013). Profiling service failure and customer online complaint motives in the case of single failure and double deviation. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 22(7), 728-751.
- Lovett, M., Bajaba, S., Lovett, M., & Simmering, M. J. (2018). Data Quality from Crowdsourced Surveys: A Mixed Method Inquiry into Perceptions of Amazon's Mechanical Turk Masters. *Applied Psychology*, 67(2), 339-366.
- Luczak, C. (2014). Consumer Marketing Orientations: Does Your Customer Want a Relationship?. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 18(2), 121.
- Lutz, R. J., & Winn, P. R. (1974). Developing a Bayesian measure of brand loyalty: A preliminary report. In Combined proceedings (pp. 104-108). American Marketing Association Chicago.
- Magnini, V. P., Ford, J. B., Markowski, E. P., & Honeycutt Jr, E. D. (2007). The service recovery paradox: justifiable theory or smoldering myth?. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 21(3), 213-225.
- Malhotra, N. K., Oly-Ndubisi, N., & Agarwal, J. (2008). Public versus private complaint behaviour and customer defection in Malaysia: Appraising the role of moderating factors. *Esic Market Economic and Business Journal*, 131, 27-59.
- Mattila, A. S. (1999). The role of culture in the service evaluation process. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(3), 250-261.
- Mattila, A. S. (2006). The power of explanations in mitigating the ill-effects of service failures. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(7), 422-428.
- Mattila, A. S. (2001). The effectiveness of service recovery in a multi-industry setting. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 15(7), 583-596.
- Mattila, A. S., & Cranage, D. (2005). The impact of choice on fairness in the context of service recovery. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 19(5), 271-279.

- Mattila, A. S., & Patterson, P. G. (2004). Service recovery and fairness perceptions in collectivist and individualist contexts. *Journal of Service Research*, 6(4), 336-346.
- Mattila, A. S., & Ro, H. (2008). Discrete negative emotions and customer dissatisfaction responses in a casual restaurant setting. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 32(1), 89-107.
- Matzler, K., & Hinterhuber, H. H. (1998). How to make product development projects more successful by integrating Kano's model of customer satisfaction into quality function deployment. *Technovation*, 18(1), 25-38.
- Maxham III, J. G. (2001). Service recovery's influence on consumer satisfaction, positive word-of-mouth, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 54(1), 11-24.
- Maxham, J. G., & Netemeyer, R. G. (2002). Modeling customer perceptions of complaint handling over time: the effects of perceived justice on satisfaction and intent. *Journal of Retailing*, 78(4), 239-252.
- Maxham III, J. G., & Netemeyer, R. G. (2003). Firms reap what they sow: the effects of shared values and perceived organizational justice on customers' evaluations of complaint handling. *Journal of Marketing*, 67(1), 46-62.
- Maxwell, S. E., & Delaney, H. D. (2003). *Designing Experiments and Analyzing Data: A Model Comparison Perspective*. New York: Psychology Press.
- McCollough, M. A. (1995). *The recovery paradox: a conceptual model and empirical investigation of customer satisfaction and service quality attitudes after service failure and recovery* (Doctoral dissertation, Texas A & M University).
- McCollough, M. A. (2000). The effect of perceived justice and attributions regarding service failure and recovery on post-recovery customer satisfaction and service quality attitudes. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 24(4), 423-447.
- McCollough, M. A. (2009). The recovery paradox: The effect of recovery performance and service failure severity on post-recovery customer satisfaction. *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, 13(1), 89.
- McCollough, M. A., Berry, L. L., & Yadav, M. S. (2000). An empirical investigation of customer satisfaction after service failure and recovery. *Journal of Service Research*, 3(2), 121-137.
- McCollough, M.A., Bharadwaj, S.G. (1992). The recovery paradox: an examination of consumer satisfaction in relation to disconfirmation, service quality, and attribution based theories. *Marketing Theory and Applications*, 119.

- McDonald, R. A., Seifert, C. F., Lorenzet, S. J., Givens, S., & Jaccard, J. (2002). The effectiveness of methods for analyzing multivariate factorial data. *Organizational Research Methods*, 5(3), 255-274.
- McDougal, G. H. G, & Levesque, T. (2000). Customer satisfaction with services: Putting perceived value into the equation. *Journal of Service Marketing*, 14, 392-409.
- McGill, A. L., & Iacobucci, D. (1992). The role of post-experience comparison standards in the evaluation of unfamiliar services. *ACR North American Advances*.
- McLelland, M. A., & Foster, J. (2015). Reactions of the jilted consumer. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 22, 53-60.
- McNamara, J. F. (1997). *Surveys and Experiments in Education Research*. Lancaster, PA: Technomic.
- McQuilken, L. (2010). The influence of failure severity and employee effort on service recovery in a service guarantee context. *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, 18(4), 214-221.
- McQuilken, L., & Robertson, N. (2011). The influence of guarantees, active requests to voice and failure severity on customer complaint behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(4), 953-962.
- Mende, M., Bolton, R. N., & Bitner, M. J. (2013). Decoding customer–firm relationships: how attachment styles help explain customers' preferences for closeness, repurchase intentions, and changes in relationship breadth. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 50(1), 125-142.
- Meyer, Danny (2006). *Setting the Table*. New York, NY: Harper.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1984). Testing the "side-bet theory" of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(3), 372.
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, and Application (Advanced Topics in Organizational Behavior)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: a conceptual analysis and integrative model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6), 991.
- Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001). Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11(3), 299-326.

