AN EXPLANATION OF CONSUMER TRUST RECOVERY IN A FOOD RETAILER

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ABSTRACT

An organization trusted by consumers enjoys a number of benefits. Unfortunately, instances of trust-damaging events involving organizations happen often. Damaged consumer trust in an organization has numerous negative consequences for the organization and for consumers. Currently, there is a paucity of theory about consumer trust recovery. So, understanding why and how consumer trust recovery occurs is timely, and theoretically and practically relevant. However, the findings from this study suggest that we need to distinguish between two kinds of consumer trust recovery. The first (I call it unconscious consumer trust recovery) refers to trust recovery that occurs without the consumer being fully conscious of it. In other words, a consumer is aware of their damaged trust during the scandal, but is not aware that their trust in the organization has improved. The consumer does not think about his or her recovered trust, just as they did not think about their level of trust before the scandal. The consumer trust is habitual. The second (I call it conscious consumer trust recovery) refers to an improvement in damaged trust where the consumer is fully conscious of their trust recovery. In other words, in conscious trust recovery the consumer is aware that the scandal damaged their trust in the organization. Also, after the scandal, in contrast to unconscious trust recovery, in conscious trust recovery the consumer is also fully aware that he trusts the organization as much or more than during the scandal. My aim is to inductively develop a theory explaining each type of consumer trust recovery. To do so, I use Charmazian grounded theory methodology, because this methodology is developed for theory-building from data and is aligned with the philosophical underpinnings of this study. The empirical context for this study is the meat adulteration scandal ("the horse meat scandal") in 2013 in the UK. I collect and analyse empirical data about both types of trust recovery in an organization from 31 consumers that experienced both types. My analysis shows that when consumers perceive the scandal as less important, they experience unconscious trust recovery. This happens because the reduced importance of the scandal leads to a shift in consumers' attention, which in turn leads to their inattentiveness to the scandal. Consumer inattentiveness is an immediate antecedent of unconscious trust recovery. Conscious consumer trust recovery occurs because consumers see cues indicating to them that the food retailer has improved product control systems, which in turn leads to consumer perceptions of the organization's renewed ability. Consumer perception of renewed ability

is an immediate antecedent of their conscious trust recovery. My findings lead me to make three main theoretical contributions to the theory of trust recovery in general and to consumer trust recovery in particular. The first contribution lies in showing that there are two types of consumer trust recovery in an organization, not one, as previously conceptualised, and that the same consumers can experience both types. The second contribution is a theory of unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization that involves three concepts: consumers' perceived importance of the scandal, consumers' shift of attention, and consumer inattentiveness. The third contribution is the finding that conscious recovery of consumer trust occurs even when existing theory of trust recovery would predict that it would not. This study can help managers aiming to repair consumer trust in an organization by identifying a set of antecedents and underlying mechanisms that can guide such trust repair.

KEYWORDS

Trust, consumer trust, consumer trust recovery, unconscious trust recovery, conscious trust recovery, consumer trust repair, grounded theory, trust in organizations, trust failures, qualitative research

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AUTHORS DECLARATION

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this PhD thesis is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature:

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Date: 18 June 2016

Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to this chapter

In this first chapter of my PhD thesis, I introduce the study. I start by providing a background to this study. In brief, the background includes: a historical account and discourse on trust and its importance; consequences of consumer trust; organizational trust failures, damaged consumer trust in an organization; the significance of explanation of why consumer trust recovery occurs; and current literature on the topic. I then define key concepts used in this study (the reader may consider reading this part first to understand the key concepts). After this I spell out the research design used to address my research question and aim derived from the research gaps, my findings, theoretical contributions and practical implications. I end the chapter by outlining ("a road map") and visually laying out the structure of this thesis.

I would like to explain and justify why the thesis has been written in the first person. I understand that the majority of researchers traditionally use a third person, passive voice when writing their research. I believe that this largely reflects the nature of their research training (i.e., "a received view") that dominated social sciences over the past decades, and still does, which is underpinned by philosophical assumptions of positivist and post-positivist philosophy. At the core of these philosophies are beliefs about "real" reality and objective epistemology. In this context, use of the third person is considered a standard and important because it helps the researcher signal the objectivity of his research. However, it is now recognised that within the social sciences there are additional research paradigms that co-exist with positivist and post-positivist research philosophies (Crotty, 1998; Burrell and Morgan, 1979). One of these is interpretivism, which underpins this thesis. Researchers working within this paradigm believe that reality is not "real" (i.e., the meaning does not reside in things themselves) but rather socially constructed. Relatedly, interpretivists believe in subjective epistemology. Thus, research is necessarily subjective and not value-free, and findings are co-constructed between the researcher and research participants (e.g., Blaikie 2007; Charmaz, 2006, 2014, 2015; Crotty, 1998). Therefore, within this paradigm, exclusive use of the third person or passive voice seems awkward and ill-suited; it gives the research an objective feel, which is at odds with core interpretivist ontological and epistemological assumptions. To be in tune with my interpretivist paradigm, throughout this research study I use the first person "I". "I" is central to subjectivist epistemology because it shows the reader that the researcher is not

removed from the research process but is integral to it. I also use the first person "I" for two additional reasons. First, work in the APA manual, which advises use of the first person and is THE manual used to train American social scientists. Second, Sword (2012) argues that, regardless of paradigm and discipline, use of the first person is seen as the most appropriate way to write good prose. However, I need to note that for the purpose of variety, and not objectivity, I occasionally use a third person or passive voice.

1.2 Background

1.2.1 Trust and its importance

Trust is one of the most fundamental social phenomena (Gambetta, 1988; Lyon 2015). Trust is highly evocative concepts such as freedom, truth, justice, knowledge, prosperity, power and solidarity (see Möllering, 2006). As a phenomenon, trust probably dates back to early forms of human associations (Möllering, Bachmann and Lee, 2004). Ideas and theorising on the phenomenon have a long and rich history that goes back to Confucius (551-479 BC) and the writings of Hobbes, Locke, Hume, Durkheim, Simmel and Freud (see Möllering et al., 2004). Contemporary seminal works on trust were published from 1960s onwards (e.g., Axelrod, 1984; Barber, 1983; Coleman, 1990; Creed and Miles, 1996; Dasgupta, 1988; Deutsch, 1958, 1973; Dwyer et al.,1987; Erikson, 1965; Fox, 1966, 1974a, b; Fukuyama, 1995; Gambetta, 1988; Garfinkel, 1967; Giddens, 1990; Goffman, 1963; Hardin, 2002; Lewicki and Bunker, 1995, 1996; Luhmann, 1979; Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister, 1995; Moorman et al., 1992, 1993; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Rotter, 1967; Zand, 1972; Zucker, 1986). Most of early works are grounded in sociology and psychology. However, works on trust started to appear within virtually all social science disciplines, including management and organizational studies, marketing, economics and anthropology, and political science, behavioral economics and neuroscience (Kramer and Lewicki, 2010; Möllering et al., 2004). Since the 1960s, hundreds of studies have been published. For example, almost ten years ago, Arnott (2007) managed to compile a list of over 700 books, articles and conference papers dedicated to the topic of trust. At the time of writing a search on Google Scholar identified over 2.6 million references to trust.

Outside of academic circles, the concept of trust also has a rich history. Trust is frequently mentioned in the business and financial sectors, and the sport industry, among others. In recent years, practitioners have made public references to trust. For example, UK supermarket carrier bags carried the following message 'Food you can trust' (Arnott, 2007:

981). Mr. Toyoda, after the break of the scandal, stated that they are 'committed to continue earning the trust and confidence of American consumers' (Bunkley, 2011). In 2013, in the wake of the meat adulteration scandal (i.e., "the horsemeat scandal") in the UK, Tesco CEO Philip Clarke frequently referred to trust. The slogan on one of the major UK supermarket reads "Meat you can trust". The management of VW talked about trust after the 2015 emissions scandal (*The Financial Times*, 2015). The president of the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) Sebastian Coe stated 'the key is creating a sport that people once more trust' (*The Guardian*, 2016). These examples are prominent but not uncommon. Taken together, philosophical writing and academic studies on trust and discourse in the world of practice about trust share one fundamental thing – they all consider trust an important phenomenon. Because of my research aim, the reminder of this chapter is related to consumer trust in an organization.

1.2.2 Consequences of consumer trust in an organization

The importance of trust stems from its various consequences (outcomes). Recognising that a lack of trust also has a "dark side" (e.g., Currall and Epstein, 2003; Gargiulo and Ertug, 2006; Skinner, Dietz and Weibel, 2013; Kramer, 2009; McEvily et al., 2003; Flores and Solomon, 1998; Hardy et al., 1998; Zahra, Yavuz and Ucbasaran, 2006) involving various dire consequences for trustors (and also for trustees), the majority of trust scholars and practitioners see trust as important because of its benefits. On the one hand, research shows that organizations trusted by consumers enjoy a number of benefits. These include consumer loyalty and commitment (e.g., Sirdeshmukh, Singh and Sabol, 2002; Morgan and Hunt, 1994); product acceptance (García-Marzá, 2005); business viability (Audi, 2008); cooperation and agreement (e.g., Schurr and Ozanne, 1985); strong, quality, long-term relationships with consumers (Aaker, Fournier and Brasel, 2004; Nooteboom et al., 1997; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande, 1992; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Tax, Brown and Chandrashekaran, 1998); effective product branding (Keller and Lehman, 2006); a sustainable competitive advantage for the organization (e.g., Barney and Hansen, 1994); and revenue and profit (e.g., Davis, Schoorman, Mayer and Tan, 2000; Simons and McLean Parks, 2002). Consumer trust, for an organization, is a strategic, relational asset (Castaldo et al., 2010). Trust is one of key source of business relationships (Bachmann and Zaheer, 2013). On the other hand, for consumers, having trust in an organization or in a specific part of it can help them reduce complexity related with their retail activities (Luhmann, 1979).

1.2.3 Organization's transgressions, damaged consumer trust and the importance of trust recovery

Over the last decade or so, we have witnessed some of the more spectacular organizational transgressions in the history of business. Recent high profile organization's transgressions included a horse meat scandal in 2013 in the UK and elsewhere in Europe and a Volkswagen emission scandal. However, if Kim and colleagues (2004) were correct, these transgressions are the tip of the iceberg, because only a small portion of transgressions are reported and become prominent. Transgressions involving organizations are common. Among other consequences, such transgressions can damage consumer trust in an organization. This can manifest itself in a number of serious consequences for the organization and for consumers. Most of these consequences are a mirror image of its benefits (Gargiulo and Ertug, 2006). However, there are additional consequences, such as customers' rage, disappointment and changes in eating habits (e.g. becoming vegetarian) (BBC, 2013b; Harris Interactive, 2013, cited on the FSA, 2014; Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011).

Because an organization trusted by consumers enjoys a number of benefits, because of the high frequency and quantity of consumer trust-damaging events involving organizations and because of numerous negative consequences of damaged consumer trust in an organization, the topic of trust recovery is an important theoretical and practical concern. This is also evident from numerous calls for more research on trust recovery by researchers and practitioners (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015; Schoorman et al., 2007; Schweitzer et al., 2006; Mayer, 2014; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Mintel, 2009, cited in Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011: 31). For example, Bachmann et al. (2015: 1137-1138) argued that 'much more work needs to be done to systematically investigate how the breakdown or erosion of trust in organizations and institutions might be restored'. Similarly, Schoorman and his colleagues (2007: 349) argued that trust recovery is 'a very appropriate topic and promises to add valuable insight into the process by which trust development can move forward after trust has been damaged.' Mayer (2014) said that we still know very little about how trust repair happens. Theoretical and practical importance of consumer trust recovery and calls for research on trust recovery motivated me to conduct this research.

1.3 Definitions of key concepts

Before I sketch out what is currently known about consumer trust recovery in an organization, I explain the key concepts used in this thesis, including trust, unconscious and conscious trust recovery, trustor, trustee and consumer.

1.3.1 Trust

There is no single agreed upon definition of the concept of trust. Numerous similar and distinct definitions of the phenomenon coexist. For example, Seppanen et al. (2007, cited in Lyon et al., 2015: 3), in the context of inter-organizational relationships, identified over 70 definitions of the concept of trust. Castaldo et al. (2010), in the context of business relationships, found 36 unique definitions. Four definitions stand out, judged by the number of citations the papers where these definitions were proposed received (as per Google Scholar at the time of writing) and by how often trust scholars use them in their research (see Castaldo et al., 2010, for example). These are the definitions developed by Moorman et al. (1992, 1993), Morgan and Hunt (1994), Mayer et al. (1995) and Rousseau et al. (1998).

In the context of marketing, Moorman, Deshpande and Zaltman (1993: 82) defined trust 'as a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence'. Morgan and Hunt (1994: 23) defined trust as a trustor's 'confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity'. In the context of organization studies, Mayer and colleagues (1995: 712) defined trust as 'the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party'. Similarly, Rousseau et al. (1998: 395) conceptualised trust as 'a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another'. Recognising the heterogeneity in conceptualisations of trust, a number of researchers (e.g., Castaldo, 2007; Castaldo, Premazzi and Zerbini, 2010;Rousseau et al., 1998; Dietz and Van Hartog, 2006; Fulmer and Gelfand, 2012; McKnight, Choudhury and Kacmar, 2002; McKnight and Chervany, 2001; Seppanen et al., 2007) from management, organizational studies and marketing selected a set of existing definitions of trust (within and across social science disciplines) with the purpose of "discovering" the essence of trust (i.e., fundamental elements or dimensions common to most definitions). These works identified two central elements of trust. These are: (1)

behavioural intention (or willingness) or even a behaviour; (2) expectation (or confidence, belief). Not all definitions included both elements. In this study I employ the cross-disciplinary definition of trust proposed by Rousseau and colleagues (1998) (see above) because it accounts for participating consumers understanding of their trust in an organization (food retailer).

1.3.2 Unconscious and conscious trust recovery

A large part of trust theory and research assumed that trust is fundamentally a phenomenon that a trustor is conscious or aware of. This reflects the mainstream (rationalist) approach to studying trust based on the premise that trust is fundamentally a result of reason (i.e., reason as a trust antecedent). As trustor is making a trust judgement/decision if there is a good reasons for him to place trust in trustee he/she is also conscious of his trust or lack of thereof. However, as I established in this study (see appendix C for more details) there is another radically different possibility. When people trust, their trust can have a routine or habit-like nature. Here, I am not talking about various bases of trust (antecedents) that Möllering (2006) conceptualised as routines, but about the phenomenon of trust itself. Not only can trust be based on routines; trust itself can be a routine or habit (Möllering, 2006). Routines and habits are related to mindlessness and automatism (Ashforth and Fried, 1988; Aarts and Dijksterhuis, 2010; James, 1890; Berridge and Robinson, 2011; Nelson and Winter, 1982, cited in Feldman and Pentland, 2003; Reason, 1990; Stene, 1940; Simon, 1945; Tam, Wood and Li, 2014; Gilbert, 1989; Wegner, 1994). As Feldman and Pentland (2003: 97) put it: ‘habits require no thought; they are automatic’.

A number of scholars directly or indirectly pointed out that the phenomenon called trust is routine or habit-like and that trustor’s only became aware of it when their trust is damaged (e.g., Brother, 1995; Marshall, 1920, cited in Möllering, 2006: 2; Möllering, 2006; Möllering, Bachmann and Lee, 2004). For example, Alfred Marshall (1920, cited in Möllering, 2006: 2), one of the founders of neoclassical economics, claimed that trust ‘permeates all life, like the air we breathe: and its services are apt to be taken for granted and ignored, like those of fresh air, until attention is forcibly attracted by their failure’. Möllering (2006: 10, 70) argued that ‘often, trusting and being trustful appear to resemble a routine that people follow habitually, rather than a conscious choice’ [...] ‘the placing and honouring of trust itself is seen as part of a routine’. He (2006: 70) illustrated this: ‘most parents will not fret every morning when their child leaves for school, because

entrusting the child to the care of bus drivers, teachers and others is part of a daily routine'. Möllering, Bachman and Lee (2004: 556) noted that 'agents only become aware of trust when it is problematic.' Brother (1995 cited in Möllering, 2006: 2) said that 'we are no more likely to ask ourselves how trusting we are at a given moment in time then to inquire if gravity is still keeping the planets in orbit. However, when trust is disturbed it claims our attention as urgently as would any irregularity in the gravitational field'. Similarly, 'Marková and Gillespie (2008:19) observed that 'when trust becomes explicitly verbalized and thematized, it normally means that [...] it is no longer taken for granted and it may have been partly or totally destroyed'. The study about BP's discourse after the oil spill conducted by Fuoli and Paradis (2014) provided empirical support for this.

Drawing on the above mentioned distinction between trust as a conscious phenomenon and trust as a habit or routine-like phenomenon, and on the dominant understanding of trust *recovery* (e.g., Dirks et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2009; Xie and Peng, 2009; Gillespie et al., 2012; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017), I propose two types of consumer trust recovery. Unconscious consumer trust recovery refers to recovered trust that occurs without the consumer being fully conscious of it. In other words, a consumer is aware of their damaged trust during the scandal, but is unaware that their trust in the organization has improved. The consumer does not think about his or her recovered trust, just as they did not think about their level of trust before the scandal. The pre-trust violation and recovered trust is habitual or routine-like. So, in unconscious trust recovery, the recovered trust is related to mindlessness and unconscious action and thought processes. Conscious consumer trust recovery refers to an improvement in damaged trust where the consumer is fully conscious of their trust recovery. In other words, in conscious trust recovery the consumer is aware that the scandal damaged their trust in an organization. Also, after the scandal, in contrast to unconscious trust recovery, in conscious trust recovery the consumer is also fully aware that he trusts the organization as much or more than he did during the scandal.

1.3.3 Trustor and trustee

Trust is a relational concept that involves subjects of trust – a trustor and a trustee. Following other researchers (e.g., Fulmer and Gelfand, 2012; Mayer et al., 1995; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Kim et al., 2009), in this thesis, I use the term *trustor* to refer to

individuals whose trust has been damaged (in this study individual consumers). I use the term *trustee* for the target of a trustor's trust (in this study an organization as "an actor").

1.3.4 Consumer

I use the term 'consumer' as defined by the American Marketing Association (2016). According to them (2016), a consumer is 'traditionally, the ultimate user or consumer of goods, ideas, and services. However, the term also is used to imply the buyer or decision maker as well as the ultimate consumer. A mother buying cereal for consumption by a small child is often called the consumer although she may not be the ultimate user.'

With these clarifications of key concepts used in this study, I now discuss what is currently known about consumer trust recovery in an organization.

1.4 Prior theory and research on consumer trust recovery in an organization and "the gap"

Currently, there is a paucity of consumer trust recovery theory (e.g., Choi and Nazareth, 2005; Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Huff, 2005; Ring, 2005; Xie and Peng, 2009). Existing studies on the topic come from marketing (e.g. Choi and Nazareth, 2005; Huff, 2005; Ring, 2005; Xie and Peng, 2009) and related business and management fields (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Chen, 2008; Gillespie et al., 2014). Studies on consumer trust recovery are predominantly conceptual, experimental or involve survey methodology. Taken together, theory of consumer trust recovery tells us that a number of verbal (e.g., apology denials, communication and reticence) or substantive strategies (e.g., penance) alone or in combination, explain consumer trust recovery. Researchers also proposed or identified several underlying mechanisms by which consumer trust recovery was achieved. These include: resolving negative emotions that resulted from trust violation and re-establishing social equilibrium (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; La and Choi, 2012; Huff, 2005; Zhang, 2012; Xie and Peng, 2009); trustee's shift of trustor's attributions about him/the scandal (e.g., Mattila, 2009); familiarity between trustee and trustor (e.g., Mayer et al., 2012); trustor's understanding of what went wrong and why, and what needs to be done to prevent further trust violations (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; Xie and Peng, 2009); constraining or eliminating the untrustworthy behaviour, which would prevent future violations (e.g., Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Debab, 2012; Roberts, 2011; Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011; Ring, 2005; Giraud-Heraud, Rouached and Soler, 2006); transference of trust

from a third party to a trustee (e.g., Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011); and a change in the organisation's culture (e.g., Roberts, 2011). From a meta-theoretical perspective, consumer trust recovery literature is predominantly functionalist (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), with only a small amount of interpretivist research and almost no radical analyses (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) of consumer trust recovery.

Thus I have identified research gaps in the literature on consumer trust recovery, which I address in this study (see below). Specifically, I used two versions of neglect spotting that is the most common version of the gap spotting strategy: under-researched area; and lack of specific aspect (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2013). I recognise that although it is a very popular and common strategy for developing research aims/questions, this approach is not the only possible way to construct research aims/questions, and so might have limitations. There are other strategies for developing research aims/questions such as problematization (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2013) that have a greater potential for developing more interesting theories (Davis, 1971). However, I chose gap spotting because my aim was to build on and add to the nascent existing literature on consumer trust recovery, and not to challenge its underlying assumptions. Gap spotting is ideal for this purpose (Alvesson and Sandberg, 2013).

The first gap is an *under-researched area* in theory of trust recovery, which is research relating to conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. Specifically, only a relatively small set of studies have investigated conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Chen, Wu and Chang, 2013; Debab, 2012; Friend, Costley and Brown, 2010; Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann, 2012; Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey, 2014; Huff, 2005; Knight, Mather and Mathieson, 2015; Mattila, 2009; Nakayachi and Watanabe, 2005; Xie and Peng, 2009).

Insights from the trust recovery literature that does not involve consumer (trustor) and organization (trustee) might not address preceding gap relating to conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization because of its limited transferability. On the one hand, this theory and research is not transferrable to consumer trust recovery in an *organization* (e.g., Bachman et al., 2015; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Dirks, Ferrin and Cooper, 2011; Dirks, Lewicki and Zaheer, 2009; Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann, 2012; Kim et al., 2004; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017; Xie and Peng, 2009). There are several reasons why this literature is not transferable. These include: compositional and contractual

differences across different relationships (e.g., Dirks et al., 2009; Xie and Peng, 2009); differences in organizations' vis-a-vis individuals' trustworthiness (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009); the considerably greater complexity of trust recovery when the trustee is an organization, (e.g., Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017). There is also growing empirical support for these arguments (e.g., Dietz and Gillespie, 2012a). For example, Dietz and Gillespie (2012a), in their in-depth case study analysis of the BBC's programme fakery in 2007, found fundamental differences between trust repair when the trustee is an individual or an organization.

On the other hand, theoretical and empirical insight from trust recovery studies that did not involve consumers as trustors may also not be transferable to trust recovery where trustors are consumers (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2012; Gillespie and Dietz, 2012a; Pirson and Malhotra, 2010; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017). For example, Gillespie et al. (2012: 210) argued: 'we cannot assume that the same approach for repairing trust will be effective across all stakeholder groups [...] trust repair varies across institutional stakeholders.' Similarly, Dietz and Gillespie (2012a: 31) noted that 'the processes and principles of effective organizational-level trust repair may differ for internal versus external stakeholders'. This non-transferability is rooted in differences in expectations, conflicting interests and different proximity of various stakeholders to organization (trustee) (e.g., Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Schneper and Guillén, 2004; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017); relational differences and different risks embedded in specific relationships (e.g., Sheppard and Sherman, 1998); different vulnerabilities, interests, power levels and expectations; varying levels of access, exposure and hence insight into the organization's conduct, and differences in trustors' interpretations of the nature and causes of the breach (e.g., Gillespie and Siebert, in press). Moreover, even if this literature would be transferable to consumer trust recovery in an organization this literature is also nascent. The same was recently observed by Bachmann et al. (2015). Several calls for more research on the topic, spanning the last decade or so (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015; Schoorman et al., 2007; Mayer, 2014; Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Tax, Brown and Chandrashekaran, 1998), also reflect this fact. Lyon et al. (2012; 2015) noted that the phenomenon of trust recovery requires further attention.

The second gap is a *meta-theoretical gap that relates to a lack of interpretivist studies that focus on investigating consumer trust recovery (as well as to wider trust recovery*

literature). My analysis of literature on the topic led me to conclude that theory of trust recovery and research is almost exclusively functionalist/positivist (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998), involving a deductive approach to research inquiry (Popper, [1935] 2005). While such research is common, important and valuable (Gioia et al., 2013), the dominance of functionalist trust recovery theory and research is problematic because functionalist assumptions render such theory and research paradigmatically limited and consequentially partial. To understand why this is the case, let me briefly turn to the notion of research paradigms (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998).

In short, there are various research paradigms, consisting of various assumptions, including ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. As such, research paradigms are lenses through which researchers investigate a phenomenon of interest. A specific paradigmatic lens prevents the researcher from seeing and investigating the phenomenon (i.e., trust recovery) from other perspectives. Poggie (1965, cited in Van de Ven and Poole, 1995: 510) noted that 'a way of seeing is the way of not seeing'. Because trust recovery literature is almost exclusively functionalist, researchers have investigated trust recovery from only one particular perspective, which limits what and how much they could "discover" (Gioia and Pitre, 1991; Gioia, Corley and Hamilton, 2013; Locke, 2011) about trust recovery. According to Gioia et al. (2013: 16), this is because in such research 'advances in knowledge' are 'strongly rooted in what we already know' which 'delimits what we can know'. Therefore, new "discoveries" are possible by approaching the trust recovery phenomenon from different paradigmatic perspectives and with different paradigmatic assumptions; for example, from an interpretivist perspective, by investing a research phenomenon from the perspective of those living it.

1.5 Research question and aim[1]

Identified research gaps provided a base from which I developed the following overarching research question: 'Why and how does consumer trust recovery in a food retailer occur in the context of the food adulteration scandal in the UK in 2013?' Addressing this research question is my rationale for undertaking this thesis. My specific research aim is: to build and enrich theory inductively from an interpretivist perspective explaining why and how consumer trust recovery in an organization occurs. In other words, I want to understand/ learn about what leads to consumer trust recovery in an organization and why/how?

1.6 Accomplishing my research: Methodology

To accomplish my research aim I principally followed the Charmazian version of grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 1990, 1998, 2000, 2006, 2014, 2015) and practical advice on doing grounded theory from Karen Locke (2014). This methodology was particularly suitable not only because my research purpose was to build theory from data about the under-theorised phenomenon of consumer trust recovery in an organization (inductive theory building about under-theorised phenomena is the main aim of grounded theory methodology), but also because this particular version was in tune with my meta-theoretical assumptions that underpin this study.