- Meyer, S. B., & Ward, P. R. (2013). Differentiating between trust and dependence of patients with coronary heart disease: Furthering the sociology of trust. *Health, Risk & Society*, 15(3), 279-293.
- Michel, S., & Meuter, M. L. (2008). The service recovery paradox: true but overrated? *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 19(4), 441-457.
- Migacz, S. J., Zou, S., & Petrick, J. F. (2018). The “Terminal” Effects of Service Failure on Airlines: Examining Service Recovery with Justice Theory. *Journal of Travel Research*, 57(1), 83-98.
- Mill, J. S. (1901). *Utilitarianism*. London: Longmans, Green and Company.
- Miller, J. L., Craighead, C. W., & Karwan, K. R. (2000). Service recovery: a framework and empirical investigation. *Journal of Operations Management*, 18(4), 387-400.
- Minton, S. (2012). *Learning search control knowledge: An explanation-based approach* (Vol. 61). Springer Science & Business Media.
- Mittal, V., & Kamakura, W. A. (2001). Satisfaction, repurchase intent, and repurchase behavior: Investigating the moderating effect of customer characteristics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38(1), 131-142.
- Moorman, C., Deshpande, R., & Zaltman, G. (1993). Factors affecting trust in market research relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 81-101.
- Moorman, C., Zaltman, G., & Deshpande, R. (1992). Relationships between providers and users of market research: The dynamics of trust within and between organizations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 29(3), 314.
- Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *The Journal of Marketing*, 20-38.
- Mousa, I. A., & Zoubi, F. H. (2011). Exploring Relationship Marketing and Marketing Performance Success: An Empirical Investigation in the Insurance Services Sector from a Management perspective. *Amity Global Business Review*, 6(1).
- Murphy, K., Bilgihan, A., Kubickova, M., & Boseo, M. (2015). There is no ‘I’ in recovery: Managements’ perspective of service recovery. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 16(3), 303-322.
- Murray, K. B. (1991). A test of services marketing theory: consumer information acquisition activities. *Journal of Marketing*, 10-25.
- Nadiri, H. (2016). Diagnosing the impact of retail bank customers’ perceived justice on their service recovery satisfaction and post-purchase behaviours: an empirical study in

- financial centre of middle east. *Economic research-Ekonomska istraživanja*, 29(1), 193-216.
- Namkung, Y., & Jang, S. (2010). Service failures in restaurants: Which stage of service failure is the most critical?. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 51(3), 323-343.
- Namkung, Y., Jang, S., Almanza, B., & Ismail, J. (2009). Identifying the underlying structure of perceived service fairness in restaurants. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 21(4), 375-392.
- National Restaurant Association (US), & Laventhol & Horwath. (2017). Restaurant industry operations report. National Restaurant Association.
- Nguyen, D. T., McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Dagger, T. S. (2012). Matching service recovery solutions to customer recovery preferences. *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(9), 1171-1194.
- Niculescu, M., Payne, C. R., & Krishnan, V. (2013). One-to-one and one-to-many business relationship marketing: toward a theoretical framework. *Journal of Business-to-Business Marketing*, 20(2), 51-64.
- Nikbin, D., Iranmanesh, M., Hyun, S. S., Baharun, R., & Kim, I. (2015). The role of airline travelers' pre-recovery emotions during the service recovery process. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 32(6), 677-691.
- Nikbin, D., Ismail, I., Marimuthu, M., & Jalalkamali, M. (2010). Perceived justice in service recovery and recovery satisfaction: The moderating role of corporate image. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, 2(2), 47.
- Nikbin, D., Marimuthu, M., & Hyun, S. S. (2016). Influence of perceived service fairness on relationship quality and switching intention: An empirical study of restaurant experiences. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(10), 1005-1026.
- Nikbin, D., Marimuthu, M., Hyun, S. S., & Ismail, I. (2015). Relationships of perceived justice to service recovery, service failure attributions, recovery satisfaction, and loyalty in the context of airline travelers. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(3), 239-262.
- Nozick, R. (1974). *Anarchy, State and Utopia*. Basic Books, New York.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). Psychological theory. *New York, NY: MacGraw-Hill*.
- Nusair, K. (2010). Examining the Relationship Among Service Recovery, Affecting Commitment, Calculative Commitment, and Trust for E-Travel Retailers. *Information Technology & Tourism*, 12, pg. 317-330.

- Oh, H. (1999). Service quality, customer satisfaction, and customer value: A holistic perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 18(1), 67-82.
- Ok, C., Back, K. J., & Shanklin, C. W. (2005). Modeling roles of service recovery strategy: a relationship-focused view. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 29(4), 484-507.
- Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 460-469.
- Oliver, R. L. (1981). What is customer satisfaction. *Wharton Magazine*, 5(3), 36-41.
- Oliver, R. L. (1997). *Satisfaction: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer*, New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence consumer loyalty?. *Journal of Marketing*, 33-44.
- Oliver, R. L., & Burke, R. R. (1999). Expectation processes in satisfaction formation: A field study. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(3), 196-214.
- Oliver, R. L., & DeSarbo, W. S. (1988). Response determinants in satisfaction judgments. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(4), 495-507.
- Oliver, R. L., Rust, R. T., & Varki, S. (1997). Customer delight: foundations, findings, and managerial insight. *Journal of Retailing*, 73(3), 311-336.
- Oliver, R. L., & Swan, J. E. (1989). Equity and disconfirmation perceptions as influences on merchant and product satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(3), 372-383.
- Olshavsky, R. W., & Granbois, D. H. (1979). Consumer decision making—fact or fiction?. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 6(2), 93-100.
- O'Malley, L. (2014). Relational marketing: development, debates and directions. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 30(11-12), 1220-1238.
- O'Malley, L., & Tynan, C. (2000). Relationship marketing in consumer markets—rhetoric or reality?. *European Journal of Marketing*, 34(7), 797-815.
- Orsingher, C., Valentini, S., & de Angelis, M. (2010). A meta-analysis of satisfaction with complaint handling in services. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38(2), 169-186.
- Ott, R. (1993). *An Introduction to Statistical Methods and Data Analysis (4th edition)*, Wadsworth, Belmont, CA: Nelson Education.