In brief, the underpinnings of this study resonate with a number of interpretivist assumptions (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998). This methodology provided me with the logic of inquiry and with strategies for collecting and analysing data. Data collection and analysis were done in parallel. To build a grounded theory about consumer collection and analysis were done in parallel. To build a grounded theory about consumer trust recovery in an organization I needed to find consumers that experienced trust

[1] I need to note that at the beginning of this study addressing my research question and my research aim was solely dependent on existence of the phenomenon of consumer trust recovery and on my ability to find consumers who experienced the phenomenon. This was crucial because in inductive theory building the theory is built from the data (in my case from consumers' experiences of their trust recovery in an organization). In other words, without consumers who experienced trust recovery I would not be able to meet my research aim. I ultimately found 31 consumers that experienced trust recovery in an organization and were willing to share their trust recovery experiences with me.

recovery in an organization. Without this grounding, theory building would not have been possible.

Throughout my empirical work I collected data about consumer trust recovery in an organization from 31 consumers that experienced both types of trust recovery. The meat adulteration scandal in 2013 in the UK (i.e., "the horse meat scandal") provided the empirical context for this study. Data collection stopped once I started to sense that I had reached theoretical/practical saturation (Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Locke, 2014). Initial data collection was based on purposeful sampling; in later stages it was guided by developing in-progress concepts (i.e., theoretical sampling). My main concern in sampling was to find consumers that experienced trust recovery in an organization. An integrative analytical process which involved initial and focused coding, underpinned by a constant comparative method, allowed me to progressively abstract consumer relevant experiences from numerous initial codes into six abstract concepts. The analytical process also enabled me to relate the concepts to each other so that they captured participating consumer experiences that explained why their recovery of trust in an organization occurred.

1.7 Key findings

First, my research showed that there are two types of consumer trust recovery in an organization (I call them unconscious and conscious) and that the same consumers can experience both types. Second, my analysis showed that when consumers perceived the scandal as less important, they experienced unconscious trust recovery in a food retailer. This occurred because the reduced importance of the scandal led to consumer shift in attention which in turn led to consumer inattentiveness to the scandal. Consumer inattentiveness was immediate antecedent of unconscious trust recovery. Conscious consumer trust recovery occurred because consumers saw cues that indicated to them that the food retailer had improved product control systems, which in turn led to consumer perceptions of the organization's renewed ability. Consumer perception of the renewed ability was an immediate antecedent of their conscious trust recovery.

1.8 Contribution

My findings allowed me to make three contributions to theory of trust recovery in general and consumer trust recovery in particular. The first contribution lies in showing that consumers can experience at least two different types of trust recovery, rather than only

one as previously conceptualised in the literature on consumer trust recovery. These are unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery. The second contribution lies in establishing a trust recovery antecedent and a sequential mechanism that explains why/how the antecedent leads to unconscious recovery of consumer trust in an organization. The concepts representing the antecedent of unconscious recovery of consumer trust and sequential mechanism featured in literature on habit and attention, which was not previously applied to trust recovery. Therefore, these findings in essence demonstrate a novel application of these two well established bodies of literature to theory of trust recovery and research. The third contribution lies in showing what happens in a situation of "structural" trust recovery, when trustors are unaware of trustee's structural trust repair actions and are also not able to see the state of the organization's post-trust violation components (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). This situation challenges the underpinning assumption of extant trust recovery literature, which is that a trustor will be able to see/hear a trustee's signals, or will be able to "read" cues from a organization's components that could inform his/her judgements about the trustee's trustworthiness and, in turn, trust. While existing trust repair theory would predict that in such situations trust recovery would not happen, my findings show that trust recovery did happen. In situations where consumers do not have signals or cues about the state of an organization's post-trust failure components, emanating from these components, they "fill in" this missing information by using cues from their environment.

1.9 The structure of this PhD thesis ("A roadmap")[2]

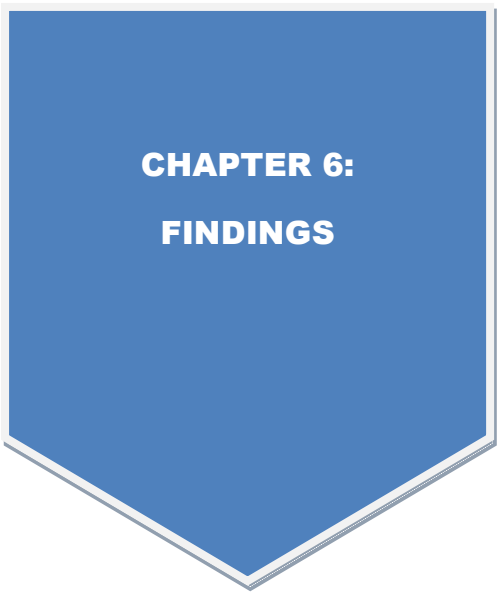
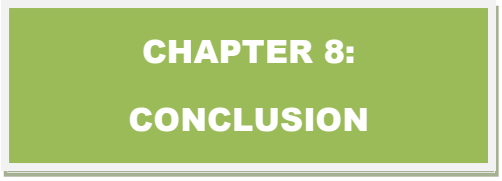
This PhD thesis is structured as follows. In Chapter 2, I outline the purpose of my literature review and set out the methods I used to analyse and collect the literature on trust recovery. Then, I provide a detailed analysis of what we, as a community of trust researchers, know about the topic, which leads to my construction of gaps in this body of literature. Next, I discuss the empirical context of this study because context is likely to influence the applicability/generalisability of my findings (Chapter 3). I also discuss the philosophy of research in general and the philosophy of research underpinning this study in particular. This is important because it has bearing on how I conducted the study (Chapter 4). Chapter 5 continues where Chapter 3 ends. I show how I designed this study (i.e., the methodology) in order to address my research aim. Chapter 6 is dedicated to my research findings. In the chapter that follows (Chapter 7), I discuss the findings in light of existing theory and research on the topic and also spell out methodological and practical implications of my findings. Then I discuss main limitations related with this study and offer some proposals for further research stemming from this study. Chapter 8 concisely concludes this PhD thesis. Figure 1-1 visualises the structure of this PhD thesis. It shows the flow of the chapters and spells out its content.

[2] The presentation of this PhD thesis does not follow the same steps as the actual research followed. This study involved numerous literature consultations (at various stages of development), and ongoing iteration of data collection and analysis, which ultimately resulted in two grounded theories (Chapter 5 includes more details about how I actually conducted the study). Rather, it is structured in a "traditional" way, akin to reporting standards of quantitative studies: literature/theory, methodology, including data collection and analysis, findings, discussion and conclusion. In the field of management, presenting a grounded theory study in this way is the norm, and such presentation is efficient and comprehensible for the majority of researchers (Suddaby, 2006).

Figure 1-1 Visual representation of the structure of this PhD thesis, with outlines of each chapter

FLOW OF THE REMAINING CHAPTERS	BRIEF OUTLINE OF EACH CHAPTER
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	I spell out how I analysed and collected literature on trust recovery. I offer a detailed analysis of what is currently known about the topic. The chapter ends with identification of research gaps and formulation of my research aim that addresses the gaps.
CHAPTER 3: EMPIRICAL CONTEXT	I discuss the empirical context of this study – the meat adulteration scandal in 2013 in the UK. Understanding the empirical context of this study is important because the context determines the applicability/generalisability of my findings.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY	In this chapter I discuss the main research philosophies in business and management, and their core assumptions (e.g., ontological, epistemological and other assumptions). Then I spell out the research philosophy that underpins this study. I do that because the research philosophy has bearing on how research is and should be conducted.
CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY	I discuss the research design that I use to address my research aim. I explain why I employ grounded theory methodology and its main versions, and spell out key procedures of Charmazian grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006, 2014) (this is a version of grounded theory methodology used in this study). I briefly lay out two main misconceptions related to grounded theory methodology. In the second part of the chapter I tell the reader how I collected and analysed my data.

Figure 1-1 (Continued)

FLOW OF THE REMAINING CHAPTERS	BRIEF OUTLINE OF EACH CHAPTER
	I first show and discuss six developed concepts that were central to consumer experiences of their (unconscious and conscious) trust recovery in an organization. Then I show and discuss how specific concepts are interrelated to form grounded theory that explains why unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization occurred. To ensure rigour of this research I follow, among others, other grounded theorists and use various devices that clearly communicate my findings (e.g., the data structure; conceptual tables; theoretical propositions).
	I discuss my findings in light of existing theory and research on the topic. I show how my findings enabled me to move our existing understanding of trust recovery forward (i.e., theoretical contribution). I also spell out where my findings are similar and different to existing literature on trust recovery. In the reminder of the chapter I discuss methodological and practical implications of this study, limitations of the study and most fruitful avenues for further research stemming from this study.
	This last chapter concisely concludes this PhD thesis.

Chapter 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter introduced this study. This chapter consists of five main sections about theory of trust recovery and research. In the first section I spell out the purpose of my literature review and discuss how I analysed the identified literature. In the second section I discuss how I searched for literature on the topic. In the third section I discuss existing theory of trust recovery and research; specifically, I identify two streams of theory of trust recovery and research: (1) literature that focused on trust recovery within and between organizations and recovery of the public's trust in an organization; and (2) literature that dealt with consumer trust recovery. Within each stream I discuss antecedents that explain or predict trust recovery and underlying mechanisms by which trust is recovered. In the fourth section I show the results of my analysis, which focused on teasing out meta-theoretical underpinnings of theory of trust recovery and research. In the last section, I construct three gaps in existing literature that are addressed in this study. The chapter ends with the conclusion. Figure 2-1 visualises the structure of this chapter. It shows the flow of its main parts and briefly spells out their content

Figure 2-1 Overview of chapter 2

2.2 Purpose of my literature review and strategy for analysing relevant literature

Literature reviews are conducted for different reasons and in different ways (e.g., Fink, 2005; Hart, 1998; Jesson, 2011; Ridley, 2012; University of Southern California, 2016). My purpose for doing a literature review was to critically establish: (1) what is currently known about explaining trust recovery in general and consumer trust recovery in particular; (2) what paradigmatic underpinnings (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) of this knowledge are. My ultimate goal was to establish whether there are theoretically and practically relevant research gaps in this literature.

Before I started searching for relevant literature, I developed an analytical strategy for analysing the literature on the topic. In this section I discuss the analytical strategy I used for critical and systematic analysis of the literature. I begin by outlining thirteen analytical points that directed my analysis. Then I discuss, in greater detail, how I used Burrell and Morgan's (1979) sociological paradigms to tease out meta-theoretical underpinnings of trust recovery literature.

To examine theory of trust recovery and research, I used critical review forms. These forms allowed me to perform my analysis critically, comprehensively and systematically. The forms included 13 analytical points. These were: (1) bibliographic details; (2) focus of the paper; (3) theory used (where relevant); (4) key findings; (5) methodology; (6) definition of consumer's trust and consumer's trust recovery; (7) type of trustor and trustee; (8) trust domain; (9) type of trust violation; (10) geographical location of the study; (11) research context; (12) theoretical and practical contribution; and (13) further recommendations and reported limitations. To examine meta-theoretical underpinnings of existing theory of trust recovery and research I used Burrell and Morgan's (1979) sociological paradigms framework. Understanding meta-theoretical underpinnings of theory and research is useful because it provides an opportunity to identify ("see") meta-theoretical gaps and therefore fundamental limitations/gaps in existing knowledge (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Gioia and Pitre, 1990; Siebert et al., 2015a, 2015b). While analytic points 1-13 are self-explanatory, I now briefly discuss Burrell and Morgan's (1979) seminal work. My aim is to introduce and sketch out key features and critiques of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework, as well as show the reader analytic questions, developed from the framework, that I used to classify existing theory of trust recovery and research.

2.2.1 Burrell and Morgan (1979) sociological paradigms: brief overview

Burrell and Morgan (1979) created the framework 'to negotiate a way through the literature on social theory and organizational analysis' (p. xii). Their argument was that all social theories are rooted in meta-theoretical assumptions about the nature of science and society. As these assumptions differ, by default they produce different ways of seeing the social world. Their logic is as follows: distinctions about the nature of social sciences are rooted in different assumptions about ontology, epistemology, human nature and methodology, and these constitute the first dimension of the framework: objective-subjective. Burrell and Morgan claim that there are also two tendencies in how different theorists see the nature of society – the second dimension: regulation-radical change. When the two dimensions are related orthogonally into a matrix, four sociological paradigms can be described – the functionalist, interpretive, radical humanist and radical structuralist paradigms. Figure 2-2 shows four sociological paradigms and provides a brief summary of their characteristic

Figure 2-2 Burrell and Morgan's (1979) sociological paradigms with a summary of their characteristics

RADICAL HUMANIST	RADICAL STRUCTURALIST
THE NATURE OF SCIENCE **Ontology**: Social reality is socially constructed and different from the natural world **Epistemology**: Not looking for laws and underlying regularities, understanding from the inside and not from the outside. Knowledge is not objective **Human nature**: Humans have free will (i.e. people's activities are not determined by the environment) **Methodology**: Focusing closely on the subject (i.e. getting close to the subject by 'stepping in'). **THE NATURE OF SOCIETY** **Radical change**: A critical perspective on organizational life (the viewpoint of overturning the existing state). Social reality is characterised by potentiality, domination, emancipation, deprivation, structural conflict and contradiction.	**THE NATURE OF SCIENCE** **Ontology:** Objective, hard and external social reality (i.e. similar to the natural world). **Epistemology**: Searching for regularities and causal relationships between its elements, drawing on hypothesis testing. Knowledge growing is a cumulative process. **Human nature**: Humans do not have free will (i.e. people's activities are determined by the environment). Methodology: Focusing on systematic protocol and techniques such as surveys, questionnaires, personality tests and standardised research instruments. **THE NATURE OF SOCIETY** **Radical change**: A critical perspective on organizational life (the viewpoint of overturning the existing state). Social reality is characterised by potentiality, model of domination, emancipation, deprivation, structural conflict and contradiction.
THE NATURE OF SCIENCE **Ontology**: Social reality is socially constructed and different from the natural world. **Epistemology**: Not looking for laws and underlying regularities, understanding from the inside and not from the outside. Knowledge is not objective. **Human nature**: Humans have free will (i.e. people's activities are not determined by the environment). **Methodology**: Focusing closely on the subject (i.e. getting close to the subject by 'stepping in'). **THE NATURE OF SOCIETY** **Regulation**: Functional co-ordination; improving things within an existing framework (i.e. working within the existing state of affairs); stability; status quo; social order.	**THE NATURE OF SCIENCE** **Ontology**: Objective, hard and external social reality (i.e. similar to the natural world). **Epistemology**: Searching for regularities and causal relationships between its elements, drawing on hypothesis testing. Knowledge growing is a cumulative process. Knowledge is highly applicable and solves practical problems. **Human nature**: Humans do not have free will (i.e. people's activities are determined by the environment). **Methodology**: Focusing on systematic protocol and techniques such as surveys, questionnaires, personality tests and standardised research instruments. **THE NATURE OF SOCIETY** **Regulation**: Functional co-ordination; improving things within an existing framework (i.e. working within the existing state of affairs); stability; status quo; social order.
INTERPRETIVE	FUNCTIONALIST

Adapted from Burrell and Morgan (1979)

The Functionalist Paradigm

According to Burrell and Morgan, the functionalist paradigm is characterised by an objective (i.e., realistic, positivistic, deterministic and nomothetic) approach to social science and by regulation in society. As such, it shared its views of society with the interpretive paradigm, and its view on the nature of science with the radical structuralist paradigm. For the functionalist researcher social reality is seen as independent from individual. As such, quest for regularities and causal relationships is normative and this is done through epistemological approach employed by natural sciences. Knowledge was produced through rigorous hypothesis testing following a systematic protocol. According to functionalist researchers, this creates scientific and objective knowledge. Quantitative techniques, surveys, questionnaires and standardised research instruments, high pragmatism, applicable knowledge, practical solutions, problem-solving focus, mechanical and biological analogies were the predominant features of this approach. This paradigm sees human actions as determined by the surrounding environment. On the regulation-radical change axis, as Burrell and Morgan (1979) claim, this approach is concerned with rational explanations of 'status quo, social order, consensus, social integration, solidarity, need satisfaction, and actuality' (p. 26).

The Interpretive Paradigm

The interpretive paradigm approaches social science from a subjective perspective (nominalist, anti-positivistic, voluntaristic and ideographic), and implicitly see the nature of society in a regulatory light. As such, this paradigm shares its view on social science with the radical humanist paradigm, and its view on society with the functionalist paradigm. Theorists using this paradigm do not see social reality as objective. For them, social reality is socially constructed. According to Burrell and Morgan (1979: 28), this paradigm 'seeks explanation within the realm of individual consciousness and subjectivity, within the frame of reference of the participant as opposed to the observer of action'. Researches within this paradigm do not offer general laws, regularities and objective knowledge, because social reality is relative. The essence of "scientific" pursuit is about an understanding and meaning of social reality through individuals' sensemaking and enactment. The researcher co-creates knowledge through analysis of individuals' subjective reality. However, the second dimension is regulatory, focused on making the system work more effectively, so it shared similar aims with the functionalist paradigm.

The Radical Humanist Paradigm

The radical humanist paradigm is concerned with the radical change of society but shares a subjective view (nominalist, anti-positivistic, voluntaristic and ideographic) of the nature of social science with the interpretative paradigm. Researchers located within this paradigm usually analyse organizations from the perspective of discourses of power, politics and models of domination and deprivation, but are also concerned with the potential for radical transformation through emancipation of less powerful groups and giving them a voice; hence, the radical humanist focused on 'overthrowing or transcending the limitations of existing social arrangements' (Burrell and Morgan, 1979: 32). It was about freeing individuals' consciousness from ideology, which limited their developmental potential. To quote Burrell and Morgan (1979: 33), theorists in this paradigm 'seek to change the social world through a change in modes of cognition and consciousness'. By being subjective this paradigm pursued knowledge through understanding an individual's social reality, in a way similar to the interpretive paradigm.

The Radical Structuralist Paradigm

The radical structuralist paradigm was similar to radical humanism in that it focused on a radical change of society, but, in contrast, its approach was objective (i.e. realistic, positivistic, deterministic and nomothetic). It shared its view on science with the functionalist paradigm, and its critique of society with the radical humanist paradigm. It analysed structural relationships within objective social reality. Theorists operating within this paradigm are predominantly concerned with radical change, potentiality and emancipation, and focused on modes of domination, structural conflict, deprivation and contradiction. For them, emancipation from these sociological structures is possible through changes in political and economic systems. This objective approach assumed that social change can be triggered by changes in "hard" reality, and that knowledge was generated in much the same ways as in their functionalist counterparts.

2.2.2 Critique and limitations of Burrell and Morgan's framework

While Burrell and Morgan's (1979) work remains influential (Bryman, 2008; Clegg and Hardy, 2006; Hassard and Cox, 2013) in analysing meta-theoretical underpinnings of knowledge (e.g., Siebert et al., 2016), it has also been critiqued. The most heavily critiqued and contested element in their work is their notion of the incommensurability of the four

paradigms. This was central to the "paradigm wars" that were essentially fought over the "right" ontology and epistemology and legitimacy of research. In short, Burrell and Morgan (1979) argued that four paradigms are incommensurable. This is because:

> [Paradigms] offer alternative views of social reality, and to understand the nature of all four is to understand four different views of society. They offer different ways of seeing. A synthesis is not possible, since in their pure forms they are contradictory. (Burrell and Morgan, 1979: 25)

This view was also strongly supported and defended by other scholars (e.g., Jackson and Carter, 1991, 1993).

Specifically, one group of scholars saw the four paradigms' incommensurability as a problem that requires a solution (Clegg and Hardy, 2006).They tried to "solve" the incommensurability issue by using various philosophical ideas and multi-paradigm discourse (e.g., Clegg and Hardy, 2006; Hassard, 1988, 1991; Gioia and Pitre, 1990; Willmott, 1993a, b). For example, Gioia and Pitre (1990) proposed an approach that can enable cross-paradigm theorizing. Hassard (1991) argued against the incommensurability of the four paradigms and claimed that researchers can borrow from different paradigms. Interestingly, Morgan (1986) later reversed his view on the notion of incommensurability in his well-known book, 'Images of Organization'. Another group of researchers maintained a hard line. They defended orthodoxy – the functionalist paradigm (e.g., Donaldson, 1985), or ignored alternative paradigms altogether. One of the key reasons for this was seeing Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework through the lens of Kuhn's (1962 [2012]) influential work on scientific development, where paradigms were conceptualised differently (e.g., Willmott, 1993a, b). The issue of paradigms' incommensurability is still controversial (see Organizational Studies), and it is unlikely that a "solution" to the "problem" of incommensurability will ever be found (Clegg and Hardy, 2006).

The above discussion focused on the main critique of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework. However, the framework also has important limitations when used for analysing and classifying a body of knowledge (e.g., trust recovery theory and research). First, Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework consists of four clearly delineated paradigms. However, this is problematic for classification of research that includes elements from more than one paradigm; for example, a paper that is ontologically and

epistemologically functionalist but is, according to Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework, methodologically interpretivist (i.e., it involves qualitative research methodology). To build on Jackson and Carter's (1993) metaphor of paradigms being pigeonholes, likening a researcher to a postman who sorts letters (theory, research) according to their address, name of recipient, etc. into a specific pigeonhole (a paradigm), in such situations, the postman would struggle to choose a pigeonhole because multiple paradigms are represented. Such a problem is highly likely, because actual research does not always fall within (only) one paradigm (Charmaz, 2006, 2014, 2015).

Relatedly, the framework is ill-suited to classifying knowledge underpinned by more recent philosophical perspectives, like post-structuralism and, more broadly, postmodernism (Hassard and Cox, 2013). Post-structuralist and postmodernist research, because of their characteristics, cannot be classified into one of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) four paradigmatic boxes (Deetz, 1996; Hassard and Cox, 2013). For example, in relation to human nature, 'under postmodernism the human subject was neither behaviourally determined by external stimuli, nor existentially thrown into the world alive and kicking, but instead was considered philosophically decentred, or even 'dead'' (Linstead, 2004 cited in Hassard and Cox, 2013: 1704). It is possible that a new framework currently under development by Burrell and Morgan that involves more paradigmatic spaces (i.e. paradigmatic "boxes") will address this shortcoming (see also Hassard and Cox's (2013) extension of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework, which accommodates recent philosophical developments in the social sciences). Second, even if knowledge did fall into neatly defined paradigmatic boxes, any such classification is necessarily arbitrary. It is ultimately a subjective process; thus, not every researcher might put a specific publication in the same box. This was also recognized by proponents and critics (e.g., Jackson and Carter, 1993; Willmott, 1993a, b) of the incommensurability of the four paradigms (Burrell and Morgan, 1979).

Based on close reading of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) work, critique of this work and limitations of the framework I decided that Burrell and Morgan's (1979) highly influential framework is still useful for teasing out meta-theoretical underpinnings of theory and research. However, to address the above discussed issues related with the framework (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), I decided to: (1) classify papers that include elements from more than one paradigm in a specific paradigm based on the prevalence of specific

paradigmatic logic/elements; (2) recognise the limitations of the framework related with classifying theory and research underpinned by more recent philosophies, leading me to make a note of such papers; and (3) recognise the inherent subjectivity of classifying theory and research into one of four boxes and note that therefore my classification is not definitive and that other researchers might classify some papers somewhat differently.

2.2.3 Analytic questions for teasing out paradigmatic assumptions (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) of theory of trust recovery and research

In short, I developed a set of analytical questions informed by key characteristics of sociological paradigms (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). The questions were: (1) what assumptions concerning the nature of reality (ontology) underpinned the specific publication? Did the specific publication assume (a) objective reality or (b) subjective/socially constructed reality? (2) What assumptions concerning the nature of knowledge (epistemology) underpinned the specific publication? Did the specific publication (a) search for regularities and causal relationships between its elements, drawing on hypothesis testing and assuming the cumulative growth of objective knowledge, or (b) not look for laws and underlying regularities but rather seek to understand from the inside and not the outside, without assuming objective knowledge? (3) What was the methodology of the specific study? Did the specific publication use: (a) systematic protocol and techniques such as surveys, questionnaires, personality tests and standardised research instruments, or (b) study the topic from participants' point of view? (4) What assumptions concerning human nature underpinned the specific publication? Were peoples' activities: (a) determined by the environment, or (b) not determined by the environment? (5) What assumptions concerning the nature of society underpinned the specific publication? Was society characterised by (a) regulation (i.e., functional co-ordination; improving things within an existing framework), or (b) by radical change (i.e., by potentiality, model of domination, emancipation, deprivation, structural conflict and contradiction)?

To sum up, in this section I discussed how I analysed trust recovery studies. I showed that critical review forms, including 13 analytical points, helped me establish existing theory and research on trust recovery. I also used Burrell and Morgan's (1979) sociological paradigms to tease out paradigmatic underpinnings of this theory and research. I introduced and sketched out the paradigms (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), briefly discussed

how other scholars critiqued them and showed how I analysed the literature using Burrell and Morgan (1979) framework. I now discuss how I searched for trust recovery literature.

2.3 Strategy for finding literature on trust recovery

I conducted the search for theory and research on trust recovery in three waves, which took place at different stages. I would like to point out that such an approach is typical for contemporary grounded theory studies (e.g., Charmaz, 2006, 2014). I now turn to my first wave of literature search.

2.3.1 Initial literature search

I conducted the first wave of literature review between October 2012 and May 2013. I used all major business, management and social sciences databases as identified by the University of Glasgow library and the Manchester University library. In addition, I examined academic journals from various social science disciplines, the reference lists of identified literature reviews on trust recovery and published books on Google Scholar. To identify relevant literature from selected data sources, I used three general key terms: "trust repair", "trust recovery" and "trust restoration", and Boolean search mode (using the word OR). The keyword search focused on the title, abstract, keywords and subject terms. I decided not to include literature which was either irrelevant (e.g., trust in a legal or financial sense, not dealing with trust recovery) or not empirical or conceptual (e.g., commentaries, book reviews, dialogues, summaries of conference abstracts, executive abstracts, calendars, abstracts and keywords, editorials, literature reviews and newspaper/magazine articles). Table 2-1 lists eighteen data sources used in this wave of literature review, search parameters and the number of identified documents.