- Palinkas, L. A., Aarons, G. A., Horwitz, S., Chamberlain, P., Hurlburt, M., & Landsverk, J. (2011). Mixed method designs in implementation research. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Mental Health Services Research*, 38(1), 44-53.
- Pallant, J. (2011). Multivariate analysis of variance. *SPSS survival manual. Crows Nest: Allen & Unwin*, 20(11), 283-96.
- Palmatier, R. W., Dant, R. P., Grewal, D., & Evans, K. R. (2006). Factors influencing the effectiveness of relationship marketing: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 70(4), 136-153.
- Palmer, A. (1994). Relationship marketing: back to basics?. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 10(7), 571-579.
- Palmer, A., Beggs, R., & Keown-McMullan, C. (2000). Equity and repurchase intention following service failure. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14(6), 513-28.
- Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P. G. (2010). Running experiments on Amazon Mechanical Turk. *Judgment and Decision Making*, 5(5), 411-419.
- Pappas, I. O., G. Pateli, A., N. Giannakos, M., & Chrissikopoulos, V. (2014). Moderating effects of online shopping experience on customer satisfaction and repurchase intentions. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 42(3), 187-204.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, 41-50.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1988). Servqual: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perc. *Journal of Retailing*, 64(1), 12.
- Park, G., Kim, K., and O'Neill, M. (2014). "Complaint behavior intentions and expectation of service recovery in individualistic and collectivistic cultures." *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(3), 255-271
- Park, C., & Lee, T. M. (2009). Information direction, website reputation and eWOM effect: A moderating role of product type. *Journal of Business research*, 62(1), 61-67.
- Park, S., & Nicolau, J. L. (2015). Asymmetric effects of online consumer reviews. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 50, 67-83.
- Park, J. J., & Park, J. W. (2016). Investigating the effects of service recovery quality elements on passengers' behavioral intention. *Journal of Air Transport Management*, 53, 235-241.

- Parsa, H. G., Gregory, A., & Terry, M. (2011). Why do restaurants fail? Part III: An analysis of macro and micro factors. *Emerging Aspects Redefining Tourism and Hospitality*, 1(1), 16-25.
- Patterson, P. G., Cowley, E., & Prasongsukarn, K. (2006). Service failure recovery: The moderating impact of individual-level cultural value orientation on perceptions of justice. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 23(3), 263-277.
- Patton, M.G. (1990).) Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods 2nd edn. Sage, Newbury Park, California.
- Paul, M., Hennig-Thurau, T., Gremler, D. D., Gwinner, K. P., & Wiertz, C. (2009). Toward a theory of repeat purchase drivers for consumer services. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 37(2), 215-237.
- Pearce, P.L., & Moscardo, G.M. (1984). Making Sense of Tourists' Complaints. *Tourism Management*, 5, 20-23.
- Petree, R. D., Broome, K. M., & Bennett, J. B. (2012). Exploring and reducing stress in young restaurant workers: Results of a randomized field trial. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, 26(4), 217-224.
- Petrick, J. F. (2002). Development of a multi-dimensional scale for measuring the perceived value of a service. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 34(2), 119-134.
- Petrick, J. F. (2004). Are loyal visitors desired visitors?. *Tourism Management*, 25(4), 463-470.
- Petrick, J. F., & Backman, S. J. (2002). An examination of the construct of perceived value for the prediction of golf travelers' intentions to revisit. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(1), 38-45.
- Pi, S. M., Liao, H. L., & Chen, H. M. (2012). Factors that affect consumers' trust and continuous adoption of online financial services. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 7(9), 108.
- Piaralal, S. K., Bhatti, M. A., Piaralal, N. K., & Juhari, A. S. (2016). Factors affecting service recovery performance and customer service employees: A study of Malaysian life insurance industry. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 65(7), 898-924.
- Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1993). Predicting satisfaction among first time visitors to a destination by using the expectancy disconfirmation theory. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 12(2), 197-209.

- Pizam, A., Shapoval, V., & Ellis, T. (2016). Customer satisfaction and its measurement in hospitality enterprises: a revisit and update. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 2-35.
- Pizzutti, C., & Fernandes, D. (2010). Effect of recovery efforts on consumer trust and loyalty in e-tail: a contingency model. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, 14(4), 127-160.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2012). Sources of method bias in social science research and recommendations on how to control it. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 63, 539-569.
- Pollack, B. L. (2015). Are Moderators of the Customer Satisfaction–Repurchase Intention Relationship Contingent on the Service Category? An Exploratory Investigation. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 36(4), 335-351.
- Prachayakupt, S., O'Mahony, B., & Sillitoe, J. F. (2017). An Integrated Customer Relationship Model to Improve Retention in Hospitality Services. In *Opportunities and Challenges for Tourism and Hospitality in the BRIC Nations* (pp. 95-116). IGI Global.
- Qin, H., & Prybutok, V. R. (2009). Service quality, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions in fast-food restaurants. *International Journal of Quality and Service Sciences*, 1(1), 78-95.
- Rauyruen, P., & Miller, K. E. (2007). Relationship quality as a predictor of B2B customer loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(1), 21-31.
- Rawls, J. (1971). *A Theory of Justice*. Cambridge: Harvard Press.
- Reichheld, F. F., Markey Jr, R. G., & Hopton, C. (2000). The loyalty effect—the relationship between loyalty and profits. *European Business Journal*, 12(3), 134.
- Reichheld, F. F., & Sasser, J. W. (1990). Zero defections: Quality comes to services. *Harvard Business Review*, 68(5), 105-111.
- Reimer, T., & Benkenstein, M. (2018). Not just for the recommender: How eWOM incentives influence the recommendation audience. *Journal of Business Research*, 86, 11-21.
- Reinartz, W. J., & Kumar, V. (2000). On the profitability of long-life customers in a non-contractual setting: An empirical investigation and implications for marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 64(4), 17-35.
- Richins, M. L. (1983). Negative word-of-mouth by dissatisfied consumers: A pilot study. *The Journal of Marketing*, 68-78.

- Ring, A., Tkaczynski, A., & Dolnicar, S. (2016). Word-of-mouth segments: online, offline, visual or verbal?. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(4), 481-492.
- Rotter, J. B. (1967). A new scale for the measurement of interpersonal trust. *Journal of Personality*, 35(4), 651-665.
- Rotter, J. B. (1980). Interpersonal trust, trustworthiness, and gullibility. *American Psychologist*, 35(1), 1.
- Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3), 393-404.
- Rozin, P., Haidt, J., McCauley, C., & Imada, S. (1997). Disgust: Preadaptation and the cultural evolution of a food-based emotion. *Food Preferences and Taste*, 65-82.
- Rust, R. T., & Williams, D. C. (1994). How length of patronage affects the impact of customer satisfaction on repurchase intention. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 7, 107-113.
- Ryan, A. M., & Wessel, J. L. (2015). Implications of a changing workforce and workplace for justice perceptions and expectations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(2), 162-175.
- Sabharwal, N., Soch, H., & Kaur, H. (2010). Are we satisfied with incompetent services? A scale development approach for service recovery. *Journal of Services Research*, 10(1), 125-142.
- Sacconi, L., & Faillo, M. (2008). Conformity, Reciprocity and the Sense of Justice how Social Contract-Based Preferences and Beliefs Explain Norm Compliance: The Experimental Evidence. *Constitutional and Political Economy*, 21, 171-201.
- Sajtos, L., Brodie, R. J., & Whittome, J. (2010). Impact of service failure: The protective layer of customer relationships. *Journal of Service Research*, 13(2), 216-229.
- Santos, C. P. D., & Fernandes, D. V. D. H. (2008). Antecedents and consequences of consumer trust in the context of service recovery. *BAR-Brazilian Administration Review*, 5(3), 225-244.
- Saunders, M. N. K., & Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students* (2nd ed.). Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education
- Schneider, B., & Bowen, D. E. (1999). Understanding customer delight and outrage. *Sloan Management Review*, 41(1), 35.
- Schminke, M., Ambrose, M. L., & Noel, T. W. (1997). The effect of ethical frameworks on perceptions of organizational justice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(5), 1190-1207.

- Schminke, M., Caldwell, J., Ambrose, M. L., & McMahon, S. R. (2014). Better than ever? Employee reactions to ethical failures in organizations, and the ethical recovery paradox. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 123(2), 206-219.
- Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). An integrative model of organizational trust: Past, present, and future. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 344-354.
- Schurr, P. H., & Ozanne, J. L. (1985). Influences on exchange processes: Buyers' preconceptions of a seller's trustworthiness and bargaining toughness. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 11(4), 939-953.
- Sheth, J.N., Parvatiyar, A., & Sinha, M. (2012). The Conceptual Foundations of Relational Marketing: Review and Synthesis. *Economic Sociology_ the European Newsletter*, 13(3), pg. 4-26.
- Seiders, K., & Berry, L. L. (1998). Service fairness: What it is and why it matters. *The Academy of Management Executive*, 12(2), 8-20.
- Seiders, K., Berry, L. L., & Gresham, L. G. (2000). Attention, retailers! How convenient is your convenience strategy?. *Sloan Management Review*, 41(3), 79.
- Seiders, K., Voss, G. B., Grewal, D., & Godfrey, A. L. (2005). Do satisfied customers buy more? Examining moderating influences in a retailing context. *Journal of Marketing*, 69(4), 26-43.
- Sengupta, A. S., Balaji, M. S., & Krishnan, B. C. (2015). How customers cope with service failure? A study of brand reputation and customer satisfaction. *Journal of Business Research*, 68(3), 665-674.
- Sharabi, M. (2014). Today's quality is tomorrow's reputation (and the following day's business success). *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 25(3-4), 183-197.
- Sharma, N., & Patterson, P. G. (2000). Switching costs, alternative attractiveness and experience as moderators of relationship commitment in professional, consumer services. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 11(5), 470-490.
- Schoefer, K., & Ennew, C. (2005). The impact of perceived justice on consumers' emotional responses to service complaint experiences. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 19(5), 261-270.
- Sherif, C.W., & Hovland, C.I. (1961). *Social Judgment: Assimilation and Contrast Effects in Communicatio and Attitude Change*, New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

- Siegel, P., Brockner, J., & Tyler, T. (1995). Revisiting the interactive relationship between procedural and distributive justice: The role of trust. In *Academy of Management Meeting, Vancouver*.
- Silber, I., Israeli, A., Bustin, A., & Zvi, O. B. (2009). Recovery strategies for service failures: The case of restaurants. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18(7), 730-740.
- Simmel, G., Tom, B., & David, F. (1978). *The Philosophy of Money*. Trans. Tom Bottomore and David Frisby. New York: Routledge.
- Simpson, J. A. (2007). Psychological foundations of trust. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 16(5), 264-268.
- Singh, H. (2006). The importance of customer satisfaction in relation to customer loyalty and retention. *Academy of Marketing Science*, 60, 193-225.
- Sirdeshmukh, D., Singh, J., & Sabol, B. (2002). Consumer trust, value, and loyalty in relational exchanges. *Journal of Marketing*, 66(1), 15-37.
- Sirgy, M. J. (1984). A social cognition model of consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction an experiment. *Psychology & Marketing*, 1(2), 27-44.
- Siu, N. Y. M., Zhang, T. J. F., & Yau, C. Y. J. (2013). The roles of justice and customer satisfaction in customer retention: A lesson from service recovery. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 114(4), 675-686.
- Sivakumar, K., Li, M., & Dong, B. (2014). Service quality: The impact of frequency, timing, proximity, and sequence of failures and delights. *Journal of Marketing*, 78(1), 41-58.
- Smith, A. K., & Bolton, R. N. (2002). The effect of customers' emotional responses to service failures on their recovery effort evaluations and satisfaction judgments. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30(1), 5-23.
- Smith, A. K., Bolton, R. N., & Wagner, J. (1999). A model of customer satisfaction with service encounters involving failure and recovery. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 356-372.
- Smith, C. A., & Ellsworth, P. C. (1985). Patterns of cognitive appraisal in emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48(4), 813.
- Söderlund, M. (2002). Customer satisfaction and its influence on different behavioural intention constructs. *Journal of Customer Behaviour*, 1(2), 145-166.