Table 2-1 A summary of the first wave of literature review

General data source	Specific data sources/search parameters	Search yield
EBSCOhost	All Business & Management databases (Business Source Premier; EconLit; Psychology and Behavioral Sciences Collection; Regional Business News; SocINDEX with Full Text)/No search limitations	43 documents
ScienceDirect	Management & Accounting; Decision Sciences; Economics, Econometrics & Finance; Psychology; Social Sciences fields	51 documents
ProQuest	International Bibliography of the Social Sciences (IBSS); ProQuest Dissertations & Theses: UK & Ireland: Business; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses A&I: Business/No search limitations	141 documents
Emerald	EarlyCite Articles and Emerald Backfiles/No search limitations	41 documents
SAGE journals	Search within all available subjects/No search limitations	63 documents
Scopus	Search within all available subjects/No search limitations	191 documents
Wiley Online Library	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	69 documents
EThOS	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	0 documents
Oxford Reference Online	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	0 documents
Oxford Scholarship Online	Search across all subjects including all partner presses (American University in Cairo Press; Edinburgh University Press; Fordham University Press; Hong Kong University Press; Manchester University Press; Oxford University Press; Policy Press; University Press of Florida; University Press of Kentucky; University of California Press) /No search limitations	1 document

Table 2-1 (Continued)

General data source	Specific data sources/search parameters	Search yield
Web of Knowledge	Web of Science including social science citation index Expanded, Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) --1900-present; Arts & Humanities Citation Index (A&HCI) --1975-present; Conference Proceedings Citation Index- Science (CPCI-S) --1990-present; Conference Proceedings Citation Index- Social Science & Humanities (CPCI-SSH) --1990-present)/All languages and all document types were included; focus on management, business and applied psychology	97 documents
Index to Thesis	Search across all subjects using stemming option (i.e. covering all grammatical variations on a word)/No search limitations	0 documents
DawsonEra	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	0 documents
Glasgow University Library "Classic search"	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	1 documents
Springer Link	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	48 documents
Journal of Trust research	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	2 documents
Google Scholar	Search across all subjects/No search limitations	999 results
Trust repair literature review and books	Literature reviews (Dirks et al., 2009; Kramer and Lewicki, 2010; Tomlinson and Mayer, 2009); books (Kramer and Tyler, 1996; Kramer and Pittinsky, 2012; Harris, Moriarty and Wicks, 2014)	22 documents

After removing duplicates, I identified 834 potentially relevant studies. Before moving onto the next stage (i.e., downloading and analysing relevant papers in full), I examined all 834 documents to establish whether they focused on trust recovery. I reviewed each document's title, abstract, keywords and subject terms. This information was generally available through EndNote software. I identified 46 relevant trust recovery papers. I was unable to establish the relevancy of 54 documents because their title, abstract, keywords and subject terms were missing or inconclusive. I downloaded these documents and examined them in full. Only five were about trust recovery. In total, the first literature review wave yielded 51 trust recovery papers. I downloaded the remaining 46 papers.

2.3.2 The second literature search

I performed the second literature search between April 2014 and July 2014. To identify as many relevant consumer trust repair papers as possible, I conducted a comprehensive literature search by searching for relevant papers in: (1) all marketing journals listed in the Academic Journal Quality Guide's (Version 4) ("The ABS list"); (2) two comprehensive databases (Business Source Premier by Ebsco and Scopus); (3) Arnott's (2007) extensive cross-disciplinary bibliography on trust (consisting of several hundred references), published in the *European Journal of Marketing* (Vol. 41 No. 9/10); (4) First International Network on Trust's (FINT) conference archives; (5) a trust-specific journal – *Journal of Trust Research*; and (6) Google Scholar.

To identify literature on consumer trust recovery in an organization I developed several keywords, ranging from general to specific. More general keywords were used in data sources with fewer studies, while more specific keywords were used in large data sets. Specifically, I applied the keyword "trust" to identify potentially relevant studies from marketing journals listed on the ABS list. I focused on each paper's subject, keywords, article title and abstract. No other limitations were applied. I also used the keyword "trust" when searching for potentially relevant literature in the *Journal of Trust Research*. I used the more specific keywords "custom* & trust" and "consum* & trust" when searching in Business Source Premier by Ebsco and Scopus. I focused on studies that included specific keywords in the title. This was necessary because of the high number of studies pertaining to trust and my limited resources.

The literature search focused on all listed science disciplines (including marketing). The keywords used for the literature search using Google Scholar included "trust repair and

marketing", "trust recovery and marketing", "consumer trust repair", "consumer trust recovery", "customer trust repair", "customer trust recovery", "corporate brand and trust repair", "corporate brand and trust restoration", "brand and trust recovery", "brand and trust repair" and "brand and trust restoration". I examined Arnott's (2007) extensive cross-disciplinary bibliography on trust and all available First International Network on Trust (FINT) conference papers, without applying any specific keywords.

As with the first wave of literature review, I developed literature inclusion and exclusion criteria. Papers were excluded on the following basis: (1) not dealing with consumer trust recovery; (2) not empirical or conceptual (e.g., commentaries, book reviews, dialogues, summaries of conference abstracts, executive abstracts, calendars, abstracts and keywords, editorials, literature reviews and newspaper/magazine articles); and (3) papers that examined trust in a financial or legal sense (e.g., trust funds, antitrust law). After duplicates were excluded, the search yielded 5,148 potentially relevant articles. To establish each paper's relevance I examined its title, abstract and, where necessary, entire contents. In this wave of literature search I identified 18 previously unidentified papers that focused on consumer trust recovery.

2.3.3 Final literature search

I performed the final literature search at the end of the study (January and February 2016). I searched for relevant literature using data sources used in the initial literature review and keywords from both previous rounds of literature search. I found four previously unidentified relevant papers.

In sum, three waves of literature search enabled me to identify 73 unique works that focused on trust recovery (across different disciplines, trustees and trustors). I now turn to the third section of this chapter, where I discuss existing theory and research on trust recovery.

2.4 Trust recovery: Prior theory and research

In this section discuss existing theory of trust recovery, divided in two streams. The first stream investigates trust recovery within and between organizations and between organizations and the public. The second stream focuses on consumer trust recovery. Within each stream, researchers established a set of strategies that (should) lead to or

explain trust recovery. They also proposed or established several sequential mechanisms that explain why specific strategy(ies) lead/should lead to trust recovery. I now turn to the first stream of the literature.

2.4.1 Trust recovery within and between organizations and between organizations and the public

This is the traditional and most developed stream of trust recovery research. Most seminal works on trust recovery are located within this stream (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004; Kim, Dirks, Cooper and Ferrin, 2006; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Sitkin and Roth, 1993; Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow, 2006; Tomlinson and Mayer, 2009). Appendix A provides an analytic summary of this stream of trust recovery literature.

Strategies for trust recovery

Researchers contributing to this stream of theory of trust recovery and research proposed or empirically established a set of strategies that either alone or in combination lead to or explain trust recovery. I followed other researchers (e.g., Dirks et al., 2011; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Gillespie et al., 2012) and grouped them into verbal (or non-substantive) and substantive strategies of trust recovery. Verbal strategies of trust recovery refer to words (Dirks et al., 2011). Defining characteristic of verbal strategies of trust recovery is that there is nothing tangible to lend credence to the words (Farrell & Gibbons, 1989 cited in Dirks et al., 2011: 87). An apology is an example of a verbal strategy of trust recovery. Substantive strategies of trust recovery are more tangible than verbal antecedents (Bottom et al., 2002; Kramer and Lewicki, 2010). They involve a tangible element. This is the key difference between verbal and substantive strategies of trust recovery. A financial compensation is an example of a substantive strategy of trust recovery. I also identified works that temporally integrated specific verbal and substantive strategies into "stage" models. I discuss these processual theories of trust recovery in the subsection titled "The Stage Models". I begin with the verbal strategies and then turn to substantive strategies of trust recovery and stage models of trust recovery.

Verbal strategies

My analysis of this stream of theory of trust recovery and research led me to conclude that the most notable verbal strategy was apology. Other strategies included denial, promise, excuse or justification, and reticence.

Apology

A number of researchers argued that apology was effective, to various degrees, for trust recovery (e.g., De Cremer and Desmet, 2012; Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks, 2007; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Haselhuhn, Schweitzer and Wood, 2010; Janowitz-Panjaitan and Krishnan, 2009; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Kim, Dirks, Cooper and Ferrin, 2006; Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004; Kim, Cooper, Dirks and Ferrin, 2013; Maddux, Kim, Okumura and Brett, 2011; Tomlinson et al., 2004). Apology can be defined as 'a statement that acknowledges both responsibility and regret for trust violation' (e.g., Kim et al., 2004: 105). A timely, sincere apology or apology with internal attribution of guilt was more effective, in the context of trust recovery, than an apology that came late or involved attribution of the cause of the failure to an external factor (e.g., Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki, 2004). An apology after an isolated trust failure between parties in established good relationships was more effective than an apology offered in the context of repeated transgressions (Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki, 2004). Apology was also more effective for achieving victims' willingness to reconcile (arguably a key part of trust recovery process) after a broken promise, than placating the victim (Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki, 2004).

The trustor's characteristics also determined the effectiveness of apology (De Cremer and Desmet, 2012; Haselhuhn, Schweitzer and Wood, 2010). For example, it was most effective when the trustor believed that a person's moral character can change (e.g., Haselhuhn, Schweitzer and Wood, 2010) or when trustors was in an approach motivational state (e.g., De Cremer and Desmet, 2012). Several researchers showed that apology was more effective for trust recovery after ability-based trust violation vis-a-vis integrity-based trust violation (e.g., Kim, Dirks, Cooper and Ferrin, 2006; Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004; Kim, Cooper, Dirks and Ferrin, 2013; Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks, 2007; Maddux, Kim, Okumura and Brett, 2011). However, Maddux, Kim, Okumura and Brett (2011) found the opposite among Japanese trustors. Some researchers pointed out that apology was not enough to recover damaged trust (e.g., Lewicki and Polin, 2012), or that a

relatively general and short apology, after deception and untrustworthy behaviour, was not effective at all (e.g., Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow, 2006). More research is needed to resolve identified contradictions.

Denials

Several researchers investigated the role of denial in trust recovery (e.g., Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey, 2014; Kim, Dirks, Cooper and Ferrin, 2006; Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004; Kim, Cooper, Dirks and Ferrin, 2013; Poppo and Schlenker, 2010; Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks, 2007). Denial is 'a statement whereby an allegation is explicitly declared to be untrue (i.e. the statement acknowledges no responsibility and hence no regret)' (Kim et al., 2004: 105). Most researchers found denial effective for trust recovery after integrity-based trust violation (e.g., Kim, Dirks, Cooper and Ferrin, 2006; Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004; Kim, Cooper, Dirks and Ferrin, 2013; Poppo and Schlenker, 2010; Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks, 2007), and when a violator is innocent (e.g., Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004). However, there was also empirical evidence that contradicted these suggestions and empirical findings (e.g., Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey, 2014). For example, in their recent case study of Severn Trent, which involved integrity-based trust violation, Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey (2014) observed that denials did not improve damaged trust but led to stakeholders' distrust. In the context of integrity-based trust violation, denial was also more effective than apology (e.g., Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks, 2004). Researchers found that the type of trust violation determines the effectiveness of denial, as do a range of other factors, including: evidence of a trustee's guilt or innocence, type of trustee, and the relationship history between the trustee and trustor (e.g., Kim et al., 2004, 2013; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Bottom, Gibson, Daniels and Murnighan, 2002). Identified contradictions might be due to different research designs (Gillespie et al.'s 2014 study involved a case study approach); more research is needed to investigate contradictions.

Promise

I identified only few study that explicitly focused on the role of promise in trust recovery (e.g., Gill, Febbraro and Thompson, 2011; Schniter, Sheremeta and Sznycer, 2012; Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow, 2006). According to Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow (2006), 'promises represent an assertive impression management approach designed to convey positive intentions about future acts'. Schweitzer et al. (2006) found that promise

and trustworthy actions effectively restored trust after untrustworthy behaviour. However, when trust was damaged by the same untrustworthy actions and deception, trust was not recovered even when the trustor received a promise, an apology and observed a consistent series of trustworthy actions. Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow (2006) found promise an important element in the process that leads to trust recovery. Gill, Febbraro and Thompson (2011) established that fulfilled promises are a factor that should lead to trust recovery.

Excuse and justification

The role of excuse and justification remains almost unexplored. Two identified studies focused explicitly on the role of excuses (e.g., Tomlinson and Mayer, 2009; Janowitz-Panjaitan and Krishnan, 2009). Excuses are 'self-serving explanations, or accounts, that aim to reduce personal responsibility for questionable events, thereby disengaging core components of the self from the incident' (Schlenker, Pontari and Christopher, 2001: 15). Justifications refer to trustees 'attempting to reframe their behavior as in accordance with some type of superordinate goal or value, or by providing a more positive interpretation of the negative outcome' (Cody and McLaughlin, 1990; Tedeschi and Norman, 1985; Tedeschi and Riess, 1981, cited in Tomlinson and Mayer (2009: 99). Tomlinson and Mayer (2009) claim that excuse and justification might be effective for trust recovery. Three factors, in the context of inter-organizational trust recovery, determine the effectiveness of excuses: violation frequency and severity of trust violation; the degree of constraint placed on boundary spanners by the organization; and the level of the trustor's dependence on the trustee (e.g., Janowitz-Panjaitan and Krishnan, 2009). However, these theoretical arguments were not empirically tested.

Reticence

Few researchers directly or indirectly investigated the role of reticence in trust recovery (e.g., Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks, 2007; Schweitzer et al., 2006; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Siebert and Martin, 2014). Reticence can be understood as a silent or "no comment" stance (Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann, 2012). Most studies found reticence ineffective (e.g., Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks, 2007; Schweitzer et al., 2006; Poppo and Schepker, 2010). For example, Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks (2007) found that a trustee's refusal to confirm or deny responsibility for a trust violation, in the context of competency and integrity trust violations, was a sub-optimal response compared with apology and denial. These authors argued that reticence fails to address guilt and does not signal

redemption. Schweitzer et al. (2006) found reticence less effective than apology or a promise to change behaviour. However, Siebert and Martin (2014) proposed that in some situations reticence can be effective for trust recovery. More research is needed to investigate if and when reticence is inappropriate response to trust violation.

Substantive strategies

In addition to various verbal strategies, researchers investigated a number of substantive strategies for trust recovery. I identified two main groups of substantive strategies: penance and structural strategies. These strategies have been found to be effective independently or in combination with verbal strategies.

Penance

Researchers investigated whether penance can explain or foster trust recovery (e.g., Bottom et al., 2002; De Cremer, 2010; Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk, 2010, 2011a, b; Dirks, Ferrin and Cooper, 2011). Penance can be defined as a 'punishment inflicted on oneself as an outward expression of repentance for wrongdoing' (Stevenson and Waite, 2011). This includes compensation or submitting to a punishment (Gillespie et al., 2012). Researchers found that under specific conditions penance was found to be effective for trust recovery (e.g., Bottom et al., 2002; De Cremer, 2010; Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk, 2010, 2011a, 2011b; Dirks, Ferrin and Cooper, 2011). Penance was also more effective than apology (e.g., De Cremer, 2010; Bottom et al., 2002). For example, Bottom and his colleagues (2002) found that penance elicited long-term co-operation more effectively than verbal responses alone (e.g., apology).

Similarly, De Cremer (2010) found that in cases where a trustor experienced a negative outcome (as a result of trust violation), such as financial loss, financial compensation was a more effective trust repair strategy than apology. In addition, while Bottom et al. (2002) did not find the amount of financial compensation important for trust recovery, other researchers did (e.g., Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk, 2010; Desmet et al., 2010; Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk, 2011b). Specifically, Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk (2010) found that if a trustee offered higher financial compensation after a trust violation involving unethical behaviour, trust recovery was greater. Desmet and colleagues (2010) also found that the amount of financial compensation was influenced by voluntariness. They found that voluntary overcompensating was more effective for trust recovery than

voluntary small compensation. When a trustor issued involuntary financial compensation, the amount did not affect levels of post-trust violation trust. Interestingly, in cases of small compensation (i.e. compensation that only covered the victim's loss), voluntary financial compensation was less effective than involuntary compensation. When a trustor believed that a trustee had bad intentions, overcompensation was not more effective than exact financial compensation.

Structural strategies: Regulation, control and reforms

A number of researchers suggested or found various structural strategies that fostered or explained trust recovery (e.g., Child and Rodrigues, 2004; Dirks, Kim, Ferrin and Cooper, 2011; Eberl, Geiger, Aßländer, 2015; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Sitkin and Roth, 1993; Fulmer and Gelfand, 2009; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Webber et al., 2011; Searle, Hope-Hailey and Dietz, 2012). It needs to be noted that structural strategies were investigated in the context of more macro trust recovery that involves organizational and institutional trustees vis-a-vis more micro trust recovery (i.e., interpersonal trust recovery). These strategies relate to regulatory controls and reforms that include policies, procedures, contracts, monitoring, removal of incentives that might encourage untrustworthy behaviour, removal of employees responsible for trust violation, and various reforms to internal organizational components (e.g., to strategy, corporate governance, leadership, employment relations, culture). Regulatory controls and reforms were particularly effective for trust recovery when the trustee was an organization or institution (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2012), for competency-based trust violation (e.g., Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Sitkin and Roth, 1993) and when a trustee introduced them voluntarily (e.g., Eberl et al., 2015).

"Stage" models

In the preceding section I discussed theory of trust recovery that did not focus on the role of time in trust recovery. In this section I discuss studies that argued that trust recovery is a function of temporally related trust recovery strategies.

Several researchers proposed that trust recovery is a function of a multi-stage process involving a number of different (already discussed) verbal and substantive strategies (e.g., Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Lewicki, 2006; McDonald and Walters, 2010; Schniter et al., 2012; Martin, Siebert and Bozic, 2014). These researchers also proposed additional strategies that play a role in trust recovery (e.g., publicly

acknowledging the event/trust violation, open and candid communication, investigations, cooperation with any public inquiries). According to these models, trust recovery requires three (e.g., McDonald and Walters, 2010; Schniter et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2014) or four stages (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996).

The first stage commonly involves recognising and communicating the failure (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Lewicki, 2006; McDonald and Walters, 2010; Schniter et al., 2012). The second stage commonly involved diagnosis of the failure (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; McDonald and Walters, 2010). Relatedly, with the exception of Martin et al.'s (2014) model, researchers conceptualised trust recovery as relatively linear and not recursive. Beyond the second stage, the models highlighted various stages, including admitting that the event was destructive of trust and then (fourth stage) being willing to accept responsibility for the violation (Lewicki and Bunker, 1996); parties reaffirming their commitment to a high-IBT relationship (Lewicki, 2006); reforming interventions and evaluation (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009); "independent audit" (McDonald and Walters, 2010); and corrective actions or signalling an intent to take them when immediate corrective actions are not possible (Schniter et al., 2012).

These stage models were rarely empirical tested. The most notable exception was Gillespie and Dietz's (2009) model, which was empirically examined (e.g., Dietz and Gillespie, 2012a, 2012b; Gillespie et al., 2012; Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey, 2014; Pate, Morgan-Thomas and Beaumont, 2012). Empirical findings showed that the model did not fully account for the trust repair efforts of trustee (e.g., Dietz and Gillespie, 2012a; Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey, 2014; Pate et al., 2012). For example, in their study focusing on the BBC, Dietz and Gillespie (2012a) found that, contrary to the prediction of their framework, the trustee offered an apology and penance prior to the outcome of diagnosis. Pate et al. (2012) found that senior management's trust repair, which closely corresponded with Gillespie and Dietz's (2009) trust repair model (except for timeliness), recovered employees' trust to a degree. Specifically, trust repair efforts had a significant effect on employees' perceptions of senior management's loyalty, benevolence and openness. However, senior management's efforts did not recover other factors of trustworthiness (integrity, competence, consistency and respect). In addition, Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey (2014) found that trust recovery also involved additional elements, including re-establishing a positive organizational identity, removing implicated senior management

and complementing structural reforms with cultural reforms. I now turn to underlying mechanisms of trust recovery. These mechanisms are underlying theoretical assumptions that explain why particular strategy(ies) lead to or explain trust recovery.

Underlying mechanisms of trust recovery

My review so far has identified a number of strategies that explain or predict trust recovery. However, to fully understand the variety of strategies investigated and to achieve a degree of integration among them, one needs to understand that trust recovery researchers investigated the role of different strategies because they had different assumptions about trust recovery. In other words, different assumptions about trust recovery called for different strategies. Six such assumptions are evident from the reviewed literature. These findings closely parallel theorising on underlying mechanisms by other trust recovery researchers (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015; Dirks et al., 2009).

First, several researchers assumed that trust violation results in a disequilibrium in a relationship and negative emotions, and that trust recovery requires a re-established social order and addressed negative emotions (e.g., Bottom et al., 2002; De Cremer, 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Stevens et al., 2015; Tomlinson et al., 2004). A number of the verbal and substantive strategies discussed above, including apology, explanations and penance, were used to this end.

The second assumption was that trust recovery involves constraining untrustworthy behavior, which would prevent future violations (e.g., Bachmann and Inkpen, 2011; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Sitkin and Roth, 1993; Eberl et al., 2015; Weibel, 2007). To this end, researchers explored the role of a number of substantive strategies, including regulation, laws, controls, organizational rules, contracts, sanctions and incentives.

The third assumption involved the idea that a trustor needs to know what went wrong and why, what needs to be done to prevent further trust violations, and that a trustor's negative attributions towards the trustee, stemming from trust violation, need to be managed/shifted (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Kim et al., 2006, 2009; Mayer, 2009; Mueller et al., 2015; Tomlinson and Mayer, 2009; Janowicz-Panjaitan and Krishnan, 2009). Explored strategies included investigations, diagnosis, explanation, apology, denial and penance.

The fourth assumption was that trust recovery requires constraining untrustworthy behaviour and promoting trustworthy behaviour (e.g., Eberl et al., 2015; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Less common was the fifth assumption – that trust recovery can be achieved through transference of trust from a trusted third party to a trustee (e.g., Mueller et al., 2015; Spicer and Okhmatovskiy, 2015). Also less common was a sixth assumption – that trust recovery requires transparency (e.g., Child and Rodrigues, 2004).

This concludes my review of the first stream of literature on trust recovery (trust recovery within and between organizations and the public trust in organizations). I showed that researchers suggested or identified a set of verbal and substantive strategies that alone, in combination or sequentially explain or predict trust recovery. I also showed that they proposed several underlying mechanisms that explain why specific strategies led to or should lead to trust recovery.

Because my research focus is on consumer trust recovery in an organization, I briefly discuss relational differences across consumer-organization and employee-employer relationships (featuring in the first stream of trust recovery literature). Then I set out the implications of these differences for understanding and explaining trust recovery. Finally, I turn to the second stream of trust recovery literature focusing on consumer trust recovery.

To begin with, relationships between employees and their employer and consumers and an organization differ in terms of the varying levels of proximity of employees and consumers to an organization (e.g., Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Pirson and Malhotra, 2011; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Schneper and Guillén, 2004; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming). Employees are internal organizational stakeholders and, as such, they are part of the organization (Freeman 1984; Schneper and Guillen, 2004). Consumers are external organizational stakeholders, thus they have a much more tenuous connection to the organization (Freeman 1984; Schneper and Guillen 2004). Second, there are relational differences between employees and their employer and between consumers and an organization, involving differences in the kinds of risks and vulnerabilities employees and consumers face (Gillespie and Siebert, in press; Ogden and Watson, 1999 cited in Pirson and Malhotra, (2010: 11); Sheppard and Sherman, 1998). For example, Pirson and Malhotra (2010) noted that internal stakeholders (e.g., employees) are more vulnerable than an organization's external stakeholders (e.g., consumers). They face additional risks, such as identity risk. Third, there is a difference in how employees and consumers asses a

trustee's trustworthiness. For example, Pirson and Malhotra (2011: 1088) argued that different stakeholders

> 'will look for different signals regarding the trustworthiness of the organizations with whom they interact. For example, customers may trust an organization because they perceive its workers to be competent, while employees base their trust in the organization on whether management is perceived to be benevolent.'

Fourth, a relationship involving employees and a relationship involving consumers involves differences in employees' vis-a-vis consumers' expectations, demands and interests regarding the organization, and even conflicting agendas (Dietz and Gillespie, 2012b; Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Gillespie and Siebert, in press; Pfarrer, Decelles, Smith and Taylor, 2008; Schneper and Guillen 2004).

These differences across employee-employer and consumer-organization relationships have implications for explaining and understanding trust recovery. The differences mean that insights from employee trust recovery are not transferable to consumer trust recovery, and vice versa (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2012; Dietz and Gillespie, 2012b; Pirson and Malhotra, 2010; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017). Specifically, the different levels of proximity of employees and consumers to an organization lead to different levels of access, exposure and hence insight into the organization's conduct and competence (Gillespie and Siebert, in press; Pirson and Malhotra, 2011). Employees might have a greater chance of seeing various organizational trust repair strategies that involve changes to faulty internal organizational components (see Gillespie and Dietz, 2009), compared to consumers, who are external to an organization. Consumer trust recovery potentially requires different or additional strategies. Differences in relational risks and vulnerabilities embedded in employees' and consumer' relationships with an organization involve different forms of trust, which involves different trust recovery processes (Kim et al., 2004; Pirson and Malhotra, 2011; Rousseau et al., 1998; Sheppard and Sherman, 1998).

2.4.2 Consumer trust recovery

I identified a set of studies focused on consumer trust recovery. This stream of literature is younger than the one discussed in the preceding section. Early works include published studies by Nakayachi and Watabe (2005), Huff (2005), Ring (2005) and Xie and Peng

(2009), and a conference paper by (Choi and Nazareth, 2005). Main contributions to this stream of research came from researchers from marketing (e.g. Choi and Nazareth, 2005; Huff, 2005; Ring, 2005; Xie and Peng, 2009). However, consumer trust recovery also interested researchers from related business and management fields and other domains, including organization studies and risk management (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Chen, 2008; Gillespie et al., 2014). It is rare for researchers to contribute to both streams of theory of trust recovery and research. (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2014). Table 2-2 provides an analytic summary of this stream of trust recovery research.

Table 2-2 An analytic summary of theory and research on consumer* (trustor) trust recovery

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Bansal and Zahedi (2015)	Explored the process of consumer trust violation and repair through apology, denial and no response	Laboratory experiment involving 364 students	Apology was a universally effective trust repair strategy. Apology was more effective in cases of hacking than in cases of unauthorized information sharing. Denial was effective for trust repair only in the context of hacking. Trustee's inaction did not repair consumer trust.	Hacking of consumer private data held by a firm and unauthorized information sharing	US-based E-commerce business
Chen, Wu and Chang (2013)	Studied the impact of causal attributions on trust violations, and the coping strategies involved in consumer trust repair	Survey involving 513 active e-shoppers	Positive moods served as an important mediating variable for rebuilding consumer trust. A positive mood mediated the impact of organizations' affective repair, informational repair and functional trust repair. Informational repair rebuilt consumer trust directly.	Reception of poor-quality or defective products, or poor-quality service	Clothing and consumer electronics e-commerce business in Taiwan
Dameri and Bonfante (2007)	Focused on how IT systems can help banks enhance customers' trust	A case study based on publicly available data	Banks' IT systems improved their operational quality and effectiveness, and consequently customers' trust in the bank. Specifically, operational quality and effectiveness were antecedents of customers' satisfaction with financial products and services, and customer satisfaction was an antecedent of customer trust.	Various financial scandals in the 2000s	Retail banks in Italy
Daniel (2008)	How an organization can repair trust with stakeholders after committing trust failure	Qualitative data analysis of data from 24 participants	Trust repair involved a provision of credible reparative information, evidence of organizational change, character of organizational executive leaders and mode of communication.	Various integrity-based trust violations	government entity and organizations in the US

Table 2-2 (Continued)

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Datta and Chatterjee (2011)	Focused on consumer trust reduction and consumer trust recovery	Survey of 139 active online shoppers	Consumer trust in online intermediaries restored their trust in online markets.	Online market inefficiencies in the context of electronics purchases	Online retail
Debab and Yateem (2012)	Focused on key factors that influenced trust in Bahrain's banks in the period following the global financial crisis	Survey including 200 retail bank consumers	Consumer trust recovery involved actions by the banks themselves (e.g., communicating with consumers about trust issues), by the central bank, and by the government (e.g., support of central bank in case of financial difficulties related to political instabilities).	Global financial crisis 2008	Banks
Dietz and Gillespie (2012b)	Explored six real-life cases of organization-level trust repair through the lens of an organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009)	Theory testing using retrospective case studies	The authors found support for the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009).	Various predominantly integrity-based and competency-based trust violations	Organizations (Siemens, Mattel, Toyota, MAE Systems, The BBC, and Severn Trent)
Friend, Costley and Brown (2010)	Examined "nasty" retail shopping experiences with a focus on distrust and trust	Storytelling as a "memory-work" involving nine participants	Consumer trust was repaired after the store accepted responsibility and apologised.	Violation of shoppers' expectation related with store employees' are job competence	Retail clothing store in New Zealand

Table 2-2 (Continued)

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann (2012)	Explored the global financial crisis (GFC) from a trust perspective to identify insights and principles for the practical repair of institutional trust	Theory testing using a single, longitudinal (retrospective) contextualised case study	Found support for the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Key for trust repair was distrust regulation, control mechanisms and structural approaches (e.g., increased government regulation, reforms in board governance, cultural change within institutions, replacing senior leaders and redesigning incentive structures to better align management, and stakeholders' interests).	Global financial crisis	Financial institutions and financial market
Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey (2014)	The authors tested the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009) and reintegration theory (Pfarrer et al., 2008) in the context of various stakeholders	Theory testing using a single, longitudinal (retrospective) contextualised case study	The case study supported the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Three additional trust repair factors were identified: re-establishing a positive organizational identity amongst the workforce; "changing of the guard" at the top; and reforming targeting procedures and culture. The authors found that denials after an integrity-based trust violation were not an optimal trust repair response (i.e., denials led to stakeholders' distrust).	Integrity-based violation (i.e., fraud and data manipulation scandal)	Severn Trent
Giraud-Heraud, Rouached and Soler (2006)	Predominantly focused on new private labels used by retailers	Conceptual paper	New private labelling of food (e.g., meat) after food safety issues (e.g. mad cow disease) was introduced by retailers with the aim to restore consumer trust in food safety. New private labelling of food should reassured consumers that retailers more fully considered quality, food safety and environmental safety factors.	Food safety issue (e.g. mad cow disease)	Food products (e.g. meat)

Table 2-2 (Continued)

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Huff (2005)	Explored the development of consumer trust in service providers.	Deductive and inductive theory building	Consumer forgiveness led to regained trust after a trust violation. The author argued that consumer trust repair in the service provider, where trust violation was related to betrayal, is highly unlikely.	Not specified	Various service providers (e.g., health care provider, restaurants)
Knight, Mather and Mathieson (2015)	Explored the role of a firm's apology in trust recovery	Experiment involving 284 students	The firm's apology was successful in regaining consumer trust when consumers perceived it as sincere. An explicit unreserved apology statement enhanced perceived sincerity. Any hint of justification, excuse or denial of responsibility is likely to harm the perceived sincerity, and may end up doing more damage than no apology at all.	Guilty plea to charges of misleading advertising	Organization (GlaxoSmithKline)
La and Choi (2012)	Focused on repair of the customer-firm relationship (loyalty) after service failure	Survey involving 199 participants who experienced service failure and recovery	Customers' trust in the service provider after service failure was recovered through customer affection.	Various service failures	Various service providers (e.g., restaurants, hotels)
Liao, Luo and Gurung (2009)	Studied trust repair for an online retailer	Survey involving 108 online students	Perceived trustworthiness had a significant effect on the continuance of trust intention, and that perceived trustworthiness was a function of trustor's confirmation of his/her expectations.	Negative experience buying products online	E-retailer

Table 2-2 (Continued)

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Mattila (2009)	Studied consumer trust repair in the context of service firms	Experiment involving 143 students	Causal explanation by pointing to an external cause of the failure together with a sincere apology recovered customers' trust in a service firm more effectively then denial. Causal explanation with external attribution was not enough for full recovery of consumer trust. Apology, when consumers saw the failure as attributable to the company, had limited effectiveness for trust repair.	Price gouging in the aftermath of Katrina	Organization (hotel)
Meyer, Coveney, Henderson, Ward and Taylor (2012)	Examined the nature and dimensions of consumer trust in food	Principles of grounded theory coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1998); 47 semi-structured interviews	To re-establish the trust of metropolitan consumers need to be reconnected with the food system. This might be achieved through an increase in local food production and consumption.	Growing gap between consumers and food system	Food system
Nakayachi and Watanabe (2005)	Explored the effects of voluntary "hostage posting" for repair of the organization's trustworthiness	Three experiments involving 198, 313 and 44 students, respectively	Voluntary "hostage posting" by the organization improved customers' perceptions of the organization's trustworthiness. Voluntariness of "hostage posting" signalled the trustee's trustworthy disposition. Involuntary "hostage posting" did not improve the organization's trustworthiness because it was not perceived as a signal of trustworthiness.	Faulty products	Manufacturer of musical instruments

Table 2-2 (Continued)

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Richards, Lawrence and Burch (2011)	Studied how supermarkets manufactured consumer trust in the safety and quality of the food they sell after the trust was questioned	Conceptual paper with a case study analysis based on visual sociology research methodology	Supermarkets used three strategies to manufacture consumer trust: reputational enhancement (e.g., business-to-business, behind the scenes, private standards imposed on suppliers by supermarkets); direct quality claims (e.g., Red Tractor logo); discursive claims (e.g., celebrity or expert endorsement, store layouts mimicking traditional markets, photographs of farmers).	Widening gap between food production and consumers, and various food scares	Food retailers
Roberts (2011)	Focused on the issues of low trust of Chinese consumers in the context of various food-related scandals	Conceptual paper and illustrative case study	Adoption of corporate social responsibility (CSR) should lead to the recovery of consumer trust in the food industry.	Various food scandals in the food industry in China	Food industry
Ring (2005)	Focused on governmental attempts to recover consumer trust in the pension sector	Inductive qualitative study	Reforming structural constraints, policing mechanisms, and insurance-like arrangements, simplification and empowering of consumers not very effective for trust repair. The government can restore consumer trust in the public pension system by reducing the current complexity of the sector and providing a guaranteed, non-means-tested state pension for all, set at a reasonable minimum level. Policy change must involve public consultation.	Trust failures in the financial sector and increasing complexity of the public pension sector	Private and public pension sector
Spicer and Okhmatovskiy (2015)	Examines repair in the Russian bank deposit market	Survey; including 2,400 Russian individuals	A theory separating trust recovery due to increased regulation by the state and trust recovery due to the states ownership in a specific bank.	Financial crisis 2008	Banking system

Table 2-2 (Continued)

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Utz, Matzat and Snijders (2009)	Explored an e-vendor's trust repair efforts (i.e., apology and denial)	Pilot study which included 1,141 active eBay users in the Netherlands, and an experiment which included 448 Dutch eBay users	A trustee's apology was more effective than denial of responsibility for consumer perception of the trustee's trustworthiness independent of the type of trust violation. Apologies were perceived as more believable than denials, and the effect of the trustee's reaction was mediated by this perceived believability. "Plain" apologies were more successful in eliciting high trustworthiness judgments than apologies with explanation. Denial in the case of morality-based violations of trust did not repair consumer trust.	Integrity-based and competence-based trust violations	E-retailer
Van Laer and De Ruyter (2010)	Studied restoration of consumer trust after integrity violation	Three experiments involving 153, 145 and 95 students, respectively	A narrative apology was more effective for restoration of integrity (trust) than any other response tested (narrative denial, analytical denial and analytical apology). The second-best response in recovering integrity was analytical denial. A narrative apology offered by an implicated employee was more effective than a response by a firm's spokesperson. No response fully restored the damaged firm's integrity.	Integrity-based trust failures	GP, CEO and sales repre-sentative
Wu, Chien, Chen and Wu (2013)	Explored trust repair	Survey including 471 smart phones users	Affective, functional and information repair actions (Xie and Peng, 2009) improved trust through positive emotions. Affective repair was most important, followed by functional and information repair. The success of the organization's trust repair depended on consumer trust levels before the violation.	Poor products and complaints	Mobile phone company

Table 2-2 (Continued)

Source	Focus of the paper	Methodology	Key findings	Trust violation	Trustee
Xie and Peng (2009)	Explored how an organization can repair consumer trust after negative publicity	Experiment involving 220 students	Consumer trust recovery was based on recovered perceptions of the firm's integrity and competence, and consumer forgiveness. The firm's perceived benevolence did not recover consumer trust. Recovered integrity was a function of affective strategies (apology) and informational repair. Functional repair did not improve integrity. Competence was re-established by functional repair strategies and information repair. The firm's benevolence was rebuilt by the organization's affective repair strategies. Functional repair did not improve benevolence. Consumer forgiveness was motivated by consumer rebuilt perceptions of the organization's integrity, benevolence and competence.	Negative publicity related with product-harm crisis or environmental pollution crisis	Electronics retailer
Zhang (2012)	Studied consumer trust repair	Conceptual paper	Consumer trust recovery in a food retailer is a function of a trustor's propensity to forgive, a trustee's apology or promise and apology, and consumer trust in the government.	Food scandals	Food retailer

*Most studies did not acknowledge conceptual differences between consumers and customers (Doyle, 2011), and frequently used both terms interchangeably. This is not problematic, because in this study I used the American Marketing Association's (2016) more inclusive definition of consumers.

Source: Author's table

Strategies of consumer trust recovery

Taken together, this body of literature told us that specific strategies alone or in combination can lead to or explain trust recovery. I identified a number of verbal and substantive strategies.

Verbal strategies

The most notable verbal strategy was apology. Other verbal strategies were denials, explanations, communication and reticence.

Apology

A group of researchers suggested or empirically established that apology was effective, to various degrees, for consumer trust recovery (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Mattila, 2009; Friend, Costley and Brown, 2010; Knight, Mather and Mathieson, 2015; Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009; Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010; Xie and Peng, 2009). Researchers found that "plain" apology, narrative apology, narrative apology offered by the trustee himself, and explicit and unreserved apology were more effective for trust recovery than apology with explanation (e.g., Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009), analytic apology (e.g., Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010), and an apology offered on the trustee's behalf (e.g., Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010). Sincere apology also fostered trust recovery (e.g., Mattila, 2009; Knight, Mather and Mathieson, 2015). Apology more effectively recovered consumer trust after competency vis-a-vis benevolence trust violation (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015). Apology, after trust failure attributable to the trustee, had limited effectiveness for trust repair (e.g., Mattila, 2009).

In contrast to several studies in the first stream of theory of trust recovery (e.g., Kim et al., 2004, 2006, 2013; Ferrin et al., 2007) researchers found that apology was more effective than denial, regardless of the type of trust violation (e.g., Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009). Narrative apology was more effective for consumer trust recovery than narrative denial and analytical denial after integrity-based trust violations (e.g., Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010). However, these researchers also found that analytic apology was less effective for consumer trust recovery in comparison with analytic denial after morality-based based trust violation.

Denials

Researchers also suggested that denials can, in some contexts and to various degrees, foster consumer trust recovery (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009; Mattila, 2009; Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010). Analytic denial, after morality- or integrity-based trust violation, more effectively improved damaged trust that analytic apology (e.g., Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010). However, some researchers found that in comparison with apology (or some types of apology), denial (or some types of denial) was less effective for consumer trust recovery (e.g., Mattila, 2009; Matzat and Snijders, 2009; Knight, Mather and Mathieson, 2015; Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010) regardless of the trust violation type (e.g., Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009). For example, Van Laer and De Ruyter (2010) found that narrative apology was superior to narrative and analytic denial in the context of integrity trust violation. Interestingly, researchers also found that in the context of integrity- or morality-based trust violations, denials were ineffective for trust recovery (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Knight, Mather and Mathieson, 2015; Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009; Gillespie et al., 2014) and could even led to distrust (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2014). This finding contradicts several studies in the first stream of theory of trust recovery and research (e.g., Kim et al., 2004, 2006, 2013; Ferrin et al., 2007). Again, more research is needed to explore the reasons for the identified contradictory findings.

Explanations

The role of explanations in consumer trust recovery is almost non-existent (e.g., Mattila, 2009; Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009). Explanations refer to trustee's statement(s) about his/hers responsibility for his/her actions (Bies and Shapiro, 1987 cited in Mattila, 2009: 212). For example, a trustee might explain that an event/transgression was caused by a technical problem. Mattila (2009) empirically studied consumer trust recovery in a hotel after a trust violation involving price gouging in the aftermath of the hurricane Katrina. Utz, Matzat and Snijders (2009) explored consumer trust recovery in an e-retailer after integrity-based and competence-based trust violations. These studies told us that explanations have limited value for trust recovery. For example, Utz, Matzat and Snijders (2009) found that once a trustee added explanation to a "plain" apology, damaged trust improved less than after an apology without an explanation. Mattila (2009) found that causal explanation with external attribution was not enough for full recovery of consumer

trust. However, a combination of sincere apology and causal explanation recovered customers' trust more effectively than denial.

Communication

Few researchers suggested that a trustee's communication with trustors after trust violation plays an important role in trust recovery (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; Xie and Peng, 2009). Communication involved trustees sharing, disclosing and demonstrating evidence, updated news during the transgression handling process, and clarifying facts to a trustor (Xie and Peng, 2009). In essence, communication is about sharing information about the trust failure and about the trustee's trust recovery actions. For example, a trustee communicating evidence and clarifying facts and various updates improved consumer trust in a firm (e.g., Xie and Peng, 2009). Chen et al. (2013) found that prompt communication and adequate information led to trust recovery. I need to note that while researchers cited here conceptualised a trustee's communication with a trustor as distinct from other verbal responses (e.g., apology) other researchers saw verbal responses (e.g., expressions of regret) as part of communication (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009).

Reticence

Reticence was rarely explored in the context of consumer trust recovery. A rare example was a study conducted by Bansal and Zahedi (2015). The study focused on trust recovery after consumer private data held by a firm was hacked and after the organization shared consumer private information without their consent. Basal and Zahedi (2015) empirically established that the trustee's inaction did not repair consumer trust.

Substantive strategies

This stream of literature on trust recovery also suggested or found several substantive strategies that can lead to consumer trust recovery. These included penance and various structural changes.

Penance

In contrast to the first stream of theory of trust recovery and research, the role of penance in consumer trust recovery was rarely investigated (e.g., Xie and Peng). For example, Xie and Peng (2009), who empirically investigated various verbal and substantive factors for

consumer trust recovery in an organization, found empirical evidence that financial compensation was more effective for consumer trust recovery than apologies after competency trust violations. However, these researchers also found that financial compensation was ineffective for repairing consumer perceptions of a trustee's integrity and benevolence.

Structural changes: Regulatory controls and reforms

Few researchers investigated the role of structural strategies in consumer trust recovery (e.g., Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Debab, 2012; Roberts, 2011; Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011; Ring, 2005; Giraud-Heraud, Rouached and Soler, 2006). I identified two groups of structural strategies: regulatory controls and reforms. However, it needs to be noted that while analysed studies rarely investigated regulatory controls (e.g., Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005), they suggested a broad range of reforms. The reforms included a broad range of changes related to changes to an organization's internal and/or external environment.

The internal reforms included adoption of corporate social responsibility (CSR); introduction of new private product labelling; use of various reputation enhancement techniques; celebrity or expert endorsement; store layouts mimicking traditional markets; photographs of farmers; new customer recognition programs; strengthening the relationships between employees and customer; reductions in banking fees; reduction of the complexity of the public pension sector, guaranteed, non-means-tested state pension for all, set at a reasonable minimum level, accompanied by real public consultation, in which the reasoning behind policy is clearly explained and public consent sought (e.g., Roberts, 2011; Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011; Ring, 2005; Giraud-Heraud, Rouached and Soler, 2006).

External reforms required for consumer trust recovery included increased local food production and consumption; stability of the banking environment; and a supportive role of the central bank (in case of political instability) (Debab, 2012; Mayer et al., 2012). I need to note two things. First, taken together, these studies suggested or empirically found that structural strategies can be effective for eliciting consumer trust recovery. For example, Nakayachi and Watabe (2005), in three experiments, found that voluntary monitoring and self-sanctioning can help repair organizational trustworthiness as perceived by the public/consumers. However, Ring (2005) theorised that reforming structural constraints,

policing mechanisms, insurance-like arrangements, simplification and empowering consumers are not very effective for trust recovery in the context of the pension sector in the UK. Second, most of these studies were conceptual and did not directly focus on consumer trust recovery.

Underlying mechanisms of consumer trust recovery

My analysis of consumer trust recovery literature enabled me to identify seven underlying mechanisms by which consumer trust recovery was achieved. First, a number of studies were underpinned by the explicit or implicit assumption that trust recovery requires resolving negative emotions that resulted from trust violation and re-establishing social equilibrium (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; La and Choi, 2012; Huff, 2005; Zhang, 2012; Xie and Peng, 2009). For example, Chen and colleagues (2013) theorised that prompt communication and financial compensation led to trust recovery, because these factors turned trustors' negative feelings, resulting from the trust failure, into a positive mood.

Second, another approach involved trustee's management or shift of trustor's attributions (e.g., Mattila, 2009). For example, Mattila (2009), who studied consumer trust repair after price gouging by hotels, found that a sincere apology combined with organizations' causal explanation (pointing to an external cause of the failure) effectively repaired consumer trust.

Third, trust recovery required familiarity between trustee and trustor (e.g., Mayer et al., 2012). For example, Mayer et al. (2012) were explicit that the problem of damaged trust was underpinned by a disconnect between consumers and "faceless" organizations, and that the solution to damaged consumer trust was re-connecting consumers with organizations and "face work" (Giddens, 1990, 1991, 1994). Fourth, another mechanism for consumer trust recovery involved the idea that the trustor needs to know what went wrong and why, and what needs to be done to prevent further trust violations (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; Xie and Peng, 2009). The fifth assumption about trust recovery was that it involves constraining or eliminating the untrustworthy behaviour, which would prevent future violations (e.g., Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Debab, 2012; Roberts, 2011; Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011; Ring, 2005; Giraud-Heraud, Rouached and Soler, 2006). To this end, researchers explored a number of structural strategies.

Sixth, underlying mechanisms for consumer trust recovery involved transference of trust from a third party to a trustee (e.g., Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011). The concept of transference explains why Richards, Lawrence and Burch (2011) suggested that supermarkets can recover consumer trust by using direct quality claims (e.g. Red Tractor logo) and through discursive claims-making (e.g. celebrity or expert endorsement, store layouts mimicking traditional markets, photographs of farmers). The seventh mechanism involved a change in the organization's culture (e.g., Roberts, 2011). To this end, Roberts (2011) proposed the adoption of corporate social responsibility (CSR).

In sum, this section showed that there are two nascent streams of theory of trust recovery and research: (1) trust recovery within and between organizations and between organizations and the public (reviewed in the preceding section); and (2) consumer trust recovery (reviewed here). While the first stream of theory of trust recovery and research included more studies, researchers contributing to each stream of the literature suggested or found a number of similar verbal and substantive strategies that alone, in combination or sequentially related (in cases of trust recovery within and between organizations and between an organization and the public) led to or explain trust recovery. Researchers contributing to each stream of theory and research also held similar underlying assumptions about trust recovery and about how/why specific factors lead to or explain trust recovery. I now discuss meta-theoretical underpinnings of existing theory of trust recovery and research.

2.5 The theory and research of trust recovery: Meta-theoretical underpinnings

In the preceding sections I discussed existing theory of trust recovery. In other words, I told the reader what are existing explanations of trust recovery. In this section, I turn to a critical analysis of meta-theoretical underpinnings of theory of trust recovery to establish if there are meta-theoretical gaps in this literature. In other words, here I do not focus on theory and research on trust recovery per se but on paradigmatic assumptions that underpin this theory and research.

2.5.1 Theory and research on trust recovery within and between organizations and between organizations and the public: Meta-theoretical underpinnings

From a meta-theoretical perspective, this stream of theory and research on trust recovery literature is predominantly functionalist (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Kim et al., 2004, 2006; Lewicki and Bunker, 1996; Nakayachi and Watanabe, 2005; Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow, 2006; Sitkin and Roth, 1993; Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki, 2004). For example, all of the above cited studies involved an assumption of objective reality. However, this was rarely explicitly evident. For example, De Cremer and Desmet (2012: 7) talked about 'objective trust violation' (my emphasis). Figure 2-3 locates identified trust recovery studies, within this stream of the literature, in Burrell and Morgan (1979) framework.

Figure 2-3 Meta-theoretical positions of theory and research on trust recovery*

RADICAL HUMANIST	RADICAL STRUCTURALIST
-	Child and Rodrigues (2004)
Gill, Febbraro and Thompson (2011); Martin, Siebert and Bozic (2014); Rashid and Edmondson (2012); Ring (2005); Sørensen, Hasle and Pejtersen (2011); Williams (2012)	Bottom, Gibson, Daniels and Murnighan (2002); Brockner and Bianchi (2012); Daniel (2008); Desmet and De Cremer (2012); De Cremer (2010); Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk (2010); Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk (2011a); Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk (2011b); Dietz and Gillespie (2012a) Dietz and Gillespie (2012b); Dirks, Kim, Ferrin and Cooper (2011) Eberl, Geiger, Aßländer (2015); Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks (2007) Fulmer (2010); Fulmer and Gelfand (2009); Gillespie and Dietz (2009); Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann (2012); Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey (2014); Haselhuhn, Schweitzerand Wood (2010); Janowicz-Panjaitan and Krishnan (2009); Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks (2004); Kim, Dirks, Cooper and Ferrin (2006); Kim, Dirks and Cooper (2009); Kim, Cooper, Dirk and Ferrin (2013); Lewicki and Bunker (1996); Lewicki and Polin (2012); Lount, Zhong, Sivanatha and Murnighan (2008); Maddux, Kim, Okumura and Brett (2011); McDonald and Walters (2010); Mueller, Carter and Whittle (2015); Pate, Morgan-Thomas and Beaumont (2012); Poppo and Schepker (2010) Schniter Sheremeta and Sznycer (2012); Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow (2006); Hope-Hailey, Searle and Dietz (2012); Siebert and Martin (2014) Sitkin and Roth (1993); Stevens, MacDuffie and Helper (2015); Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki (2004); Tomlinson (2011); Tomlinson and Mayer (2009); Van Laer and De Ruyter (2010); Webber, Bishop and O'Neill (2012)
INTERPRETIVE	FUNCTIONALIST

*Each paper was classified into a specific paradigm based on the prevalence of elements characteristic of that specific paradigm.

Adapted from Burrell and Morgan (1979)

Most researchers revealed such an ontological assumption by adopting a "scientific method" or a "hypothetico-deductive" or "theory-testing" approach (Blaikie, 2009; Crotty, 1998). Most of these studies also adopted experimental or survey methodology. While methodology is in principle paradigmatically independent, researchers from specific paradigms do adopt and favour some specific methodologies (Crotty, 1998). Given that the abovementioned studies did involve hypothetico-deductive logic, it is safe to say that their methodologies were used in "functionalist" spirit. These studies frequently involved large sample sizes, which enabled researchers to generalise their "true" findings to a population.

Qualitative research designs were less common. Most frequently used was a case study methodology (Yin, 2008). It should be noted that these qualitative methodologies were related to the "scientific method". They were used to "test" deductively developed theories, not for inductive/abductive theory construction (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2014; Gillespie et al., 2012a; Sitkin and Roth, 1993; Lewicki and Polin, 2012). For example, Gillespie et al. (2014) used a single, longitudinal (retrospective) contextualised case study to test the organizational-level trust repair theory (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Similarly, Gillespie et al. (2012a) tested an organizational-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009) on the recent global financial crisis. Sitkin and Roth (1993) illustrated their theoretical arguments with a case study involving organizational responses to employees with HIV/AIDS. Lewicki and Polin (2012) used four case studies to test the effectiveness of apology. Most of this literature explicitly assumed that trust is good and positive and therefore needs to be recovered. Trust violations were perceived as events which disrupted a stable state of affairs where trust between trustee and trustor existed. Fundamental to functionalist trust repair studies was the need to repair damaged trust (i.e., to re-establish stability). The central change agent was a manager whose key role was to re-establish the pre-trust violation equilibrium (i.e., return to the status quo).

Trust recovery literature underpinned by interpretivist and radical approaches was rare (e.g., Child and Rodrigues, 2004; Daniel, 2008; Martin, Siebert, Bozic, 2014; Rashid and Edmondson, 2012; Sørensen, Hasle and Pejtersen, 2011; Williams, 2012). Most of this literature contained some interpretivist elements (e.g., Daniel, 2008; Martin, Siebert and Bozic, 2014; Rashid and Edmondson, 2012; Ring, 2005; Sørensen, Hasle and Pejtersen, 2011; Williams, 2012). These studies often adopted inductive theory building logic and used qualitative research methodology to this end. For example, Rashid and Edmondson (2012) used grounded theory methodology to develop theory about how people in teams

involving various actors learned to trust in a context of extreme risk. Data were collected from ten participants that experienced the phenomenon of interest. This was purposeful sampling and not random sampling that is closely related with functionalist studies. Sørensen, Hasle and Pejtersen (2011) used in-depth analysis of two case studies to explore trust development between groups of organizational actors and how declining trust can be repaired. Williams (2012) explored the role of perspective taking in building and repairing trust, which is fundamentally characteristic of an interpretivist approach (i.e., understanding from the perspective of others). Similar to functionalist trust recovery studies, these studies also viewed trust as fundamentally positive and necessary for the healthy functioning of organizations and individuals. Fundamentally, researchers tried to improve things (e.g., improving damaged trust, improving organizations' efficiency). Trust repair was studied within the existing state of affairs and not in changing the status quo. The notion that trust is inherently good was not challenged. Child and Rodrigues (2004) included elements typical of the radical structuralist paradigm. For example, the study implied objective reality. The authors were critical of the existing neo-liberal mentality which encouraged free allocation of resources and justified less favourable treatment of people under the guise of flexible employment practices. However, the study also included functionalist assumptions. For example, the authors viewed the recovery of employees' trust as an important research topic because recovered trust benefits the organization. I now turn to the meta-theoretical underpinnings of consumer theory of trust recovery and research.