- Sparks, B., & Fredline, L. (2007). Providing an explanation for service failure: Context, content, and customer responses. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31(2), 241-260.
- Sparks, B. A., & McColl-Kennedy, J. R. (1998). The application of procedural justice principles to service recovery attempts. *ACR North American Advance*, 25, 156-161.
- Spreng, R. A., Harrell, G. D., & Mackoy, R. D. (1995). Service recovery: impact on satisfaction and intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 9(1), 15-23.
- Spreng, R. A., & Olshavsky, R. W. (1993). A desires congruency model of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21(3), 169-177.
- Sreejesh, S., & Anusree, M. R. (2016). The impacts of customers' observed severity and agreement on hotel booking intentions: moderating role of webcare and mediating role of trust in negative online reviews. *Tourism Review*, 71(2), 77-89.
- Stoddard, J. E., & Fern, E. F. (1999). Risk-taking propensity in supplier choice: Differences by sex and decision frame in a simulated organizational buying context. *Psychology & Marketing*, 16(7), 563-582.
- Stone, M. J., & Migacz, S. (2016). 2016 Foodtravel Monitor. World Food Travel Association.
- Stratemeyer, A. W., Geringer, S. D., & Canton, A. (2014). An exploratory investigation of the effects of service failures and recovery efforts on customer satisfaction. *American Journal of Management*, 14(3), 20.
- Styles, C., Patterson, P. G., & Ahmed, F. (2008). A relational model of export performance. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39(5), 880-900.
- Su, L., & Hsu, M. K. (2013). Service fairness, consumption emotions, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions: The experience of Chinese heritage tourists. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(8), 786-805.
- Sun, T., Youn, S., Wu, G., & Kuntaraporn, M. (2006). Online word-of-mouth (or mouse): An exploration of its antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 11(4), 1104-1127.
- Sundaram, D. S., Mitra, K., & Webster, C. (1998). Word-of-mouth communications: A motivational analysis. *ACR North American Advances*.
- Susskind, A. M. (2005). A content analysis of consumer complaints, remedies, and repatronage intentions regarding dissatisfying service experiences. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 29(2), 150-169.

- Susskind, A. M., & Curry, B. (2016). An examination of customers' attitudes about tabletop technology in full-service restaurants. *Service Science*, 8(2), 203-217.
- Susskind, A., & Viccari, A. (2011). A look at the relationship between service failures, guest satisfaction, and repeat-patronage intentions of casual dining guests. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 52(4), 438-444.
- Swan, J. E., & Trawick, F. J. (1993). Consumer Satisfaction Research: 1983–1992 Accomplishments and Future Directions. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 6, 28-33.
- Swanson, S. R., & Hsu, M. K. (2009). Critical incidents in tourism: Failure, recovery, customer switching, and word-of-mouth behaviors. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(2), 180-194.
- Swanson, S. R., & Hsu, M. K. (2011). The effect of recovery locus attributions and service failure severity on word-of-mouth and repurchase behaviors in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 35(4), 511-529.
- Szymanski, D. M., & Henard, D. H. (2001). Customer satisfaction: A meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 29(1), 16-35.
- Tadajewski, M., & Saren, M. (2009). Rethinking the emergence of relationship marketing. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 29(2), 193-206.
- Tajeddini, K. (2011). Customer orientation, learning orientation, and new service development: an empirical investigation of the Swiss hotel industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 35(4), 437-468.
- Tam, J. L. (2008). Brand familiarity: its effects on satisfaction evaluations. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22(1), 3-12.
- Tax, S. S., Brown, S. W., & Chandrashekar, M. (1998). Customer evaluations of service complaint experiences: implications for relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 60-76.
- Teng, C. C. (2011). Commercial hospitality in restaurants and tourist accommodation: Perspectives from international consumer experience in Scotland. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(4), 866-874.
- Thaler, R. (1985). Mental accounting and consumer choice. *Marketing Science*, 4(3), 199-214.
- Thibaut, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). Power and dependence. *The Social Psychology of Groups*, 7, 100-125.

- Thwaites, E., & Williams, C. (2006). Service recovery: a naturalistic decision-making approach. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 16(6), 641-653.
- Tribe, J., & Snaith, T. (1998). From SERVQUAL to HOLSAT: holiday satisfaction in Varadero, Cuba. *Tourism Management*, 19(1), 25-34.
- Tsai, H. T., & Huang, H. C. (2007). Determinants of e-repurchase intentions: An integrative model of quadruple retention drivers. *Information & Management*, 44(3), 231-239.
- Tsarenko, Y., & Tojib, D. (2012). The role of personality characteristics and service failure severity in consumer forgiveness and service outcomes. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 28(9-10), 1217-1239.
- Tse, D. K., & Wilton, P. C. (1988). Models of consumer satisfaction formation: An extension. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 204-212.
- Turillo, C. J., Folger, R., Lavelle, J. J., Umphress, E. E., & Gee, J. O. (2002). Is virtue its own reward? Self-sacrificial decisions for the sake of fairness. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 89(1), 839-865.
- Tyler, T. R. (1987). Conditions leading to value-expressive effects in judgments of procedural justice: A test of four models. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(2), 333.
- Valeri, L., & VanderWeele, T. J. (2013). Mediation analysis allowing for exposure–mediator interactions and causal interpretation: Theoretical assumptions and implementation with SAS and SPSS macros. *Psychological Methods*, 18(2), 137.
- Van Vaerenbergh, Y., Larivière, B., & Vermeir, I. (2012). The impact of process recovery communication on customer satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and word-of-mouth intentions. *Journal of Service Research*, 15(3), 262-279.
- Van Vaerenbergh, Y., & Orsingher, C. (2016). Service recovery: An integrative framework and research agenda. *The Academy of Management Perspectives*, 30(3), 328-346.
- Van Vaerenbergh, Y., Orsingher, C., Vermeir, I., & Larivière, B. (2014). A meta-analysis of relationships linking service failure attributions to customer outcomes. *Journal of Service Research*, 17(4), 381-398
- Vázquez-Casielles, R., Iglesias, V., & Varela-Neira, C. (2012). Service recovery, satisfaction and behaviour intentions: analysis of compensation and social comparison communication strategies. *The Service Industries Journal*, 32(1), 83-103..