2.5.2 Theory and research on consumer trust recovery: Meta-theoretical underpinnings

My analysis led me to conclude that consumer trust recovery literature is narrowly focuses. Figure 2-4 locates identified consumer trust recovery studies in Burrell and Morgan (1979) framework.

Figure 2-4 Meta-theoretical positions of theory and research on consumer trust recovery*

RADICAL HUMANIST	RADICAL STRUCTURALIST
Richards, Lawrence and Burch (2011)	-
Friend, Costley and Brown (2010); Meyer, Coveney, Henderson, Ward and Taylor (2012); Ring (2005)	Bansal and Zahedi (2015); Chen, Wu and Chang (2013); Dameri and Bonfante (2007); Daniel (2008); Datta and Chatterjee (2011); Debab and Yateem (2012); Dietz and Gillespie (2012b); Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann (2012); Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey (2014); Giraud-Heraud, Rouached and Soler (2006); Huff (2005); Knight, Mather and Mathieson (2015); La and Choi (2012); Liao, Luo and Gurung (2009); Mattila (2009); Nakayachi and Watanabe (2005); Roberts (2011); Spicer and Okhmatovskiy (2015); Utz, Matzat and Snijders (2009); Van Laer and De Ruyter (2010); Wu, Chien, Chen and Wu (2013); Xie and Peng (2009); Zhang (2012)
INTERPRETIVE	FUNCTIONALIST

*Each paper was classified into a specific paradigm based on the prevalence of elements characteristic of that specific paradigm.

Adapted from Burrell and Morgan (1979)

As it is evident from the figure 2-4 almost all reviewed studies were underpinned by functionalist assumptions (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Chen, Wu and Chang, 2013; Choi and Nazareth, 2005; Dameri and Bonfante, 2007; Daniel, 2008; Datta and Chatterjee, 2011; Debab, 2012; Dietz and Gillespie, 2012b; Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann, 2012; Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey, 2014; Giraud-Heraud, Rouached and Soler, 2006; Huff, 2005; Knight, Mather and Mathieson, 2015; La and Choi, 2012; Liao, Luo and Gurung, 2009; Mattila, 2009; Nakayachi and Watanabe, 2005; Roberts, 2011; Utz, Matzat and Snijders, 2009; Van Laer and De Ruyter, 2010; Wu, Chien, Chen and Wu, 2013; Xie and Peng, 2009; Zhang, 2012). For example, ontologically these studies construed the consumer trust recovery objective. This was inferred from their epistemological assumptions (Crotty, 1998).

Two methodologies stood out: experimental (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Xie and Peng, 2009) and survey (e.g., Chen, Wu and Chang, 2013; Datta and Chatterjee, 2011). Both methodologies enabled researchers to test deductively derived hypotheses involving causal relationships between independent and dependent variables. This is a fundamental characteristic of the functionalist paradigm. Similar to the functionalist works in the first stream of trust recovery literature, most functionalist trust recovery studies involved large samples. Qualitative research designs were less common. Most frequently used was a case study methodology (Yin, 2008).

It should be noted that qualitative methodologies used with paradigm served the logic of the "scientific method". They were used to "test" deductively developed theories, not for inductive/abductive theory construction. For example, Gillespie et al. (2014) used a single, longitudinal (retrospective) contextualised case study to test organizational-level trust repair theory (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Roberts (2011) illustrated his theoretical arguments with a case involving food shoppers in China. These studies were rooted in the belief that trust is good and positive and hence needs to be repaired. Trust violations were perceived by researchers as events which disrupted a stable state of affairs where trust between trustee and trustor existed. The central change agent was a manager whose key role was to re-establish the pre-trust violation equilibrium (i.e., return to the status quo).

Only a few studies were based on interpretivist (e.g., Friend, Costley and Brown, 2010; Meyer, Coveney, Henderson, Ward and Taylor, 2012; Ring, 2005) or radical assumptions (e.g., Richards, Lawrence and Burch, 2011). Interpretivist studies involved inductive or

abductive reasoning. This allowed them to create knowledge about trust recovery which took into account participants' subjective understanding of the phenomenon – a hallmark of interpretivist research. For example, Meyer, Coveney, Henderson, Ward and Taylor (2012) used principles of inductive theory building.

These studies also included various qualitative methodologies to understand trust recovery. These included principles of grounded theory methodology (e.g., Meyer et al., 2012), a case study approach and various qualitative approaches, some based on phenomenology, hermeneutics (e.g., Ring, 2005). For example, Friend, Costley and Brown (2010) employed a "storytelling as memory-work" methodology rooted in phenomenology, hermeneutics and narrative theory. To collect qualitative data, usually from a small number of research participants, interpretivist researchers conducted unstructured and semi-structured interviews. Friend et al. (2010) collected qualitative data about negative retail shopping experiences from nine purposefully selected participants.

Similar to functionalist studies, all studies discussed here viewed trust as fundamentally positive and necessary for the healthy functioning of organizations and individuals. The aim of these studies was to improve things (e.g., improving damaged trust, improving organizations' efficiency). Trust repair was studied within the existing state of affairs and not as a way of changing the status quo. The notion that trust is inherently good was not challenged. Richards, Lawrence and Burch's (2011) study included elements of a radical humanist perspective. For example, they used the "visual sociology" methodological approach, which was rooted in semiotics (Miller and McHoul, 1998). These authors were critical of food retailers' practices which aimed to influence consumer perceptions and beliefs about the retailer and products sold. The following exemplary quote from Richards et al. (2011: 41) illustrates this: 'Morrisons, as a national retail chain with a multimillion dollar turnover, and which sources goods from all corners of the globe, is disguising its true place in the global food economy, presenting instead an image of localness, connectedness and tradition'. Similarly, they also argued that supermarkets branded some of their products and used discursive claims deceptively in such a way that they signalled traditional, small-scale family-type production. In reality, the authors found that these products were mass-produced and "faceless".

In sum, this section identified great meta-theoretical imbalances in both streams of trust recovery literature, showing that the functionalist paradigm dominates both streams of the

literature. I now turn to the final part of this chapter, where I construct theoretically and practically relevant research gaps in existing trust recovery literature.

2.6 The research gaps

Building on the previous analysis, in this section I elucidate gaps in existing theory and research on trust recovery that I will address in this study.

The first gap is an *under-researched* area in theory of trust recovery and research that relates to consumer trust recovery in an organization. Specifically, only a very small set of studies investigate conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization (e.g., Bansal and Zahedi, 2015; Chen, Wu and Chang, 2013; Debab, 2012; Friend, Costley and Brown, 2010; Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann, 2012; Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey, 2014; Huff, 2005; Knight, Mather and Mathieson, 2015; Mattila, 2009; Nakayachi and Watanabe, 2005; Xie and Peng, 2009).

This gap (see above) may not be remedied by theory of trust recovery that does not include consumers (trustors) and organizations (trustees) because of limited transferability of this literature. On the one hand, this theory and research is not transferrable to consumer trust recovery in an *organization* (e.g., Bachman et al., 2015; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Dirks, Ferrin and Cooper, 2011; Dirks, Lewicki and Zaheer, 2009; Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann, 2012; Kim et al., 2004; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017; Xie and Peng, 2009). This non-transferability is rooted in compositional and contractual differences across different relationships (e.g., Dirks et al., 2009; Xie and Peng, 2009), differences in organizations' vis-a-vis individuals' trustworthiness (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009), and the considerably greater complexity of trust recovery when the trustee is an organization, because a range of organizational actors and components operating at multiple levels can affect and inform the judgements of potential trustors (e.g., Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017). There is also growing empirical evidence supporting these arguments (e.g., Dietz and Gillespie, 2012a). For example, Dietz and Gillespie (2012a), in their in-depth case study analysis of the BBC's programme fakery in 2007, found fundamental differences between trust repair when the trustee is an individual or an organization.

On the other hand, theoretical and empirical insight from trust recovery studies that did not involve *consumers* as trustors may also not be transferable to trust recovery where trustors

are consumers (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2012; Gillespie and Dietz, 2012a; Pirson and Malhotra, 2010; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017). For example, Gillespie et al. (2012: 210) argued: 'we cannot assume that the same approach for repairing trust will be effective across all stakeholder groups [...] trust repair varies across institutional stakeholders.' Similarly, Dietz and Gillespie (2012a: 31) noted that 'the processes and principles of effective organizational-level trust repair may differ for internal versus external stakeholders'. There are several reasons for this non-transferability: differences in expectations, conflicting interests and different proximity of various stakeholders to organization (trustee) (e.g., Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Freeman, 1984; Schneper and Guillén, 2004; Poppo and Schepker, 2010; Siebert and Gillespie, forthcoming in 2017); relational differences and different risks embedded in specific relationships (e.g., Sheppard and Sherman, 1998); different vulnerabilities, interests, power levels and expectations, varying levels of access, exposure and hence insight into the organization's conduct, and differences in trustors' interpretations of the nature and causes of the breach (e.g., Gillespie and Siebert, in press).

Relatedly, even if this literature would be transferable to consumer trust recovery in an organization there is an issue with this literature. Specifically, there is a paucity of literature on the topic (I provide a detailed account of this literature in Chapter 2). The same was recently observed by Bachmann et al. (2015). Several calls for more research on the topic, spanning the last decade or so (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015; Schoorman et al., 2007; Mayer, 2014; Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Tax, Brown and Chandrashekaran, 1998), also reflect this fact. Lyon et al. (2012; 2015) noted that the phenomenon of trust recovery requires further attention.

The second gap is a *meta-theoretical gap that relates to a lack of interpretivist studies that focus on investigating consumer trust recovery (as well as to wider trust recovery literature).* My analysis of literature on the topic led me to conclude that theory of trust recovery and research is almost exclusively functionalist/positivist (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998), involving a deductive approach to research inquiry (Popper, [1935] 2005). While such research is common, important and valuable (Gioia et al., 2013), the dominance of functionalist trust recovery theory and research is problematic because functionalist assumptions render such theory and research paradigmatically limited and consequentially partial. To understand why this is the case, let me briefly turn to the notion of research paradigms (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998).

In short, there are various research paradigms, consisting of various assumptions, including ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. As such, research paradigms are lenses through which researchers investigate a phenomenon of interest. A specific paradigmatic lens prevents the researcher from seeing and investigating the phenomenon (i.e., trust recovery) from other perspectives. Poggie (1965, cited in Van de Ven and Poole, 1995: 510) noted that 'a way of seeing is the way of not seeing'. Because trust recovery literature is almost exclusively functionalist, researchers have investigated trust recovery from only one particular perspective, which limits what and how much they could "discover" (Gioia and Pitre, 1991; Gioia, Corley and Hamilton, 2013; Locke, 2011) about trust recovery. According to Gioia et al. (2013: 16), this is because in such research 'advances in knowledge' are 'strongly rooted in what we already know' which 'delimits what we can know'. Therefore, new "discoveries" are possible by approaching the trust recovery phenomenon from different paradigmatic perspectives and with different paradigmatic assumptions; for example, from an interpretivist perspective, by investing a research phenomenon from the perspective of those living it.

Thus, my overarching research question is: 'Why and how consumer trust recovery in a food retailer occurs in the context of the food adulteration scandal in the UK in 2013?' Addressing this research question is my rationale for undertaking this thesis. My specific research aim is: to build and enrich theory inductively from an interpretivist perspective explaining why and how consumer trust recovery in an organization occurs. In other words, I want to understand/ learn about what leads to consumer trust recovery in an organization and why/how?

2.7 Chapter summary

A three-wave literature search strategy enabled me to identify 73 works that involved theory and research on trust recovery (across social science disciplines and across different trustees and trustors). Critical review forms, with 13 analytical points and Burrell and Morgan (1979) framework, allowed me to critically, comprehensively and systematically analyse these works and record the outcomes of my analysis. I identified two emerging streams of trust recovery literature: literature that explains trust within and between organizations and between organizations and the public, and literature that focuses on explanation of consumer trust recovery. Within both streams of literature, researchers identified a number of verbal and substantive strategies that led or can lead to trust

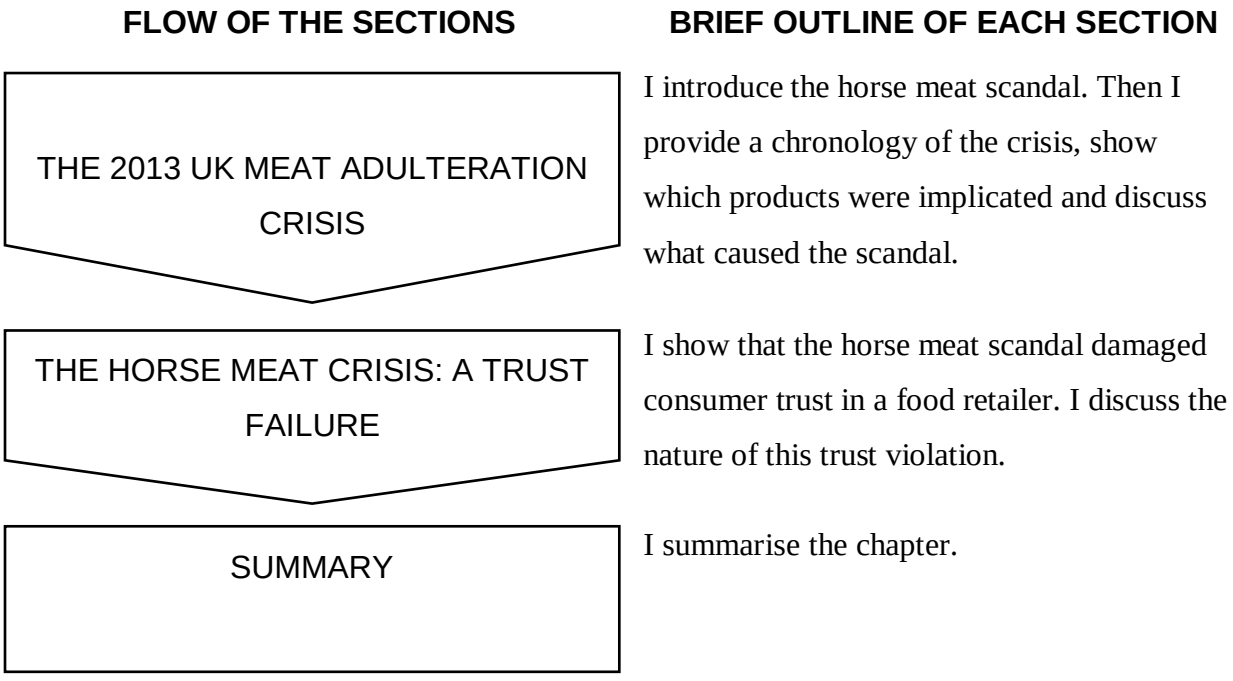
recovery, and several underling sequential mechanisms by which trust recovery occurred/should occur. My analysis also showed that both bodies of trust recovery literature were narrowly focused – they were almost exclusively functionalist (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). I identified gaps in existing theory and research on trust recovery that I address in this study. This chapter ended by stating my research question and aim, which addresses theoretically and practically relevant gaps in existing literature on trust recovery. Before I turn to the methodology that enabled me to meet my research question and aim (Chapter 5), I discuss the empirical context of this study (Chapter 3) and research philosophy in general and in this study in particular (Chapter 4). Explication of the empirical context is crucial because it determines the applicability/generalisability of the research findings. The research philosophy is important because it has bearing on how the research is done and what is investigated.

Chapter 3 EMPIRICAL CONTEXT

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the theoretical context of this study. It ended by stating my research aim that addresses three theoretical and practically relevant gaps in existing literature on trust recovery. This chapter deals with its empirical context, which enabled me to study unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization – the meat adulteration crisis in the UK in 2013 ("the horse meat crisis"). This chapter consists of two main sections. The first provides an account of the horse meat crisis and outlines its causes. The second shows that the crisis represented, among other things, an ability-based organizational trust failure, damaging consumer trust in the implicated food retailers.

Figure 3-1 Overview of chapter 3



3.2 The 2013 UK meat adulteration crisis ("the horse meat crisis")

3.2.1 The crisis

The 2013 meat adulteration scandal (also known as "the horse meat crisis") was a major issue in Europe. Food products labelled as containing beef were found to contain undeclared or improperly declared horse meat, up to 100%, and in some cases pork. The horse meat scandal in 2013 in UK is well known. Specifically, almost all UK population knows about the scandal and almost two thirds found it concerning (Harris Interactive, 2013 cited on the FSA, 2014).

The scandal began on 15th January 2013 in Ireland. During routine monitoring of the contents and labelling accuracy of meat products sold by food retailers in Ireland, the Food Safety Authority of Ireland (FSAI) discovered horse and pig DNA in burgers labelled as beef. They found that Tesco, Dunnes Stores, Lidl, Aldi and Iceland were selling mislabelled products. Tesco's "Everyday Value Beef Burgers" contained 29.1% horse meat. Other products contained horse meat at much lower levels. The FSAI's investigation also showed that Liffey Meats and Silvercrest Foods (both in Ireland), and Dalepak (Hambleton), in the UK, produced these products.

The scandal soon spread to the UK and several other European countries (e.g., France, Norway, Austria, Switzerland, Sweden and Germany). It involved wide-ranging investigations involving various institutions in the UK (e.g. the FSA, various governmental departments) and other EU countries (FSA, 2015). The crisis revealed major issues of food traceability in an increasingly complex supply chain pertaining to meat products, competency problems, negligence and criminal activity. The scandal lasted several months and had several consequences for the food industry, its actors and other stakeholders. The scandal led to changes in national and European policy and food regulation (e.g. the Food Crime Unit and a stricter food testing regime in the UK) (BBC, 2013d; FSA, 2015). Because of the focus of this study, I now turn to the crisis in the UK.

Drawing on published information and analysis from reputable media (e.g., *Guardian*, *Financial Times*, *Telegraph*, *BBC*), the Food Standards Agency, and reports published by the government or related bodies (e.g. the Elliott review and Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs Committee reports), I constructed a brief account of the meat adulteration crisis in the UK, which I offer here.

Immediately after the FSAI's discovery of adulterated products labelled as beef, the Food Standards Agency (FSA), which is responsible for food safety and food hygiene across the UK, initiated a similar investigation in the UK. Other government departments and local authorities also became involved. As part of the investigation, the FSA asked the food industry (e.g. food retailers, meat manufacturers, caterers) to start testing all beef products for horse DNA and, where relevant, for phenylbutazone or "Bute" (i.e., a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) for the short-term treatment of pain and fever in animals, which may lead to cancer in humans). Specifically, members of the food industry were required to test the products for the presence of horse meat above 1%, the threshold set by the FSA. According to the FSA, there were two reasons for this level. First, traces of horse meat below 1% might not imply gross incompetence or deliberate fraud. Second, not all laboratories can test accurately below 1%.The food industry was required to regularly report the results of the testing to the FSA. Initial tests showed that meat adulteration was also evident in the UK.

Immediately after the test results were made public, the issue became high profile; this was a major food adulteration crisis (BBC, 2013a, b, c; Harris Interactive, 2013a; Volkery, 2013). Almost all consumers knew about the scandal (Harris Interactive, 2013a). Table 3-1 below shows the chronology of the horse meat crisis. As is evident from the table, in the UK the first "beef" products containing horse meat were discovered towards the end of January 2013. After that, new cases of mislabelling were found on an almost daily basis. Most discoveries of adulterated meat were made over February and March 2013.

Table 3-1 Chronology of the horse meat crisis

DATE	MISLABELLED PRODUCTS AND IMPLICATED ORGANIZATIONS
15 January 2013	The Food Safety Authority in Ireland (FSAI) discovered, during routine testing of the contents and labelling accuracy of meat products, horse and pig DNA in burgers labelled as beef. Implicated burgers were sold by Tesco, Dunnes Stores, Lidl, Aldi and Iceland. A sample of Tesco's "Everyday Value Beef Burgers" contained 29.1% horse meat. Other products contained much smaller levels of horse and/or pig meat. Implicated products were produced by Liffey Meats and Silvercrest Foods in Ireland and by Dalepak (Hambleton) in the UK. The FSAI also discovered traces of horse DNA in batches of raw ingredients.
17 January 2013	The Department for Agriculture, Food and the Marine in Ireland discovered another positive horse DNA sample. The sample related to raw ingredients in the Silvercrest processing plant.
30 January 2013	The Co-operative announced that four samples pertaining to two lines of frozen burgers ("The Co-operative 4 Beef Quarter Pounder Burgers" and "The Co-operative 8 Beef Frozen Burgers with Onion") made for the Co-operative by Silvercrest Foods tested positive for horse DNA. In three samples there were traces of horse DNA. One sample contained 17.7% horse meat.
4 February 2013	The Food Standards Agency (FSA) found 2 out of 12 samples taken from meat held by Freeza Meats in Northern Ireland to be positive for horse DNA. Both samples contained around 80% horse meat.
7 February 2013	Findus UK beef lasagnes produced by Comigel were found to contain more than 60% horse meat.
8 February 2013	Horse DNA was identified in samples of two Aldi products (Aldi's "Today Special Frozen Beef Lasagne" and Aldi's "Special Frozen Spaghetti Bolognese"). Positive samples contained up to 100% horse meat.
11 February 2013	Horse DNA was found in Tesco's "Everyday Value Spaghetti Bolognese". Most samples contained traces (less than 1%) of horse DNA, while three samples contained more than 60% horse meat.
14 February 2013	A contaminated range of catering burger products was found at Rangeland Foods (this is a company in Ireland whose products were sold by UK caterers like Compass Group, and various wholesalers). The horse meat content was between 5% and 30%. Whitbread withdrew lasagne and beef burger products after they tested positive for horse DNA. Lasagne products and beef burger products (Whitbread Group) were supplied by Brakes and by Paragon Quality Foods, respectively. ASDA withdrew their "Chilled Beef Bolognese Sauce" produced by Greencore. This was the first fresh beef product found to be contaminated with horse DNA.

Table 3-1 (Continued)

DATE	MISLABELLED PRODUCTS AND IMPLICATED ORGANIZATIONS
15 February 2013	The food industry reported results from food testing. 29 samples relating to 7 products tested positive for horse DNA. These are identified above.
21 February 2013	North Lanarkshire Council confirmed that frozen beef burger products supplied to a Scottish school canteen (Cumbernauld High School) tested positive for horse DNA. The supplier was Brakes. Testing by Powys County Council identified three samples of beef burger products that tested positive for horse DNA. They contained at least 1% horse meat. The samples were part of a range of beef products from The Burger Manufacturing Company (BMC).
22 February 2013	A second round of testing by the food industry revealed 35 positive samples for horse DNA (at or above 1%), representing 13 products. Caterer Sodexo withdrew a range of beef products which contained horse meat. The supplier was Vestey Foods UK. The FSA confirmed additional positive tests. These related to "Frozen MQ 100% Aberdeen Angus Beef Burgers" by Makro.
28 February 2013	IKEA withdrew meatballs (supplied by Dafgård) which tested positive for horse DNA.
1 March 2013	A third round of food industry testing found new contaminated products. These were: "Traditional Spaghetti Bolognese" and "Beef Lasagne" (both by Bird's Eye and made by Belgian manufacturer Frigilunch NV); Brakes' "Spicy Minced Beef Skewer (Brakes); and ground beef (Taco Bell). Previously identified contaminated products which were included in these food industry testing results were: "Frozen MQ 100% Aberdeen Angus Beef Burgers" (by Makro) and a range of beef products (The Burger Manufacturing Company). All implicated products contained 1% or more horse meat.
7 March 2013	Oak Farm Food informed the public that their product ("Oak Farm individual portion Cottage Pies") tested positive for horse DNA above the 1% threshold.
8 March 2013	The FSA published results from the first and second phases of the FSA's UK-wide testing for horse meat. Seven samples representing six different products sampled in Phase 1 were found to possibly contain 1% or more horse meat. Canned "Smart Price Corned Beef" (by ASDA) and canned "Chosen By You Corned Beef" tested positive for horse DNA. Frozen "Chosen By You Lean Beef Mince" tested positive for horse meat DNA.

Table 3-1 (Continued)

DATE	MISLABELLED PRODUCTS AND IMPLICATED ORGANIZATIONS
12 March 2013	Tesco's frozen "Simply Roast Meatloaf" manufactured by Eurostock in Craigavon (North Ireland) tested positive for horse meat. The product contained between 2% and 5% horse meat.
14 March 2013	Aldi's "Oakhurst Frozen Meatloaf in Gravy" and "Oakhurst Frozen Meatloaf in Tomato Sauce" tested positive for horse DNA.
22 March 2013	Lancashire County Council found 199 kg of horse meat from Hungary labeled as beef. 40 kg of horse meat labeled as "diced beef" was sold through Hungarian Food Ltd.'s own market stall in Preston, and through a shop (Taste of Hungary) in Liverpool. The implicated product was "Kockázott Marhaús" (frozen diced beef).
26 March 2013	The FSA published updated results from their UK-wide testing for horse DNA. Two products contained horse meat. Both products (burgers sold by Whitbread and meatballs sold by IKEA) were already identified by previous food industry testing (see above).
9 April 2013	ASDA announced that further batches of their "Smart Price Corned Beef" tins tested positive for phenylbutazone ("Bute"). The FSA published an update on their testing results from 26 March 2013. Two samples tested positive for horse DNA. These related to burgers produced by The Burger Manufacturing Company (BMC) and to burgers manufactured by King Fry Meat Products Ltd.
13 June 2013	The food industry reported results from the fourth round (first quarterly report) of testing for horse meat. The report listed three new products, by Tesco and Aldi, which contained horse meat. These were: "Tesco Simply Meatloaf", "Aldi Oakhurst Frozen Meatloaf in Gravy" and "Aldi Oakhurst Frozen Meatloaf in Tomato Sauce".
19 July 2013	Frozen meat pie from Latvia (produced by Galdin Klajies) contained horse meat. The product was supplied to small shops in the UK.
31 October 2013	The FSA was informed that horse meat was found in canned sliced beef ("Food Hall Sliced Beef in Rich Gravy") from Romania. This finding came from routine testing by Lincolnshire County Council. Horse meat levels were between 1-5%. The product was supplied to Home Bargains (TJ Morris Ltd) and Quality Save stores in the UK.