- Vázquez-Casielles, R., Suárez Álvarez, L., & Diaz Martin, A. M. (2010). Perceived justice of service recovery strategies: Impact on customer satisfaction and quality relationship. *Psychology & Marketing*, 27(5), 487-509.
- Vázquez-Casielles, R., Suárez-Álvarez, L., & del Río-Lanza, A. B. (2013). The word of mouth dynamic: How positive (and negative) WOM drives purchase probability: An analysis of interpersonal and non-interpersonal factors. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 53(1), 43-60.
- Verhoef, P. C., Franses, P. H., & Hoekstra, J. C. (2002). The effect of relational constructs on customer referrals and number of services purchased from a multiservice provider: does age of relationship matter?. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30(3), 202-216.
- Walker, J., & Baker, J. (2000). An exploratory study of a multi-expectation framework for services. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14(5), 411-431.
- Wall, E. A., & Berry, L. L. (2007). The combined effects of the physical environment and employee behavior on customer perception of restaurant service quality. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 48(1), 59-69.
- Wang, E. S. T., & Chang, S. Y. (2013). Creating positive word-of-mouth promotion through service recovery strategies. *Services Marketing Quarterly*, 34(2), 103-114.
- Wang, Q., Craighead, C. W., & Li, J. J. (2014). Justice served: Mitigating damaged trust stemming from supply chain disruptions. *Journal of Operations Management*, 32(6), 374-386.
- Wang, L., Law, R., Hung, K., & Guillet, B. D. (2014). Consumer trust in tourism and hospitality: A review of the literature. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 21, 1-9.
- Wang, W. T., Wang, Y. S., & Liu, E. R. (2016). The stickiness intention of group-buying websites: The integration of the commitment–trust theory and e-commerce success model. *Information & Management*, 53(5), 625-642.
- Wang, Y. S., Wu, S. C., Lin, H. H., & Wang, Y. Y. (2011). The relationship of service failure severity, service recovery justice and perceived switching costs with customer loyalty in the context of e-tailing. *International Journal of Information Management*, 31(4), 350-359.
- Wangenheim, F. V. (2005). Postswitching negative word of mouth. *Journal of Service Research*, 8(1), 67-78.
- Weiner, B. (2008). Reflections on the history of attribution theory and research: People, personalities, publications, problems. *Social Psychology*, 39(3), 151-156.

- Wen, B., & Chi, C. (2013). Examine the cognitive and affective antecedents to service recovery satisfaction: A field study of delayed airline passengers. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(3), 306-327.
- Westbrook, R. A. (1987). Product/consumption-based affective responses and postpurchase processes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 258-270.
- Westbrook, R.A., & Oliver, R.L. (1991). The Dimensionality of Consumption Emotion Patterns and Consumer Satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18(1), 84-91.
- Wetzels, M., De Ruyter, K., & Van Birgelen, M. (1998). Marketing service relationships: the role of commitment. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 13(4/5), 406-423.
- Weun, S., Beatty, S. E., & Jones, M. A. (2004). The impact of service failure severity on service recovery evaluations and post-recovery relationships. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 18(2), 133-146.
- Wheeler, S. C., & Berger, J. (2007). When the same prime leads to different effects. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34(3), 357-368.
- Wirtz, J., & Mattila, A. S. (2004). Consumer responses to compensation, speed of recovery and apology after a service failure. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 15(2), 150-166.
- Wong, A., & Sohal, A. (2002). An examination of the relationship between trust, commitment and relationship quality. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 30(1), 34-50.
- Wood, M. S., & Karau, S. J. (2009). Preserving employee dignity during the termination interview: An empirical examination. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 86(4), 519-534.
- Woodruff, R.B., Cadotte, E.R., & Jenkins, R.L. (1983). Modeling Consumer Satisfaction Processes Using Experience-Based Norms. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20(3), 296–304.
- Wu, L. W. (2011). Beyond satisfaction: The relative importance of locational convenience, interpersonal relationships, and commitment across service types. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 21(3), 240-263.
- XiaoRan, W., & Omar, R. (2014). Service Recovery Activities and Customer Satisfaction: Mediating Role of Justice Dimensions: A Case Study of China. *Asian Social Science*, 10(18), 253.
- Xu, Y., Tronvoll, B., & Edvardsson, B. (2014). Recovering service failure through resource integration. *The Service Industries Journal*, 34(16), 1253-1271.

- Yang, J., & Mai, E. S. (2010). Experiential goods with network externalities effects: An empirical study of online rating system. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(9-10), 1050-1057.
- Ye, Q., Law, R., & Gu, B. (2009). The impact of online user reviews on hotel room sales. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 180-182.
- Yi, Y., & Lee, J. (2005). An Empirical Study on the Customer Responses to Service Recovery in the Context of Service Failure. *Seoul Journal of Business*, 11(1), 1-17.
- Yim, C. K., Chan, K. W., & Lam, S. S. (2012). Do customers and employees enjoy service participation? Synergistic effects of self-and other-efficacy. *Journal of Marketing*, 76(6), 121-140.
- Yim, C. K. B., Gu, F. F., Chan, K. W., & David, K. T. (2003). Justice-based service recovery expectations: measurement and antecedents. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 16, 36.
- Yim, C. K., Tse, D. K., & Chan, K. W. (2008). Strengthening customer loyalty through intimacy and passion: Roles of customer–firm affection and customer–staff relationships in services. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45(6), 741-756.
- Yoo, J. J. E., Shin, S. Y., & Yang, I. S. (2006). Key attributes of internal service recovery strategies as perceived by frontline food service employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(3), 496-509.
- Yoon, S. J. (2002). The antecedents and consequences of trust in online-purchase decisions. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 16(2), 47-63.
- Yoon, Y., Polpanumas, C., & Park, Y. J. (2017). The Impact of Word of Mouth via Twitter On Moviegoers' Decisions and Film Revenues: Revisiting Prospect Theory: How WOM about Movies Drives Loss-Aversion and Reference-Dependence Behaviors. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 57(2), 144-158.
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 45-56.
- Yuksel, A., Kilinc, U., & Yuksel, F. (2006). Cross-national analysis of hotel customers' attitudes toward complaining and their complaining behaviours. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 11-24.
- Yuksel, A., & Yuksel, F. (2001). Measurement and management issues in customer satisfaction research: Review, critique and research agenda: Part one. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 10(4), 47-80.

- Yüksel, A., & Yüksel, F. (2003). Measurement of tourist satisfaction with restaurant services: A segment-based approach. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 9(1), 52-68.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12(3), 341-352.
- Zeelenberg, M., & Pieters, R. (2004). Consequences of regret aversion in real life: The case of the Dutch postcode lottery. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 93(2), 155-168.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). Problems and strategies in services marketing. *The Journal of Marketing*, 33-46.
- Zeithaml, V.A., Parasuraman, A., & Berry, L.L. (1993). The nature and determinants of customer expectations of service. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21(1), 1-12.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 31-46.
- Zemke, R., & Bell, C. R. (2000). *Knock Your Socks Off Service Recovery* (New York: AMACOM, 2000). Available: *NetLibrary* [October 10, 2000].
- Zhang, Y., Feick, L., & Mittal, V. (2013). How males and females differ in their likelihood of transmitting negative word of mouth. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 40(6), 1097-1108.
- Zhang, Z., Zhang, Z., & Law, R. (2014). Relative importance and combined effects of attributes on customer satisfaction. *The Service Industries Journal*, 34(6), 550-566.
- Zhao, B., & Tu, R. (2013). Performance Evaluation of Service Recovery Different Service Industries. *International Journal of Digital Content Technology and its Applications*, 7(6), 462.
- Zhao, L., Lu, Y., Zhang, L., & Chau, P. Y. (2012). Assessing the effects of service quality and justice on customer satisfaction and the continuance intention of mobile value-added services: An empirical test of a multidimensional model. *Decision Support Systems*, 52(3), 645-656.
- Zhou, Y., Tsang, A. S., Huang, M., & Zhou, N. (2014). Does delaying service-failure resolution ever make sense?. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(2), 159-166.
- Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P., Aguiar-Quintana, T., & Suárez-Acosta, M. A. (2013). A justice framework for understanding how guests react to hotel employee (mis) treatment. *Tourism Management*, 36, 143-152.

APPENDIX

Dissertation Survey

Q1 How many DIFFERENT restaurants do you frequent per month?

- 0 (1)
- 1 (2)
- 2 or more (3)

Q2 How often do you dine in restaurants per month (please include breakfast, lunch, dinner, and happy-hour)?

- 0 times (1)
- 1 time (2)
- 2 times (3)
- 3 times (4)
- 4 times (5)
- 5 or more times (6)

Q3 Thinking of the restaurant you frequent the most, what percentage of your total dining experiences are spent at that one establishment?

- Less than 30% (1)
- 30% or more (2)

Q4 Looking at the list below, please select all of the things that you have experienced at a restaurant.

- A hair was found in your food (1)

- The food on your plate was spoiled (2)
- The service was slow (3)
- The silverware was dirty (4)
- The menu item you wanted to order was not available (5)
- Your server was rude (6)
- You were delivered the wrong food (7)
- Your food order was "lost" (8)
- Your bill included additional or mischarges (9)
- You were given incorrect change upon payment (10)
- The food was not cooked to order (11)
- Your reservations were lost (12)
- You were denied request for a particular table (13)
- You had to wait too long to be seated (14)
- None of the above (15)

Q5 Please describe any food or service error that you have experienced in a restaurant that was not listed previously.

Q6 Please rate the following errors common to restaurants on a scale ranging from 1 (not at all severe) to 7 (very severe):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
A hair was found in your food (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The food on your plate was spoiled (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service was slow (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The silverware was dirty (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The menu item you wanted to order was not available (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your server was rude (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
You were delivered the wrong food (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your food order was "lost" (8)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your bill included additional charges or miss-charges (9)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
You were given incorrect change upon payment (10)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The food was not cooked to order (11)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your reservations were lost (12)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
You were denied request for a particular table (13)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
You had to wait too long to be seated (14)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Q7 Thinking about the last time any of these errors happened to you in a restaurant, did you complain to a member of the restaurant staff?

- Yes (1)
- No (2)

Q8 Please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
I consider myself to be knowledgeable about food and drink (1)	(((((((
I travel to enjoy memorable eating and drinking experiences (2)	(((((((
I learn about local food and drink when I visit a destination (3)	(((((((
I believe my eating and drinking experiences help me to understand the local culture when I travel (4)	(((((((

Q9 Thinking of all the trips you have taken in the past two years, which activities have motivated you to visit a destination or take a trip? Please select all that apply.

- To visit a famous or landmark restaurant (1)
- To eat at a fine dining (gourmet) restaurant (2)
- To visit a farm or orchard (3)
- To participate in a food tour (4)
- To attend a food festival (5)
- To eat the local/regional food at a destination (6)

To take a cooking class (7)

None of the above (8)

Q10 Thinking about the following list of casual dining food chains, which one would you select as your favorite restaurant chain?

- Red Lobster (1)
- P.F. Chang's (2)
- The Melting Pot (3)
- Buffalo Wild Wings (4)
- BJ's Restaurant and Brewhouse (5)
- Red Robin Gourmet Burgers and Brews (6)
- Bonefish Grill (7)
- Carraba's Italian Grill (8)
- Texas Roadhouse (9)
- Olive Garden (10)
- The Cheesecake Factory (11)
- Cracker Barrel Old Country Store (12)
- Cheddar's Scratch Kitchen (13)
- Applebee's (14)
- Chili's (15)

Q11 Please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree):

Q12 Please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
I believe $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$ keeps its promises (1)	(((((((
I believe $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$ responds to my needs (2)	(((((((
I place great trust in $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$ (3)	(((((((

(Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
I feel emotionally attached to $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$ (1)	(((((((
I feel obligated to dine at $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$ (2)	(((((((
I would find it hard to find a replacement for $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$ (3)	(((((((
I am committed to $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$ (4)	(((((((

S1V You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go to chain $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$. You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a piece of broken glass on your plate. You manage to

quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy her a free dessert.