Sources: The FSA; websites of implicated manufacturers and food retailers; the BBC, the *Telegraph*, the *Guardian* and the *Financial Times*.

Table 3-2 below shows all the products containing horse meat and phenylbutazone, and the implicated organizations. As is evident from the table, over the course of the crisis, in total, over twenty different products were mislabelled. These included: lasagne, spaghetti bolognese, meatloaf, beef mince, corned beef, beef skewers, burgers and beef pies. While most mislabelled products contained relatively low amounts of horse meat, some "beef" products contained 100% horse meat. In addition, Asda's Corned Beef (340g tin) also contained phenylbutazone. Pork DNA was also identified in some "beef" products sold by supermarkets not selling beef products containing horse meat (e.g., Waitrose). As is also evident from the table, almost all major food retailers (e.g., Tesco, Asda, Aldi, Lidl, Iceland and The Co-operative), major caterers (e.g., Sodexo), food manufacturers (e.g., Bird's Eye, Findus and Rangeland), and public institutions (e.g., schools) sold or manufactured mislabelled meat products.

Table 3-2 Products found to contain horse meat at or above 1% and results of testing for phenylbutazone ("Bute") as per 31 October 2013*

COMPANY	PRODUCTS FOUND TO CONTAIN HORSE MEAT AT OR ABOVE 1%	BUTE TEST RESULTS
Aldi	"Today's Special Frozen Beef Lasagne"	Negative
	"Today's Special Frozen Spaghetti Bolognese"	Negative
	"Aldi Oakhurst Frozen Meatloaf in Gravy"	Negative
	"Aldi Oakhurst Frozen Meatloaf in Tomato Sauce"	Negative
Asda	"Chilled Beef Bolognese Sauce"	Negative
	"Lean Beef Mince"	Negative
	"Smart Price Corned Beef"	Positive
Bird's eye	"Traditional Spaghetti Bolognese"	Negative
	Beef Lasagne	Negative
Brakes	"Brakes Spicy Minced Beef Skewer"	Negative
The Burger Manufacturing Company	Burger	Negative
The Co-operative	"4 Beef Quarter Pounder Burgers"	Negative
Findus	"Beef Lasagne"	Negative
Galdin Klajies	"Pie with Minced Meat"	Negative
Hungarian Food Ltd	"Kockázott Marhaús"	Negative
TJ Morris	"Food Hall Sliced Beef in Rich Gravy"	Negative
King Fry Meat Products Ltd	Beef burger	Negative
Makro	"Frozen MQ 100% Aberdeen Angus Beef Burgers 12"	Negative
Oak Farm Foods	"Oak Farm Cottage Pie"	Negative
Rangeland	Range of burger products	Negative
Sodexo	Beef burgers Minced beef Halal minced beef	Negative
Taco Bell	Ground beef	Negative
Tesco	"Everyday Value Frozen Burgers"	Negative
	"Everyday Value Spaghetti Bolognaise"	Negative
	"Tesco Simply Roast Meatloaf"	Negative
Whitbread Group PLC	Lasagne product	Negative
	Beef burger product	Negative

*IKEA Frozen Swedish Food Market Meatballs and Asda's Chosen By You corned beef has been removed from this table because the level of horse DNA was below the 1% reporting threshold. Adapted from the FSA (2014)

Consumers and the general public typically perceived the scandal as an issue of mislabelling and/or an issue of the presence of horse meat (Harris Interactive, 2013a). Specifically, most consumers had a problem with mislabelling and not knowing what they were buying and/or eating. The underpinning reason was that mislabelled food involved potential religious and ethical implications, as well as health risks and other uncertainties. Consumers believed that 'only products listed on the label should be in the food' (Harris Interactive, 2013: 34). Fewer consumers had problems with eating horse meat. Eating horse meat, in large parts of continental Europe, is not considered an issue. However, in the UK many Britons consider horse meat a taboo food.

3.2.2 The causes of the crisis

Initially, several possible causes for the presence of horse meat in "beef" products were identified. The FSA argued that causes of traces of horse meat (below 1%) may be different from causes of larger quantities of horse meat. The main cause reported in the first case is manufacturing processes (e.g. using the same equipment for processing different meats). For the latter category, the main possible causes identified were fraud, incompetence or negligence of various actors in the food industry For example, in the wake of the crisis; Environment Secretary Owen Paterson argued that the horse meat scandal might be due to incompetence or a criminal international conspiracy (BBC, 2013f).

Investigations revealed several issues/causes of the crisis. One was food fraud. Criminal investigations showed that some meat manufacturers did not comply with food traceability regulations (FSA, 2015). Commissioner for Health and Consumers Tonio Borg, on 16 April 2013, said that EU-wide investigative testing (also covering the UK) showed that the horse meat scandal was a case of food fraud. Investigations also revealed incompetency and negligence in the food industry. For example, food retailers did not know the exact content of the meat products they were selling. The British government argued that too much in the EU internal market was based on trust (Volkery, 2013). Above all, investigations showed that fundamentally, the weak link was a complex meat product supply chain involving numerous actors, at various levels, from all corners of the globe (BBC, 2013d).

Similarly, consumers and the general public blamed several parties for the scandal. Specifically, they blamed food manufacturers, manufacturing processes, the FSA and food retailers. For example, the first survey commissioned by the FSA and conducted by Harris Interactive (2013a) showed that 50% of participants believed that ultimate responsibility for the horse meat issue lay with food manufacturers/manufacturing processes. 12% of participants thought it lay with the FSA and 9% of consumers believed that food retailers were ultimately responsible. Consumers and the general public blamed the FSA for not doing their job, and food retailers for failing to sell correctly labelled beef products. Another survey, commissioned by the UK government and conducted by TNS BMRB in 2013, also indicated that some consumers believed that there had been a lack of due diligence, as well as oversight by local authorities, the government and food retailers, which allowed the issue to happen. For some, the key weakness was the food industry's profit-making motives.

3.3 The 2013 UK meat adulteration crisis: A trust failure

The crisis had various consequences, including a loss of consumer trust, financial consequences and policy changes for food retailers, food manufacturers, caterers and other stakeholders (e.g., consumers, the general public, investors). It negatively affected consumer trust in the implicated food retailers (Harris Interactive, 2013a, b; TNS BMRB, 2013; Which?, 2013a, c). A systematic decline in customers' trust toward retailers implicated in the scandal (e.g. Tesco, ASDA, Aldi and Lidl) was documented by three surveys commissioned by the Food Standards Agency and conducted by two reputable social research companies: Harris Interactive and TNS BMRB. For example, survey commissioned by The Food Standards Agency UK and conducted by Harris Interactional (2013) found that 67% of those who intended to buy less would do so because of lack of trust. In the second survey conducted six months later the figure was almost the same (66%). Furthermore, numerous comments on web pages (e.g. bbc.co.uk; Which?, 2013, b) also echoed these findings. For example, "I feel let down by people trusted to provide what I expect. I don't think I can shop without concern about what is in my food anymore." Female, aged 36, England (Harris Interactive, 2013 cited on the FSA, 2014). As I will show in the findings chapter, all consumers who participated in this study also experienced damaged trust in the implicated food retailers.

Relatedly, retailers' behaviour in the context of the horse meat scandal also hinted at damaged consumer trust. Retailers believed that by selling mislabelled products to customers they damaged their trust. For example, all implicated food retailers publicly stated that they knew that they lost consumer trust and that their top priority was to restore it (BBC, 2013). Damaged consumer trust in food retailers also frequently featured in newspaper headlines. For example, the *Telegraph*'s headline on 16th February 2013 read: 'Horse meat scandal: Supermarkets battle to regain trust' (*Telegraph*, 2013a). Implicated food retailers (e.g., Tesco, Asda) also started comprehensive trust repair activities (See appendix B for more details). In short, taken together, these trust repair activities represent the sense-making, relational, regulation and controls, and transparency approaches to trust repair (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015). (However, as I will show in the findings and discussion chapter these actions did not explain consumer trust recovery because most of these actions were, at the time, perceived by consumers as not sufficient for their trust recovery or were partly unnoticed by them.)

Damaged trust led some consumers to claim that they would change their buying behaviour and eating habits (BBC a, b, g, 2013 Harris Interactive, 2013a, b; TNS BMRB, 2013; Which?, 2013 b). For example, a survey conducted by Harris Interactive (2013a) documented that 40% of respondents claimed that they would buy more from butchers, 33% said they would buy less from supermarket chains and 46% said they would buy fewer value products. Taking a long-term view, 19% of people said that they would buy less red meat, 46% said that they would buy less processed meat and 52% said they would buy fewer ready meals. 37% of participants claimed to have recalled products at home, and 34% of people who had these products said that they would throw them away, 13% said they would return them and 33% said they would eat them. Some of these claims materialised, given that family butchers experienced up to a 50% increase in sales of sausages, mince and burgers. On the other hand, food retailers sold fewer frozen beef burgers and other beef products (BBC, 2013).

3.3.1 The nature of consumer trust violation

According to the trust repair literature, the act of retailers selling mislabelled products to customers can be interpreted as an organizational trust failure (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Gillespie and Dietz (2009: 128) defined such failure as: '... a single major incident, or

cumulative series of incidents, resulting from the action (or inaction) of organizational agents that threatens the legitimacy of the organization and has the potential to harm the well-being of one or more of the organization's stakeholders.'

Many consumers experienced damaged trust in the implicated food retailers because retailers were selling mislabelled meat products, which according to consumers happened because retailers operated within overly complex meat product food supply chains, which they did not have full control over. Therefore, they did not know exactly what kind of products they were selling.

The act of selling mislabelled beef products clearly represented a legitimacy issue because retailers' core mission and responsibility is to be transparent and knowledgeable about the products they sell. By legitimacy I mean 'generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions' (Suchman, 1995: 574). As Owen Paterson, the Environment Secretary, (BBC, 2013a) argued, 'people should have absolute confidence in what they are buying. The responsibility for that lies with the retailers, who need to be absolutely sure that what they're selling is what they think it is'.

Finally, the crisis had negative consequences for stakeholders. For example, consumers needed to search for alternative food and food retailers. Some changed their buying patterns and eating habits. As a result of the horse meat crisis, some consumers became vegetarians (Harris Interactive, 2013a, b, 2013; TNS BMRB, 2013).

Trust repair theory distinguishes between different types of trust violations (Kim et al., 2004, 2006; Kramer and Lewicki, 2010; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). In the context of implicated food retailers, the horse meat scandal constituted a massive ability-based organizational trust violation (Mayer et al., 1995; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Mayer et al. (1995) argued that ability is 'that group of skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a party to have influence within some specific domain'. The scandal revealed that implicated food retailers had increasingly complex meat product supply chains, which they did not have under control and which ultimately led them to sell mislabelled products. For example, Tesco admitted that their supply chain was too complex and had to be made simpler (*Guardian*, 2013c). Tesco CEO Philip Clarke stated: 'I have asked my team to

review our approach to the supply chain, to ensure we have visibility and transparency, and to come back with a plan to build a world class traceability and DNA testing system' (*Telegraph*, 2013b). In the wake of the scandal, they started changing their supply chains (e.g., changing suppliers; sourcing beef and other meat products from UK farms; building their own meat producing facilities) and began introducing newer, more stringent control systems. Other implicated food retailers also promised to change their supply chains. They announced improvements in their product testing (e.g., introducing more stringent and comprehensive food testing) and promised to make their supply chains simpler. These commitments and actions can be interpreted as an indication of retailers' ability issues. Similarly, consumers (including participants in this study) believed that implicated food retailers lacked appropriate and effective methods to audit their food suppliers, as well as food traceability and food control mechanisms that would allow them to prevent or identify mislabelled food – ability issues associated with retailers.

3.4 Chapter summary

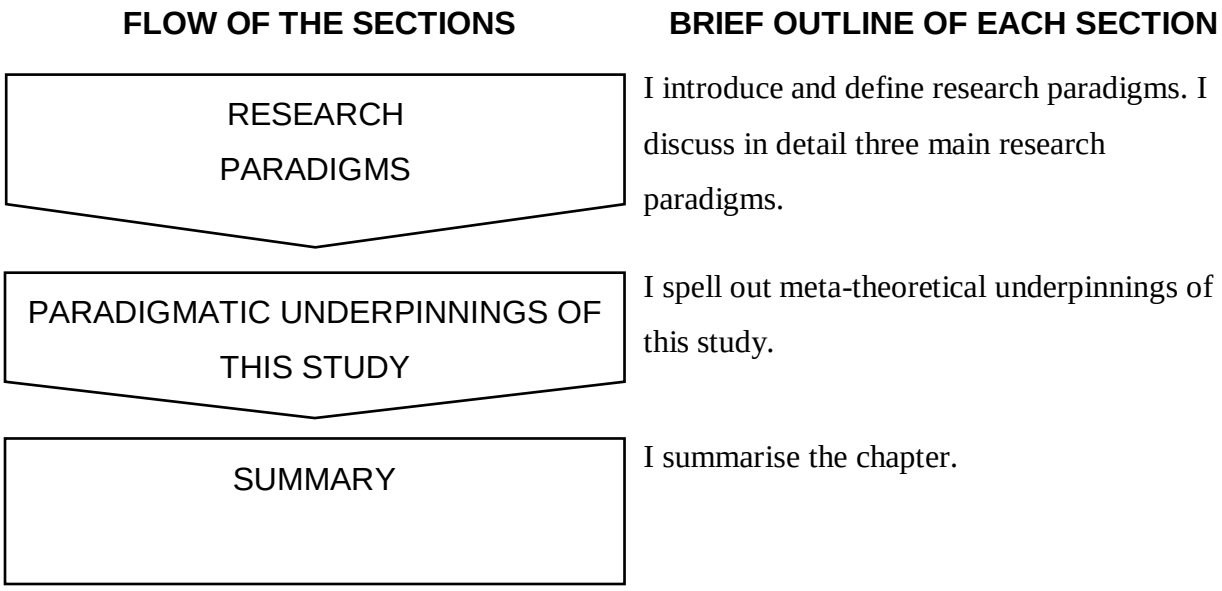
This chapter started by describing the 2013 meat adulteration scandal in the UK ("the horse meat crisis"). It showed that the scandal was a complex crisis involving various actors in the food industry and had various consequences for stakeholders; for example, it damaged consumer trust in implicated food retailers. Specifically, many consumers stopped trusting that the implicated retailers were selling correctly labelled beef products, because they relied on overly complex meat product supply chains which they did not have full control over. This ultimately resulted in retailers selling mislabelled beef products (i.e., an ability-based organizational trust violation). In the next chapter, I turn to the philosophy of social research. All research is underpinned and governed by philosophical assumptions. This has important implications for conducting research.

Chapter 4 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed empirical context of this study. This chapter discusses the philosophy of science and research in general, and the underpinning philosophical assumptions of this study. Miles and Huberman (1994: 4) argued that researchers must lay out their ontological and epistemological starting points: 'it is good medicine, we think, for researchers to make their preferences clear in order to clarify how the researcher construes the shape of the social world and aims to give us a credible account of it'.

Figure 4-1 Overview of chapter 4



4.2 Research paradigms

4.2.1 Definitions

All research takes place within a specific research paradigm (Blaikie, 2007; Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998; Johnson and Duberley, 2000). A research paradigm or theoretical perspective can be understood as 'the philosophical stance informing the methodology and thus providing a context for the process and grounding its logic and criteria' (Crotty, 1998: 3). Similarly, Blaikie (2007: 3) defined research paradigms as 'broad philosophical and theoretical traditions within which attempts to understand the social world are conducted. They provide different ways of making connections between ideas about the social world, the social experiences of people and the social world within which social life occurs' (Blaikie, 2007: 3). Lincoln and Guba (1994: 107) argued that research paradigms are 'a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deals with ultimate or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines for its holder the nature of the "world", the individual's place in it and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts'. Central to these conceptualisations of research paradigms is that they govern all research and consist of various assumptions.

At a paradigm's core are assumptions about the nature of reality (i.e., ontology) and knowledge (epistemology) (Blaikie, 2009; Crotty, 1998). Ontology is the study of being. Crotty (1998: 10) argued that ontology 'is concerned with "what is", with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such.' Not all researchers have the same view of reality. For example, Crotty (1998) distinguished between two opposing views: realism and idealism. On the other hand, Blaikie (2007) offered more fine-grained ontological conceptualisations. For him, a researcher can be a shallow realist, a conceptual realist, a cautious realist, a depth realist, an idealist or a subtle realist.

Epistemology concerns the nature of knowledge, that is, the theory underlying knowledge (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Crotty (1998: 3) argued that epistemology deals with questions about 'What human knowledge is, what it entails and what status can be ascribed to it. What kind of knowledge do we believe will be attained by our research? What characteristics do we believe that knowledge to have?' There are several possible answers to these questions of epistemology, including: objectivism, constructionism, subjectivism and their variants (Crotty, 1998). Objectivist epistemology 'holds that meaning, and

therefore meaningful reality, exists as such apart from the operation of any consciousness.' (p. 8). In other words, meaning resides in reality itself. Crotty (1998: 8) illustrated this with an example:

> '... [a] tree in the forest is a tree, regardless of whether anyone is aware of its existence or not. As an object of that kind ('objectively', therefore), it carries the intrinsic meaning of 'tree-ness'. When human beings recognise it as a tree, they are simply *discovering* a meaning that has been lying there in wait for them all along.' (My emphasis)

Alternatively, a subjectivist epistemology holds an opposite understanding of the nature of knowledge; namely, that there is no objective truth waiting to be discovered. Truth, or meaning, is a result of the researcher's engagement with the realities in their world. Meaning cannot exist without the mind, thus meaning is not discovered but constructed. Consequently, different people may construct meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon (Crotty, 1998; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). For example, in Western culture an object might be called a tree because this object's meaning was socially constructed as such. However, in different culture the same object might not be a tree but something else because people in this culture socially constructed the meaning of this object differently.

Epistemological issues are closely related to ontological issues. In other words, theories of knowledge are related to ontology because knowledge is always about something (i.e., about some reality). Some scholars argued that certain ontological and epistemological positions speak to each other. For example, Blaikie (2007) identified five pairs: Shallow realist–Empiricism, Conceptual realist–Rationalism, Cautious realist–Falsificationism, Depth realist–neo-realism and Idealist–Constructionism. However, such pairing may be problematic because it rules out other viable possibilities and may be misleading. For example, as Crotty (1998: 63) argued, constructionism in epistemology is 'perfectly compatible with realism in ontology'. Crotty (1998) observed that realism (ontology) is often taken to imply objectivism (epistemology), or is identified with objectivism (e.g., Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p. 108). However, Crotty (1998: 10), drawing on Heidegger and Merleau-Ponty, argued that such a view may not be appropriate, given that these interpretivist thinkers see reality as real. They frequently invoke a 'world always already

there'. In other words, 'accepting a world, and things in the world, existing independently of our consciousness of them does not imply that meanings exist independently of consciousness' (Crotty, 1998: 10). In other words, 'to say that meaningful reality is socially constructed is not to say that it is not real'. Therefore, 'constructionism in epistemology is perfectly compatible with a realism in ontology – and in more ways than one.' (Crotty, 1998: 63). He goes on to explain:

> It is no contradiction to say that something is socially constructed and also real ... [Drawing from an example from baseball he argued that] "Balls" and "strikes" are certainly socially constructed. They exist as such because of the rules of the game. Yet they are real. Some people are paid as much as $3.5 million to produce them or prevent their production! They are constructions, and may change in their nature tomorrow if the powers-that-be decide to change the rules, but they are real, nonetheless. (Crotty, 1998: 63-64 drawing on Fish, 1996)

Paradigmatic assumptions and thus research paradigms cannot be proven or disproven in any foundational sense (Guba, 1990). Consequently, there is no correct research paradigm and correct way of doing social research. In other words, there are numerous co-existing research paradigms. Social researchers should not search for ultimate epistemological standards, as they do not exist. Nor should they attempt to prove to a researcher from another "camp" that their approach might be the only "right" way of doing research (see the debate between Van Maanen and Pfeffer in *Organization Studies* in 1995, for example) (cited in Johnson & Duberley, 2000: 61). Rather, researchers should aim at maintaining consistency with regards to the theoretical assumptions they use (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Such consistency might be achieved or enhanced by awareness and understanding of various theoretical perspectives, and through a researcher's self-reflexivity.

However, a commitment to self-reflexivity itself is a matter of a researcher's theoretical assumptions. For example, a positivistic researcher might not perceive epistemic reflexivity as important or necessary given their beliefs about the theory-neutral, value-free nature of social research. Epistemic reflexivity refers to 'how a researcher's own social location affects the forms and outcomes of research as well as entailing acceptance of the conviction that there will always be more than one valid account of any research' (Johnson and Duberley, 2003: 1289). To quote Johnson and Duberley (2000: 182), 'Habermas […]

was largely correct when he accused positivist epistemology of serving to immunize positivism from epistemological self-reflection since one outcome of positivism's commitment to a theory-neutral observational language is to protect its adherents from epistemic reflexivity'. On the other hand, some other researchers recognise a need for epistemic reflexivity because they believe that there 'cannot be any a priory, independent, neutral or rational grounds' (Johnson and Duberley, 2000: 80). There is no theory-neutral observational language (Morgan, 1986). There is always a priori content of human mind (e.g., an observer's prior beliefs, sentiments, theories, background knowledge) anticipating and organizing sensory experiences.

4.2.2 Dominant Research Paradigms

The three most common paradigms in management research are positivism, post-positivism and interpretivism (Lincoln and Guba, 2000, 2005). Other paradigms included feminism, critical theory, postmodernism and their variants (Blaikie, 2007; Crotty, 1998). Table 4-1 summarises key characteristics of positivism, post-positivism and interpretivism. The table places the research paradigms in "boxes". However, it should be noted that research rarely takes place within only one paradigmatic "box", and often includes elements from different research paradigms (Charmaz, 2006). I now discuss fundamental characteristics/tendencies of positivism, post-positivism and interpretivism.

Table 4-1 Key characteristics of three dominant research paradigms

ISSUE	POSITIVISM	POST-POSITIVISM	INTERPRETIVISM
Ontology	Naive realism (Real reality but apprehendible)	Critical realism (Real reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendible)	Relativism (Local and specific co-constructed realities. Reality is socially constructed)
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist; findings true	Modified dualist/objectivist; Critical tradition/community; findings probably true	Transactional/subjectivist; co-created findings
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly quantitative methods	Modified experimental/manipulative; critical multiplism; falsification of hypotheses; also includes qualitative methods	Chiefly qualitative methodologies
Inquiry aim	Explanation: prediction and control		Understanding; reconstruction
Nature of knowledge	Verified hypotheses established as facts or laws	Nonfalsified hypotheses that are probable facts or laws	Individual and collective reconstructions sometimes coalescing around consensus
Knowledge accumulation	Accretion – "building blocks" adding to "edifice of knowledge"; generalizations and cause-effect linkages		More informed and sophisticated reconstructions; vicarious experience
Relationship to foundations of truth and knowledge	Foundational	Foundational	Antifoundational
Goodness or quality criteria	Conventional benchmarks of "rigour": internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity		Trustworthiness and authenticity including catalyst for action

Table 4-1 (Continued)

ISSUE	POSITIVISM	POST-POSITIVISM	INTERPRETIVISM
Inquirer posture	"Disinterested scientist" as informer of decision makers, policy makers, and change agents		"Passionate participant" as facilitator of multivoice reconstruction
Axiology	Researcher's biases need to be controlled and not expressed in the study		Individual values are honoured and are negotiated among participants
Control	Resides solely in the researcher		Shared between the researcher and participants
Ethics	Extrinsic – tilt toward deception	Intrinsic – moral tilt toward revelation	Intrinsic – process tilt toward revelation
Voice/reflexivity	Voice of the researcher principally; reflexivity can be considered an issue in objectivity		Voices mixed as co-creators with participants, reflexivity relies on self-awareness and critical subjectivity

Adapted from Guba and Lincoln (1994), Lincoln and Guba (2005), Lincoln et al. (2011), Creswell (2013), and Crotty (1998), Blaikie (2007)

Positivism

Positivism pertains to the classical view of science (Blaikie, 2007). It has dominated in the physical and social sciences for over 400 years (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Its historic legacy can be traced back to Aristotle (Grix, 2010), and it is associated with Francis Bacon, René Descartes, Auguste Comte and Émile Durkheim, among others (Hughes and Sharrock, 1997). Positivism was the most dominant paradigm of the last century and is frequently used as a "marker" against which other research paradigms seek to differentiate themselves (Grix, 2010). It has been described as "a received view" (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The positivist paradigm includes several varieties of positivism. For example, Halfpenny ([1982] 2014) claimed that there are twelve varieties of positivism. Outhwaite (1987) suggested that they can be reduced to three: Comte's positivism, logical positivism and the "standard view" in the philosophy of science which dominated the English-speaking world after the Second World War.

Table 4-1 (column 2) shows the key characteristics of this paradigm. As is evident from the table, positivism assumes objective reality. This has several consequences. One of positivism's key characteristics is phenomenalism; that is, the notion that scientific knowledge must be based on what the observer can perceive through his or her senses. Similarly, abstract concepts used in scientific explanations need also be derived from experience. This experience must be objective. Positivism assumes that the researcher and the object of inquiry are separate objects and that research can study it without influencing it or being influenced by it (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The participant should not be part of the inquiry; his or her biases must be controlled and not expressed in the study. He or she must have an empty consciousness (Blaikie, 2007). For positivists, the separation of facts and values is important. Only facts should be part of scientific knowledge.

The aim of inquiry is explanation, prediction and control (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Positivism assumes that in nature there are regularities or constant conjectures between events. In other words, events of one kind are always followed by events of another kind (Blaikie, 2007). According to positivists, the main aim of science is to establish laws which are general in scope and universal in form (i.e., they apply without exception across space and time), and can be used for explanation and prediction (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

Scientific knowledge can be true or false. It is true if it can be verified with reference to observations. Verification of scientific knowledge is fundamental to positivism. Positivism

applies scientific methods from natural science to the examination of human affairs. For positivist approach "scientific method" from natural science is the way of advancing scientific knowledge. Methodologically, researchers working within this paradigm chiefly employ quantitative methods which enable verification of scientific theories. To ensure objective, value-free scientific knowledge, positivist research conforms to conventional benchmarks of rigour: internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity.