Based on the story you have just read, do you find this story to be realistic?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Skip To: End of Survey If You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining... = No

M1 How would you rate the severity of the service error described in this story on a scale of 1 (Not at all severe) to 7 (Very severe):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
Finding a piece of broken glass in your plate is... (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

M2 Based on the story you have just read, what type of compensation was offered?

None (1)

A free meal (2)

A free meal and the option of a free dessert (3)

M3 Based on the story you have just read, did the server apologize?

Yes (1)

No (2)

M4 Based on the story you have just read, how long did you have to wait to have your meal replaced?

Less than 15 minutes (1)

More than 15 minutes (2)

S1Q13 Based on the story you have just read, please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree):

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
I am satisfied with the overall experience in patronizing this restaurant (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
As a whole, I am not satisfied with this restaurant (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am satisfied with the quality of this restaurant (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

S1Q15 Based on the story you have just read, please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
I am satisfied with the manner in which the service failure was resolved (1)	(((((((
I am not satisfied with how the restaurant handled my problem (2)	(((((((
The restaurant provided a favorable solution for me (3)	(((((((

S1Q15 Based on the story you have just read, please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Very Low) to 5 (Very High):

	1 (1)	2 (6)	3 (7)	4 (8)	5 (9)
If I were to dine in the future, the probability that I would visit this restaurant would be... (1)	(((((
The likelihood that you would consider returning to this restaurant is... (2)	(((((

S1Q16 Given what happened in the story, please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Not likely at all) to 7 (Very likely):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
I would write positive reviews about this restaurant in social media (1)	(((((((
I would encourage others through social media to do business with this restaurant (2)	(((((((
I would recommend this restaurant to friends (3)	(((((((

S1Q17 Given what happened in the story, please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Not likely at all) to 7 (Very likely):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (8)	4 (9)	5 (10)	6 (11)	7 (12)
I would tell friends and relatives not to patronize this restaurant (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would complain to my friends and relatives about this restaurant (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would write a negative review about this experience in social media (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

S1Q18 Given what happened in the story, please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree):

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (8)	4 (9)	5 (10)	6 (11)	7 (12)
I believe my favorite restaurant chain keeps its promises (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My favorite restaurant chain responds to my needs (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I place great trust in my favorite restaurant chain (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

S1Q19 Given what happened in the story, please select your level of agreement with each of the following statements on scale of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree):

	1 (1)	2 (8)	3 (9)	4 (10)	5 (11)	6 (12)	7 (13)
I feel emotionally attached to my favorite restaurant chain (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I feel obligated to dine in my favorite restaurant chain (2)

(((C C C C

I would find it hard to find a replacement for my favorite restaurant chain, even if I wanted to (3)

(((C C C C

I am committed to my favorite restaurant chain (4)

(((C C C C

S1Q20 Are you?

Male (1)

Female (2)

Q21S1 What is your current age? Please provide your age in years.

Q27S1 How many years of education have you completed? Please select the correct answer.

5 Years (Elementary School) (1)

6 Years (Elementary School) (2)

7 Years (Elementary School) (3)

8 Years (Elementary School) (4)

9 Years (High School) (5)

10 Years (High School) (6)

11 Years (High School) (7)

12 Years (High School) (8)

13 Years (College) (9)

14 Years (College) (10)

15 Years (College) (11)

- 16 Years (College) (12)
- 17 Years (Graduate School) (13)
- 18 Years (Graduate School) (14)
- 19 Years (Graduate School) (15)
- 20 Years (Graduate School) (16)
- 20+ Years (Graduate School) (17)

Q28S1 What was your approximate total household income last year?

- Under \$25,000 (1)
- \$25,000 - \$39,999 (2)
- \$40,000 - \$49,999 (3)
- \$50,000 - \$74,999 (4)
- \$75,000 - \$99,999 (5)
- \$100,000 - \$124,999 (6)
- \$125,000 - \$199,999 (7)
- \$200,000 or more (8)

Q29 Thank You For Your Assistance. Your Responses Will Help Us To Better Understand How People Feel About Issues Concerning Service Recovery.

Additional Scenarios:

You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go to [\\${Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}](#). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a piece of broken glass on your plate. You manage to quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate,

she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server brings over the bill. Your server apologizes again for the mistake, but no discount or refund is mentioned.

You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go to $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$. You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a piece of broken glass on your plate. You manage to quickly flag down your server. Without apologizing, your server takes away the plate, and asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy her a free dessert.

You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$. You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice a piece of broken glass on your plate. After what seems like thirty minutes, you manage to flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. After thirty minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy her a free dessert.

You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go to $\{Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices\}$. You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered "medium" has been cooked "well-done". You manage to quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy her a free dessert.

You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go to [\\${Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}](#). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered "medium" has been cooked "well-done". You manage to quickly flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server brings over the bill. Your server apologizes again for the mistake, but no discount or refund is mentioned.

You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go to [\\${Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}](#). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered "medium" has been cooked "well-done". You manage to quickly flag down your server. Without apologizing, your server takes away the plate, and asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. In less than ten minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy her a free dessert.

You are now being asked to read a short story. The object is for you to read the story, imagining that you are the main character. Please answer the following questions after you read the story carefully:

You and your friends decide to go to [\\${Q10/ChoiceGroup/SelectedChoices}](#). You and your friends are laughing and having a good time until you realize that, after taking two bites of your entrée, you notice the steak you ordered "medium" has been cooked "well-done". After what seems like thirty minutes, you manage to flag down your server, who immediately apologizes. As she takes away the plate, she asks if she can have the kitchen prepare a fresh meal. After thirty minutes, a new meal is placed in front of you. Your server apologizes again for the mistake. At the end of the meal, your server returns and explains that your entrée has been taken off the bill. In addition, she informs you that management would like to buy her a free dessert.