Post-positivism

Post-positivism, also described as critical rationalism, developed as a critical response to some fundamental assumptions of positivism (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). For example, post-positivist criticism of positivism evolved around positivist's primacy of observations as foundations of scientific theories, "pure observations", inductive reasoning and verification of scientific knowledge. According to Blaikie (2007), its foundations were laid by William Whewell's *The Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences* (1847). Karl Popper is frequently cited as the father of post-positivism (Blaikie, 2007).

Table 4-1 (column 3) describes the key features of this paradigm. This paradigm assumes real reality which is only imperfectly and probabilistically understood (Lincoln et al., 2011). Post-positivism acknowledges the difference between natural and social sciences. However, post-positivism rests on the assumption that the method of inquiry is the same across both types of sciences (Blaikie, 2007). Post-positivism is underpinned by deductive reasoning. The aims of inquiry are explanation, prediction and control (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). However, the source of scientific explanation is not observation (i.e., sensory experience), as in the case of positivism, but rather constructions in the minds of scientists (Blaikie, 2007). Basic post-positivist assumption is that it is the researcher's who needs to invent testable scientific theories. Once developed, they should be tested against "reality". Here, researcher's aim is not to prove the theory (as in positivist paradigm) but to eliminate those that are not true. This approach is known as the "method of hypothesis", "method of falsification" or "hypothetico-deductive method" (Blaikie, 2007).The approach rests on post-positivist assumption that scientific theories cannot be proven if they are fact or absolutely true. So, the researcher's aim should be to get as close to the truth as possible by continuous testing of theories. Methodologically, post-positivists favour quantitative methods of inquiry, which enable theory testing. However, qualitative methods are also used within the post-positivist paradigm. Post-positivists and positivists share their desire

to achieve objective scientific knowledge. Thus, post-positivists try to control their biases, which should not be expressed in the study. The research process is governed by conventional benchmarks of "rigour": internal and external validity, reliability and objectivity.

Interpretivism

The interpretivism research paradigm was formed from various interpretivist approaches to social inquiry. For example, Grix (2010) defined interpretivism as an umbrella term, which includes, among others, symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, and hermeneutics. Interpretivism is often seen as a more recent approach than positivism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 2002; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012). However, interpretivism has its foundations in the Enlightenment. This paradigm gained its influence in the latter part of the twentieth century which corresponds with the moment of "blurred genres" (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994).

Table 4-1 (column 4) describes the key features of this paradigm. As is evident from the table, a central idea of interpretivism is that social reality is not objective but socially constructed. Therefore, it cannot be discovered, as is assumed by positivist and post-positivist researchers. Consequently, researchers working within the interpretivist paradigm often approach the subject of their inquiry by trying to understand participants' lived experiences from their viewpoint (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). In other words, the interpretivist social researcher focuses on what events and objects mean to people, how they perceive what happens to them and around them, and how they adapt their behaviour in light of these meanings and perspectives (Rubin and Rubin, 1995).

The assumption of subjective reality has an important epistemological implication. Unlike post-positivist researchers, interpretivist researchers do not use deductive logic of reasoning for knowledge construction. The interpretivist paradigm rejects the application of the method of natural science to social sciences. Knowledge/theory construction is underpinned by inductive or more realistically through abductive logic of reasoning. Charmaz (2006: 186) explained that this type of reasoning 'begins by examining data and after scrutiny of these data, entertains all possible explanations for the observed data, and then forms hypotheses to confirm or disconfirm until the researcher arrives at the most plausible interpretation of the observed data'. Knowledge (both lay and scientific) is not

objective and is not true in any ultimate sense. Consequently, interpretivism takes for granted that research cannot be objective and value-free because the researcher himself cannot escape the human meaning-making web, and is as "caught in it" as their research participants (Rabinow and Sullivan, 1979). Therefore, interpretivist researchers tend to be reflexive (Van Maanen, 1998; Locke, 2001).

The interpretivist paradigm stresses the importance of the researcher's participation in the research; they are "passionate participants" (Lincoln and Guba, 2005). This enables better understanding of the studied social reality, which helps researchers develop their constructions of the meaning systems of the participants they study (Schwandt, 1994; Locke, 2001). The researcher is seen as the co-creator or co-constructor of knowledge and shares control over the research with the research participants. Methodologically, the interpretivist paradigm is frequently related with qualitative research methodologies; however, it does not require exclusive use of qualitative approaches to social inquiry (Blaikie, 2007; Crotty, 1998). Interpretivist researchers use methods such as participant observations and semi-structured and unstructured interviews. The quality of interpretivist research cannot be judged by objectivist, positivist criteria, which do not fit into socially constructed reality. Rather, the interpretivist researcher should aim at trustworthiness criterion (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). This criterion includes four elements: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (for more details see the Methodology chapter, Section 5.3.4).

4.3 Situating this study

Guba and Lincoln (1994: 116) argued that 'paradigm issues are crucial; no inquirer, we maintain, ought to go about the business of inquiry without being clear about just what paradigm informs and guides his or her approach'. To position this study and to make explicit my own views about the nature of reality and knowledge, underpinning and governing this study, I engaged in in-depth reading about various research paradigms. In the process of self-discovery, which involved close reading of various books/texts about the philosophy of social sciences, and sensemaking, I worked out my ontological, epistemological and other paradigmatic assumptions. In summary, this study is underpinned and governed by the interpretivist paradigm. The interpretivist paradigm was discussed and summarised in the previous section. To avoid repetition I now lay out the interpretivist implications for this study.

To begin, I believe that social reality is socially constructed. Therefore, this study will not make claims about "discovering" knowledge/theory that is objective and true in an ultimate sense. Addressing my research question will require me to get close to the research participants and understand social reality from their perspective. Furthermore, I believe that knowledge is co-constructed with research participants and is not value-free. In other words, constructed knowledge will be a result of participants' and my interpretations. Methodologically, this study will employ grounded theory methodology with interpretivist assumptions. Key practices of grounded theory can be used within different research paradigms (Blaikie, 2007; Charmaz, 2006; Crotty, 1998); however, I will use one version of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006, 2014). This, one of three main grounded theory approaches, is underpinned and imbued with interpretivist assumptions. Knowledge construction will involve abductive reasoning (Peirce, 1878 [1958]). To ensure a high-quality research study, I will use popular criterion for conducting rigorous qualitative research proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) (see Methodology chapter, section 5.3.4 for more details).

4.4 Chapter summary

This chapter introduced and described research paradigms. It showed that research paradigms contain a set of specific philosophical assumptions/beliefs. Research paradigms underpin and govern all research. Analysis of texts on the philosophy of science led me to conclude that there are numerous co-existing paradigms, and that they cannot be proven or disproven in any fundamental sense. I described three dominant paradigms in business and management research: positivism, post-positivism and interpretivism. Based on in-depth study of the philosophy of social sciences, and reflecting on my personal beliefs and assumptions, I decided to situate this study within an interpretivist paradigm. The next section explores the research methodology of this study. In short, the research methodology guides the process of addressing my research aim.

Chapter 5 METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The main aim of this chapter is to explain what I did in order to address my research aim. In other words, this chapter is about my research methodology. This chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section introduces grounded theory methodology,[3] discusses its three main versions and discusses two misconceptions related with the methodology. I do this because grounded theory methodology guided my empirical study. The second section describes why and how I actually used grounded theory methodology. I discuss my sampling, data collection and analysis. The chapter finishes with a conclusion. Figure 5-1 provides an overview of this chapter.

[3] In its original form grounded theory methodology was called grounded theory. Grounded theory remains a popular label for this methodology. However, grounded theory also relates to the actual product of this methodology – theory that is grounded in collected data (i.e., grounded theory). To avoid confusion I used the term 'grounded theory' for the actual product (grounded theory) of this methodology. I used the term 'grounded theory methodology' when referring to the method of developing theories grounded in collected data.

Figure 5-1 Overview of chapter 5

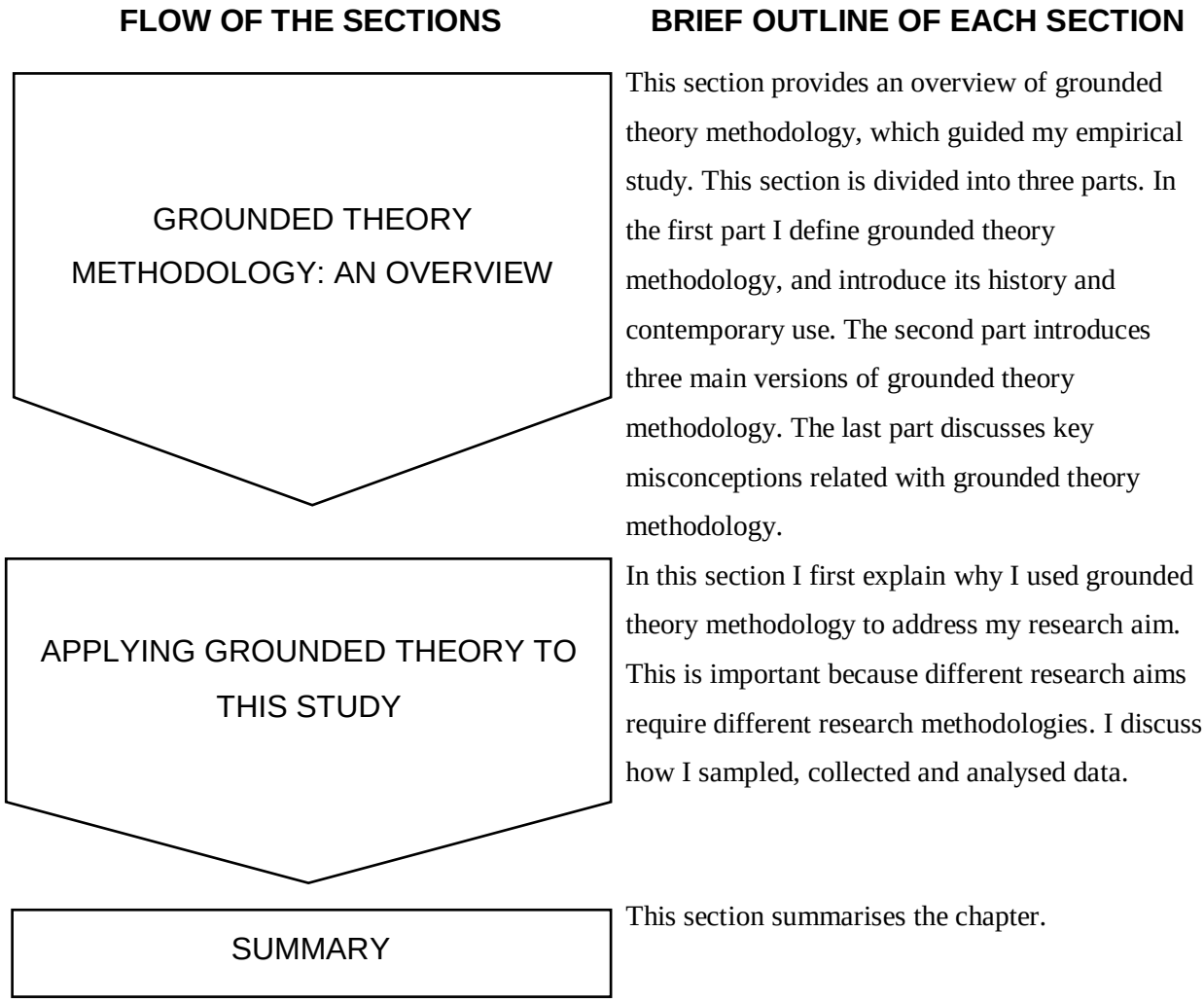
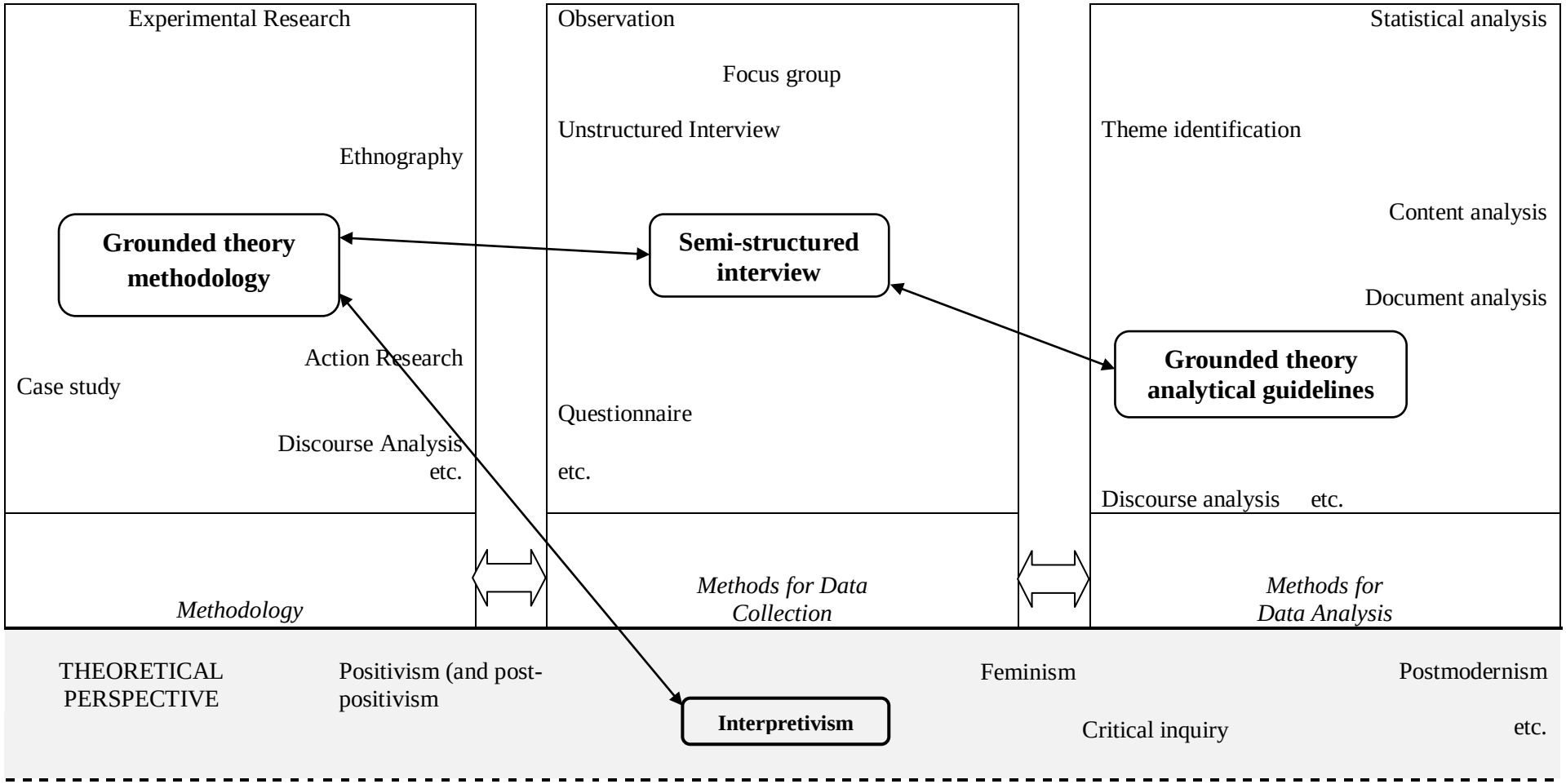


Figure 5-2 positions grounded theory methodology and shows its philosophical underpinnings in this study. The figure also shows data collection and analysis decisions made in this study (I discuss these in the second part of this chapter).

Figure 5-2 Methodological choices made in this study and research philosophy underpinning this study



Source: Based on Blaikie (2010) and Crotty (1998)

5.2 Grounded theory methodology: an overview

In this first section of this chapter I provide an overview of grounded theory methodology. First, I explain the origins of the methodology, define it, state its purpose and discuss its popularity. In the second part of this section, I discuss three main versions of grounded theory methodology. In the third section I discuss key misconceptions related with this methodology. I discuss this methodology because, as I will show in the second part of this chapter, I used it in my empirical study.

5.2.1 Origin, definition, use and popularity

In 1965, two American sociologists, Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss, studied people's awareness of dying. This study led to a methodology which, two years later, was published in the book *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research* (1967) (often called *The Discovery*) and became known as grounded theory. In short, grounded theory is a general methodology for developing theories that are grounded in collected data (Charmaz, 1988, 1990, 2006, 2014; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1994, 1998; Corbin and Strauss, 2008, 2014). For example, Charmaz (2014: 343) defined grounded theory methodology as 'a rigorous method of conducting research in which a researcher constructs conceptual frameworks or theories through building inductive theoretical analysis from data and subsequently checking their theoretical interpretations'. Glaser (1978: 164) defined grounded theory as '*a general methodology* for generating theory' (original italics). Strauss and Corbin (1994: 273) defined grounded theory as '*a general methodology* for developing theory that is grounded in the data systematically gathered and analysed' (original italics). However, there is less agreement about the outcome of grounded theory methodology – grounded theory. This problem is not confined to the grounded theory cannon. The key problem lies in various understandings of what theory actually is (e.g., Corley and Gioia, 2011; Sutton and Staw, 1995; DiMaggio, 1995; Weick, 1995). As Merton (1967, cited in Sutton and Staw: 1995: 371) noted:

> Like so many words that are bandied about, the word theory threatens to become meaningless. Because its referents are so diverse—including everything from minor working hypotheses, through comprehensive but vague and unordered speculations, to axiomatic systems of thought—use of the word often obscures rather than creates understanding.

In this study I understand theory as a set of concepts and relationships which explain phenomena of interest (Gioia & Corley, 2011; Whetten, 1989; Charmaz, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Glaser, 1978; Van de Ven, 2007).

Grounded theory methodology can be used for several purposes. The main and original purpose of grounded theory methodology is to develop theories, in an inductive/abductive fashion, from collected data. Therefore, it is the most potent methodology in situations where theory building is required because no prior theory exists, or where theories not grounded in the data might not be fully relevant (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). In addition, the methodology is useful for theory development in the context of previously developed theories. Here, grounded theory methodology can be used to extend existing theory and make it denser by filling in what has been left out (Strauss, 1970, cited in Locke, 2001: 103). The methodology can be used to study social phenomena across different social science disciplines (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Parts of this methodology can also be used for other research purposes. For example, a number of researchers have used several analytical procedures of grounded theory for their data analysis and not for theory development per se. These researchers were mainly interested in identifying and developing concepts or themes. Analytical memoing, a key grounded theory procedure, also found its way into studies which are not necessarily about theory building.

Today, grounded theory methodology is 'the most widely used and popular qualitative research methodology across a wide range of disciplines and subject areas' (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007: 1). Grounded theory methodology is also well established in the field of management research (Locke, 2001; Langley, 1999; Suddaby, 2006; Gioia et al., 2012). In the fields of marketing and consumer behaviour, reference to Glaser and Strauss (1967) features frequently in papers published in top ranking journals (Fischer and Otnes, 2008).At the time of writing, *the Discovery* (1967) was cited over 76,000 times (Google Scholar). However, not all of these studies actually perform/use grounded theory methodology. For example, Bryant and Charmaz (2007: 8) argued that 'far too many references to GTM [Grounded Theory Methods] fail to get much beyond a few slogans or mantras supposedly corroborated by reference to key texts, as if the rich detail and complexities magically flow from the latter.' Similarly, Suddaby (2006: 633) noted with some concern that '"grounded theory" is often used as rhetorical sleight of hand by authors who are unfamiliar with qualitative research and who wish to avoid close description or

illumination of their methods.' Fischer and Otnes (2008) made a similar observation about grounded theory within the field of marketing.

5.2.2 Three main versions of grounded theory methodology

Today, one cannot discuss grounded theory methodology as a single approach to grounded theory building. Since its introduction in 1967, the methodology has witnessed several additions and modifications (e.g. Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Glaser, 1978, 1992, 1998, 2005; Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1998; Corbin and Strauss, 2008). This has resulted in three main versions of the methodology. These are: (1) grounded theory, as per Barney Glaser, which is called classical, traditional or simply Glaserian; (2) evolved grounded theory, associated with Anselm Strauss and Juliette Corbin, and Adele Clarke; and (3) Kathy Charmaz's version of grounded theory (Chamberlain-Salaun et al., 2013). I now briefly outline Glaserian and Strauss and Corbin's versions, and offer a more detailed account of the Charmazian version, because it is particularly relevant for this study.

Glaserian version

In short, Glaser was the first to see the need to provide further written clarification to the grounded theory methodology published in 1967. This was done in the book Theoretical Sensitivity: Advances in the Methodology of Grounded Theory (1978). This book was seminal because Glaser built on the original explication of the methodology (1967) and filled out the missing analytical parts. For example, Glaser discussed how to do different types of coding, how to write analytical memos which enable the researcher to "grow the grounded theory", how to end the study with a written account of the theory (Locke, 2014) and how to integrate developed concepts into a theory using a number of theoretical codes (i.e., a theoretical templates). This made GTM easier to use. After this seminal book Glaser further explicated his version of the methodology (e.g., Glaser, 1992, 1998, 2005, 2008, 2011). For a summary of main characteristics of the Glaserian version of grounded theory methodology and its comparison with two other versions, see Table 5-1. As the table shows, the Glaserian version has several distinctive characteristics. According to Glaser, researchers are required to use the methodology relatively flexibly, which is close to how the methodology was originally explicated in *the Discovery* (1967). Within this approach even the research problem itself should come from data rather than being constructed by a researcher. Glaser's version of the methodology is underpinned by and imbued with positivist or post-positivist assumptions. The researcher is viewed as neutral and takes the

position of an outsider. The researcher should avoid "contamination" with the literature at all costs. He/she is warned that relevant literature needs to be consulted after a grounded theory has been developed. In Glaser's version of the methodology, concepts *emerge* from the data and the theory is *discovered* from collected data. Both terms are a reflection of positivist assumptions. The methodology stresses the importance of identifying one powerful explanatory core category (dependent variable). Analytically, Glaser's version involves three coding procedures (open, selective and theoretical coding), memoing, constant comparison, theoretical sampling, sorting and diagramming.

Table 5-1 Comparison of main characteristics of three main versions of grounded theory methodology

KEY ASPECTS OF GROUNDED THEORY METHODOLOGY	MAIN VERSIONS OF GROUNDED THEORY METHODOLOGY		
	GLASERIAN	*STRAUSS AND CORBIN*	*CHARMAZIAN*
Researcher's roles	Maintain distance and independence	Actively interrogate data	Co-create data
Researcher's aim	To discover theory from data	To develop theory from data	To construct theory from data
Theory	Emerges from the data itself	Arises from theorist/data interaction	Is constructed by the researcher
Ontology	Realist	Realist	Relativist
Epistemology	Objectivism	Objectivism/subjectivism	Subjectivism
Research paradigm	Positivism	Post-positivism/Interpretivism	Interpretivism
Pre-understanding	Implicitly assumes the possibility of no pre-understanding	Researcher as tabula rasa is not possible/desirable	Researcher as tabula rasa is not possible
Literature review prior to data analysis	No. Avoid relevant literature	Not problematic. Partial literature review somewhat encouraged because it increases the researcher's theoretical sensitivity	Not problematic. It can and often is done (e.g. research committee requirements)
Literature review post analysis	Yes. Important for integration of developed grounded theory into existing literature	Yes. Important for integration of developed grounded theory into existing literature	Yes. Important for integration of developed grounded theory into existing literature
Coding procedure	Open coding, selective coding and theoretical coding*	Open coding, axial coding and theoretical coding* **	Initial coding and focused coding

Table 5-1 (Continued)

KEY ASPECTS OF GROUNDED THEORY METHODOLOGY	MAIN VERSIONS OF GROUNDED THEORY METHODOLOGY		
	GLASERIAN	*STRAUSS AND CORBIN*	*CHARMAZIAN*
Flexibility of the researcher	High	Low. Researcher should follow/apply rules and procedures (e.g. coding paradigm). However, the third edition of the book by Corbin and Strauss (2008) is less prescriptive and the fourth edition (Corbin and Strauss, 2015) moved even closer to the Charmazian version of the methodology	High. Grounded theory consists of heuristics and flexible guidelines

* These are not the same

** From 2008 onwards, open coding, axial coding and selective coding no longer appear as distinct procedures

Sources: Charmaz (1990, 2005, 2006, 2014), Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1994, 1998, 2014), Corbin and Strauss (2008), Glaser and Strauss (1967), Glaser (1978, 1992, 2006)

Strauss and Corbin's version

Strauss and Corbin's version of grounded theory was first published in *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* (1990). This work was rooted in Strauss's past practical work and written accounts of qualitative data analysis (Strauss, 1987). This version of grounded theory was developed further by both authors together and by Juliet Corbin alone (e.g., Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Corbin and Strauss, 2014). For a summary of this version of grounded theory methodology and its comparison with two other versions, see Table 5-1. As is evident from Table 5-1, this version of grounded theory is largely underpinned by realist ontology and more objectivist epistemology. It is located between post-positivist and interpretive theoretical perspectives. However, later books on the method moved closer to interpretivist paradigm. For example, in the third edition of the book *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* (Corbin and Strauss 2008), Corbin and Strauss (p. 2) explicitly stated that 'this methodology's [their version of grounded theory methodology] epistemology has come to it in a two-step evolution, involving both the tradition of Chicago Interactionism and the philosophy of Pragmatism inherited largely from John Dewey and George Mead'. The two most notable differences between this and other versions of the methodology relate to how one should conduct a grounded theory study and what procedures should be used to develop grounded theory. When comparing Strauss and Corbin's earlier texts on grounded theory methodology with what Barney Glaser and Kathy Charmaz said about the methodology, one gets a feeling that researchers need to follow a number of prescribed procedures if they wish to develop a grounded theory. It seems that there is no room for flexibility. The procedures include a number of questions and tactics to conceptualize the data. Glaser commented that this forces the data. This analytical difference between Glaser's seminal book (1978) and Strauss and Corbin's work (1990) played a key role in the birth of two different versions of grounded theory methodology. Glaser even argued that Strauss and Corbin's (1990) work is no longer grounded theory but a new methodological approach (2006). In addition, Strauss and Corbin's version is relatively heavy on specific terminology which needs to be fully understood in order to use this version of the methodology. Prescriptive flair and rich jargon are perhaps collateral outcomes of Strauss's desire to show novice researchers how to develop a grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006; Locke, 2001). However, in later editions of this version of the methodology, it becomes less prescriptive. Relatedly, early versions of this approach

required a very active role from researchers. Glaser criticized that Strauss and Corbin (1990) want that the researcher to interrogate (Glaser, 1992) their data and not follow the dictum of data emergence (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978). This version of the methodology also has a distinctive approach to data analysis. Strauss and Corbin proposed open, axial and selective coding. They also advocated that researchers use, for data integration, a conditional matrix. No other version involves axial coding. One coding paradigm is also a reflection of Strauss's commitment to symbolical interactionism. However, their later version of the methodology (2008) merges open and axial coding and does not require the use of a conditional matrix. For Strauss and Corbin, the researcher's exposure to existing theorizing is not problematic as long they do not force their data into pre-selected concepts.

Charmazian version

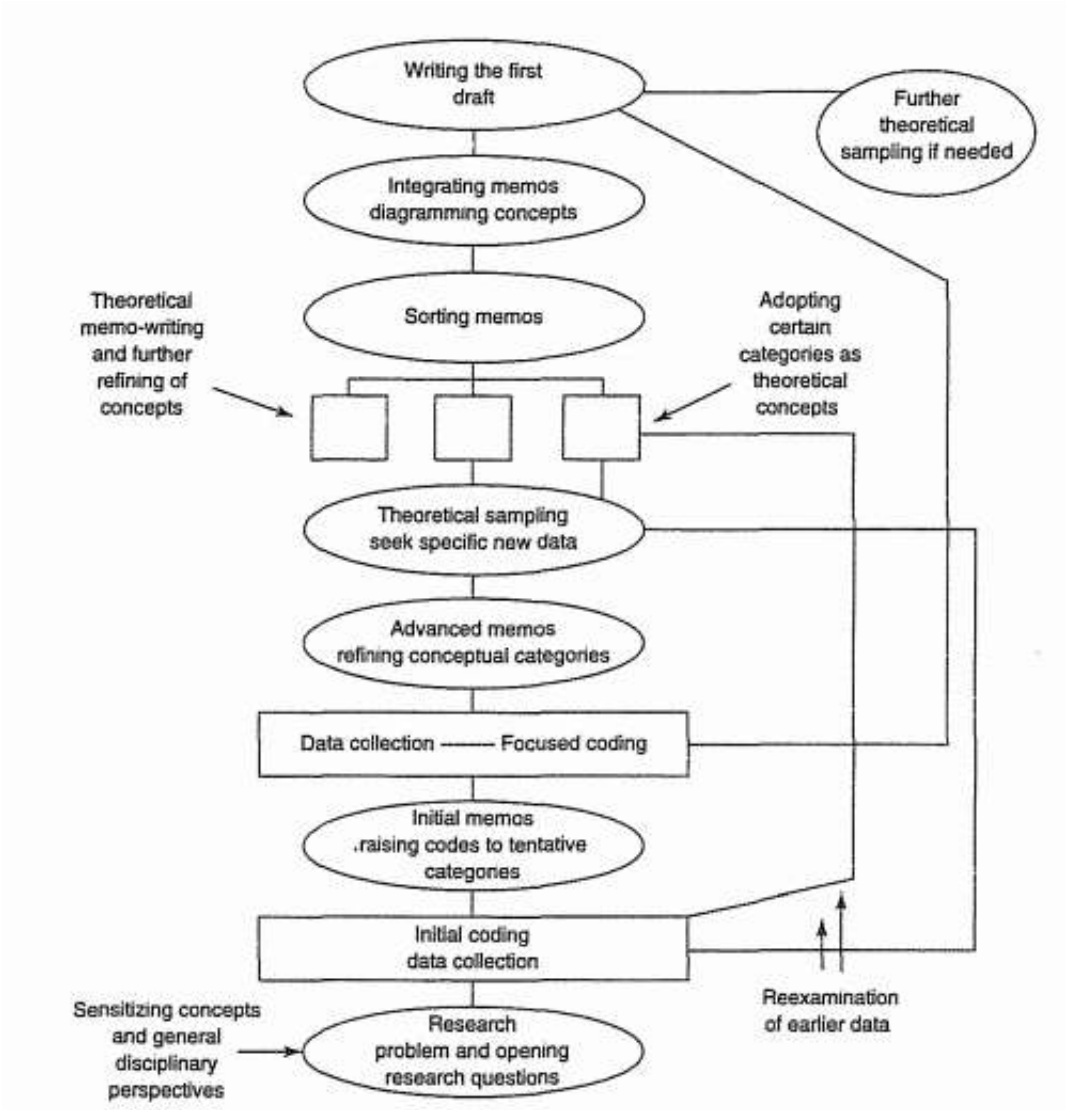
A third version of grounded theory was developed by Kathy Charmaz. She was a student of Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss. Charmaz's version of grounded theory first appeared in the *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). However, this work was rooted in Charmaz's prior papers on the methodology (e.g., 1998, 1990). It needs to be noted that Charmaz's grounded theory was based on seminal texts (e.g., Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978). After Charmaz's seminal text *Constructing Grounded Theory: A Practical Guide through Qualitative Analysis* (Charmaz, 2006), she further explicated the methodology (e.g., Charmaz, 2014). For a summary of this version of grounded theory methodology and its comparison with two other versions, see Table 5-1.

As is evident from Table 5-1, this version of grounded theory differs from both other versions of the methodology. Charmazian grounded theory is underpinned and imbued with interpretivist assumptions. For example, Charmaz (2014: 342) adopted 'methodological strategies such as coding, memo-writing, and theoretical sampling of the original statement of the method but shifts its epistemological foundations and takes into account methodological developments in qualitative inquiry occurring over the past fifty years'. It is firmly located within an interpretivist theoretical perspective. This gives this version of the methodology its distinctiveness. The researcher is encouraged to take an insider view. He/she constructs grounded theory. Charmaz adopted a relatively flexible approach to grounded theory. Here, grounded theory procedures are at the researcher's disposal, to be used as flexibly as desired. She is not concerned with "the right" way of

using the methodology (Charmaz, 2015). For her, grounded theory procedures are heuristic devices and not rule-like procedures which can be mechanically applied. For example, Charmaz (2006: 2) argued, 'The guidelines offer a set of general principles and heuristic devices rather than formulaic rules.' Grounded theory methodology is 'based around heuristics and guidelines rather than rules and prescriptions'. The researcher's experiences in using GTM are important. This stands is in stark contrast with the Glaserian version and early versions of Strauss and Corbin's texts (e.g., Strauss and Corbin, 1990) on grounded theory methodology.

An important difference between Charmaz's grounded theory methodology and other versions of the methodology lies in coding procedures. This version of the methodology includes only two coding procedures (initial and focused coding), compared with three in the other two versions. However, other analytical procedures (e.g., memoing, theoretical sampling, diagramming) are closer to the Glaserian version of the methodology than early versions of Strauss and Corbin's approach. For Charmaz the researcher's exposure to existing theorizing in the field is not seen as problematic as long he does not force existing ideas onto his data. This is similar to Strauss and Corbin's approach, and stands in stark contrast to the Glaserian version. Because I used the Charmazian version of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006, 2014), I will now discuss in greater detail its key analytical procedures for collecting and analysing data. Figure 5-3 situates them in the overall research process.

Figure 5-3 Charmazian grounded theory methodology/process



Source: Charmaz (2006: 11)

As is evident from the figure 5-3, key analytical procedures include constant comparative logic of data analysis, initial data collection, initial and focused coding, memoing, theoretical sampling (i.e., data collection for the purpose of developing focused codes), sorting and diagramming. I now briefly discuss each in turn.

Constant comparative method

Figure 5-3 shows that various grounded theory procedures are related to each other in a process. While the figure shows that this process is relatively linear, actual data analysis is highly recursive and iterative (Charmaz, 2006, 2014). This is a consequence of the analytical logic that underpins the methodology – constant comparative logic. Constant comparison means 'a method of analysis that generates successively more abstract concepts and theories through inductive processes of comparing data with data, data with code, code with code, code with category, category with category, and category with concept' (Charmaz, 2014: 342). As such, constant comparison is not an analytic procedure per se but an underpinning analytical logic for performing grounded theory methodology. Constant comparative method is key to grounded theory methodology. It operates at all times (at all stages of analysis).

Initial data collection

Within grounded theory methodology it is assumed that researchers know procedures for data collection. Charmaz provided some guidelines. In principle, all kinds of data collection methods can be used; however, observations, un-structured and semi-structured interviewing and analysis of text are the most popular. Before researchers can start collecting data, they must identify appropriate data sources. To develop a grounded theory about a phenomenon of interest, a researcher needs to collect relevant data. In the early stages of grounded theory study, researchers can collect some data that are relevant for understanding the phenomenon under study. The key here is to use the principles of purposeful sampling.

Coding: initial coding and initial codes

Charmaz uses two coding stages: initial coding and focused coding. Initial coding is the first stage of coding. Charmaz (2014: 343) defined initial coding as 'an early process of engaging with and defining data. Initial coding forms the link between collecting data and

developing an emergent theory to understand and account for these data. Through coding, you *define* what is happening in the data and begin to grapple with what it means' (original emphasis). The most common form of grounded theory initial coding involves coding each line of text (i.e., line-by-line coding). Line-by-line coding is 'a form of initial coding in which the researcher assesses what is happening in each line of data and what theoretical ideas it suggests' (Charmaz, 2014: 343); it is considered a "gold standard" in the grounded theory methodology cannon. Coding at such a micro level is beneficial because it reduces the possibility of overlooking important theoretical insights about the phenomenon of interest and helps push the researcher away from any pre-conceptions. The products of initial coding are initial or open codes. There are several guidelines which can help the researcher make analytical sense of the data in initial line-by-line coding. For example, coding should stick close to the data. The researcher should ask neutral, analytical questions, such as What do I see happening in the data fragments? What does the data suggest? What is happening in these data? What are these data a study of? Charmaz also encourages researchers to code with gerunds, to remain open to all possible meaning and to move quickly through the data. When researchers construct some strong initial codes to pursue, they move to the second stage of coding, called focused coding. This does not necessarily mean that initial coding stops.

Coding: focused coding and focused codes

Focused codes are central to grounded theory because they represent its building blocks. Researchers need focused codes; there are two ways of creating these. First, the researcher may identify some initial codes as more important or frequent, and may decide to elevate them to focused codes. In this way, initial codes directly become focused codes. Second, the researcher can code initial codes, thereby constructing focused codes. In other words, the researcher might have developed numerous relatively descriptive initial codes. He or she can then compare and group them based on their similarities, and then ask: What story does a specific set of these initial codes indicate? The answer becomes a focused code. When a researcher has a set of focused codes, he or she enters into the second coding stage, called focused coding. Charmaz (2014: 343) defined focused coding as 'a sequel to initial coding in which researchers concentrate on the most frequent and/or significant codes among their initial codes and test these codes against large batches of data.' Here, the aim is to examine the relevancy of focused codes and develop them fully. This means that for each focused code the researcher is looking for additional indicators which would

indicate different, not yet identified properties or dimensions of the focused code. It is in this phase that the researcher starts to sample theoretically (see below). The researcher also starts to look for potential relationships between developing focused codes.

Memo-writing

Memo-writing is 'the pivotal intermediate step in grounded theory between data collection and writing drafts of papers' (Charmaz, 2014: 343). Memos 'record your path of theory construction' (Charmaz, 2014: 164). Memo writing is 'the methodological link, the distillation process, through which the researcher transforms data into theory' (Lempert, 2007, cited in Charmaz, 2014: 164). When research writes analytical memos he/she stops and analyses his or her ideas about constructed codes and, further in analysis, about emerging categories. Memo-writing is predominantly used for constructing theoretical categories. It is also used for thinking about possible relationships between emerging categories, the researcher's gaps in theorising and the usefulness of a specific category. There are no prescriptions for how to write memos. However, researchers are encouraged to stop and memo immediately when they have an idea about their codes, and to keep the memos in chronological order. Researchers should write increasingly analytical memos. Memo-writing takes place throughout the analysis.

Theoretical sampling

Theoretical sampling is a fundamental practice within grounded theory methodology. The aim of theoretical sampling is theory development. It needs to be noted that there are various understandings of theoretical sampling (Charmaz, 2006). Theoretical sampling is 'a type of grounded theory sampling in which the researcher aims to develop the properties of his or her developing categories or theory, not to sample randomly selected populations or to sample representative distributions of a particular population' (Charmaz, 2014: 345). Because theoretical sampling needs to be guided by constructed categories, it cannot start at the beginning of the grounded theory study. At the beginning of the study the research still does not have any codes. These will be conceptualized during initial coding phase.

Theoretical saturation

Theoretical saturation is another well-known concept within qualitative research. However, there are various understandings of the concept. For some, theoretical saturation refers to

the point in data analysis when incoming data reveals the same stories (Charmaz, 2006, 2014, 2015). However, this is not theoretical saturation as defined in grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Glaser, 1978; Strauss and Corbin, 1990). In grounded theory methodology theoretical saturation 'refers to the point at which gathering more data about a theoretical category reveals no new properties nor yields any further theoretical insights about the emerging grounded theory' (Charmaz, 2014: 345). Theoretical saturation is about saturation of focused codes. There are no more empirical instances suggesting additional property of the focused code, which is part of constructed theory. Theoretically saturated focused codes are dense and fully developed. Theoretical saturation determines the size of the sample because it tells the grounded theorist when they can stop collecting data. Similarly, statistical inferential theory tells the quantitative researcher how many participants must be included in empirical study to be able to generalise to a population. Grounded theorists should aim to achieve fully developed focused codes. Recall that theoretical saturation is a heuristic device (Charmaz, 2004, 2014); or, as Locke (2014) noted, there is only "practical saturation" – a point at which the researcher achieves an in-depth understanding of the studied phenomenon.

Theoretical sorting and diagramming

Through initial line-by-line coding, the researcher takes apart the collected data. Through subsequent analysis he weaves them back together in a grounded theory about the phenomenon of interest. Theoretical sorting and diagramming is a useful technique which helps the researcher integrates his analysis. Theoretical sorting 'gives you a logic for organizing your analysis and a way of creating and refining theoretical links that prompts you to make comparisons between categories' (Charmaz, 2006: 115). Diagramming (e.g. maps, charts, and figures) helps visualize constructed conceptual categories and their relationships. Through diagramming, researchers can develop visual images of developing theory. I now turn to the third and final part of this section, where I discuss key misconceptions related with grounded theory methodology.

5.2.3 Key misconceptions related with grounded theory

This section clarifies two of the most popular claims "thrown" at grounded theory methodology from researchers working in other methodological traditions or from within the community of grounded theorists (Charmaz, 2006). These two misconceptions are: no literature review should be conducted prior empirical study and that grounded theory is

positivistic. I recognize that this discussion is socially constructed and paradigmatically dependent; therefore, for some, discussed misconceptions are not misconceptions (for more details see Bryant and Charmaz, 2007).

Misconception # 1: No literature review before empirical study is allowed

The place of the literature review in grounded theory research has long been both disputed and misunderstood. (Charmaz, 2006: 165) Seminal texts on grounded theory methodology (e.g. Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978) involve the idea that researchers need to perform a literature review after finishing the empirical study. The key idea here is that the researcher needs to "protect" himself from becoming "contaminated" by prior theoretical ideas. For example, Charmaz (2006: 165) noted that 'the intended purpose of delaying the literature review is to avoid importing preconceived ideas and imposing them on your work. Delaying the review encourages you to articulate *your* own ideas' (original emphasis). Since then the seminal works, as a result of developing views on ontology and epistemology, this view became difficult to sustain (e.g., Berger and Luckmann, 1966). In other words, the increasing influence of the interpretivist paradigm and subjective epistemology makes it challenging to defend a position of objective knowledge. This influenced several grounded theorists to explicitly recognize that for a researcher starting his/her study as a tabula rasa (i.e. blank slate) is not possible (e.g., Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1998, 2008, 2015; Locke, 2001).

The recognition that researcher cannot start research as a tabula rasa became a main reason for today's largely accepted view on doing a literature review prior to empirical study. For example, Strauss and Corbin (1990: 56) noted that 'all kinds of literature can be used before a research study is begun [...] we read and use published materials during all phases of the research...' Similarly, Charmaz (2006: 166) explicitly argued that if a researcher was exposed to existing theories before the analysis, which because of research requirements is often the case, he/she 'can let this material lay fallow until after you have developed your categories and the analytic relationships between them.' Urquhart (2012) argued that in a literature review which precedes empirical study, the researcher should examine existing theories in the research area and how other researchers may have addressed aspects of the research problem. However, a researcher doing a literature review before empirical study should not become locked into it. For example, Strauss and Corbin (1990: 56) reminded researchers that 'categories and their relationships must be checked against your primary

data. You can use all types of literature judged as relevant, but must guard against becoming a captive of any of them.' Similarly, Suddaby (2006: 635) explained that 'the real danger of prior knowledge in grounded theory is not that it will contaminate a researcher's perspective, but rather that it will force the researcher into testing hypotheses, either overtly or unconsciously, rather than directly observing.' Strauss and Corbin, and Charmaz, provided, in their texts on grounded theory, advice on how researchers should guard against this.

On the other hand, Glaser's (1992, 1998, 2006) position on prior knowledge is somewhat ambiguous (Charmaz, 2006). According to Charmaz (2006: 165), 'he continues to imply that the grounded theorist can and should keep themselves uncontaminated by extant ideas. Yet in *Theoretical Sensitivity* (1978), Glaser speaks about possessing prior knowledge in his discussion of theoretical codes. Theoretical codes refer to potential forms of grounded theories'. Charmaz (2006: 72) pointed out that he writes, 'it is necessary for the grounded theorist to know many theoretical codes in order to be sensitive to rendering explicitly the subtleties of the relationships in his data'. Charmaz (2006: 72) asked 'how do we know these codes if they have not become part of our repertoire? And if they have, would we not know something of the major works from which they are derived?' For Glaser, the literature review should be conducted after grounded theory is developed. However, in a troubleshooting seminar (Glaser, 2012), Glaser said that literature review can be performed prior to analysis, but it will be is useless because developed grounded theory will lead to different literature.

Misconception # 2: Grounded theory is positivistic

The second misconception is about paradigmatic underpinnings of grounded theory. Grounded theory is often seen as being positivist (Charmaz, 2006). However, this view does not recognize that grounded theory methodology is independent from paradigmatic assumptions underpinning research (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser, 1978; Crotty, 1998). For example, Charmaz (2006: 177) argued that 'grounded theory gives us analytic tools and methodological strategies that we can adopt without endorsing a prescribed theory of knowledge or view of reality'. Similarly, Strauss and Corbin (1990: 31-32) argued that grounded theory methodology 'can be used by persons in any discipline or theoretical orientation desirous of developing a grounded theory'. However, how it is used within specific parading differs. For example, grounded theory methodology can be positivistic if

the methodology is underpinned by positivist assumptions (e.g., the Glaserian version of grounded theory methodology). It can be interpretivist if the researcher approaches the study with interpretivist assumptions (e.g., the Charmazian version of grounded theory methodology). So, while grounded theory can be positivistic, it can be equality interpretivist, for example.

This ends the first section of this chapter. In this section I first discussed the origins, definition, use and popularity of grounded theory methodology. Then I turned to the methodology itself, and discussed three main versions. I briefly discussed Glaser's and Strauss and Corbin's version of the methodology. Then, I turned to the third version – Charmaz's grounded theory methodology. I reviewed this version in detail because it is used in this study. I outlined the process of Charmazian grounded theory methodology and described its key analytical procedures. In the last part of this section I discussed two misconceptions related with grounded theory methodology in general. I now turn to the second part of this chapter, where I discuss the application of Charmazian grounded theory in this study.

5.3 Applying grounded theory methodology in this study

In this section I first explain why I used the Charmazian version (2006, 2014) of grounded theory methodology to sample, collect and analyse data. Then I show how I actually sampled, collected and analysed data.

5.3.1 Reasons for using the Charmazian version of grounded theory methodology

Methodology needs to fit the research aim (Creswell, 2013; Crotty, 1998; Taylor and Bogdan, 1998). As shown in the literature review chapter, my aim was to build theory inductively that would explain unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization, which was an underexplored phenomenon. Before I started my empirical research, I examined a number of research methodologies. My aim was to find a methodology that would show me how to develop a theory from collected data. I identified several methodologies for theory building from data. These included several versions of grounded theory methodology (e.g. Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978, 2006; Strauss and Corbin, 1990; 1998, 2008, 2014), theory building from case studies (e.g., Eisenhardt, 1989) and others (see Langley, 1999, for example). I found

that grounded theory methodology is a methodological approach that closely fits my research aim. Also, a grounded theory methodology is 'extremely useful' in studying phenomena involving change (Corley, 2015: 601). Unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery involves change in consumer trust. In addition, it is a rigorous methodology for inductive theory building with extensive advice on how to use it.

There are several versions of the methodology (see the first section of this chapter); for several reasons I decided to use the Charmazian version (Charmaz, 2006, 2014) to provide a structure and a set of procedures to guide my empirical research, including designing the study, sampling and data collection, and data analysis. This version is imbued with interpretivist assumptions. This was useful because I approached this study with similar paradigmatic assumptions. In addition, Charmaz's version of grounded theory draws on classical grounded theory texts (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978), thus avoiding many of the later disagreements between Glaser and Strauss. In addition to Charmaz's writings on grounded theory, I used advice from other interpretivist grounded theorists within the field of management. Two scholars had a particular influence. Dennis A. Gioia, an influential organizational identity scholar, and his colleagues showed how to convey to others that a study was conducted rigorously. Two techniques were especially notable. First is the data structure, which is a visual device that shows the grounding of focused codes. The second technique pertained to conceptual tables, which further demonstrated how developed concepts are grounded in the "raw" data. Both techniques were employed in this thesis. Karen Locke, a reputable management scholar, provided valuable advice about the practicalities of using grounded theory methodology.

5.3.2 Sampling and data collection

To develop a theory of unconscious and conscious trust recovery inductively, I needed to find participants who had experienced unconscious and conscious trust recovery in an organization. These participants could then provide me with empirical data about their trust recovery, which I would use for theory building. This is purposeful sampling. Patton (1990: 169) argued that 'the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research [...]'. When I started this study, such an approach was risky, because it was contingent on finding relevant consumers.

Initially, I started searching for consumers with relevant experiences. My search was random but also involved snowball sampling, as I searched for consumers using social media, and asked them to identify other consumers who would be willing to participate and had relevant experience of trust recovery. I assessed whether consumers had experienced unconscious trust recovery[4] by analysing transcribed interviews for the un-prompted data that related to consumer pre, during and post trust violation experiences of trust. In addition, I asked consumers about the nature of their pre-, during and post-trust violation trust in a food retailer as they experienced it in their daily lives. I would like to note that consumers experienced unconscious and conscious trust recovery in relation to several food retailers, including Tesco, ASDA, Aldi and Lidl. However, consumers most frequently discussed their unconscious and conscious trust recovery in relation to Tesco – a food retailer with the biggest market share in the UK (Kantarworldpanel, 2016).

I assessed whether consumers had experienced conscious trust recovery in an organization by gauging their trust at three time points. Specifically, I followed prior research (e.g., Fulmer and Gelfand, 2009; Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow, 2006; Sørensen, Hasle and Pejtersen, 2011) and assessed levels of consumer trust in an organization before, during and after a scandal using a Likert scale with a single item: "How much do you trust food retailers to sell you beef products which are fit for consumption/correspond with the label?" The scale ranged from 1 to 10 (1 = not at all; 10 = completely). To corroborate this data I also used qualitative data from the interviews where consumers explicitly mentioned or indicated their trust recovery. In addition, I interpreted consumer risk-taking in relationships (i.e., buying food) as a potential behavioural manifestation of their trust in a food retailer (Mayer et al., 1995). However, I do acknowledge that buying food is not necessarily a manifestation of trust (Rousseau et al., 1998). Appendix C provides data that

[4] At the beginning of this study I only focused on conscious consumer trust recovery. However, during interviews I realised that consumers also talked about their trust pre-, during and post-scandal, which did not fit with conscious trust recovery. I realized that these instances involved pre- and post-scandal consumer trust that had habitual or routine-like characteristics (i.e., consumers were not aware of it) (see the Introduction for a definition of unconscious consumer trust recovery that involves this kind of consumer trust). Therefore, I started focusing on unconscious trust recovery after initial few interviews. In light of this finding I also revisited all previous interviews.

relate to unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer. Taken together they show that participating consumers experienced unconscious and conscious trust recovery in an organization.

I collected relevant data using semi-structured interviews, which involved a set of guiding questions. Semi-structured interviews were useful because they enabled participants to "tell their stories" (Morse, 2001: 4). I conducted interviews using principles of cognitive interviewing (Fisher and Geiselman, 2010; Memon and Bull, 1991). The main reason for using cognitive interviewing was to reduce the limitations of retrospective interviewing. There is evidence that cognitive interviewing is superior to other interviewing techniques for retrieval of historical data (Fisher and Geiselman, 2010). This type of interviewing enhances participants' memory and enables better retrieval of remembered information (Fisher and Geiselman, 2010; Memon and Bull, 1991). I used several so-called retrieval mnemonics, which are organized around three basic psychological processes: cognition, social dynamics and communication (Fisher and Geiselman, 2010). These mnemonics include various principles which should be used during interviews. Specifically, to encourage context reinstatement, I asked participants to remember where they were when they heard about the scandal. I told them that I was there to learn from them and that I expected them to do most of the talking. To develop rapport, in the first fifteen minutes of the interview we talked about issues unrelated to the study. I encouraged participants to provide extensive and detailed answers, and asked them about the same topic from different perspectives (for example, chronologically forward and backward) to ensure multiple retrievals. Participants were asked to talk about their own experiences, and were told that there was no need to rush and that they did not need to speculate if they did not know an answer. Throughout the interview, I encouraged participants' active participation.

In addition to these mnemonics, I also used the metaphor of a "road map" and asked participants to describe how they arrived at recovered trust. In general, when I sensed that participants were talking about unrelated things I asked them to clarify how these things were related, if at all, with their trust recovery. To further develop concepts, I eventually added additional interview questions (Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Locke, 2001).

I initially interviewed 10 participants who experienced both types of trust recovery. In total, I collected data from 31 participants. Interviews lasted between 40-70 minutes each. The size of the sample was determined by theoretical saturation (Charmaz, 2006, 2014). As

such, theoretical saturation indicated that I could stop collecting data. Around my 21nd interview I sensed theoretical saturation (Locke, 2001). I conducted additional ten interviews to see if developing theory of unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery explained their trust recovery.

Fifty-nine percent of the participating consumers were female. Most participants were in their late twenties or early thirties, lived in Scotland and were white. The participants' nationalities included: American, Belgian, Bulgarian, Canadian, Chinese, Dutch, French, Italian, Polish, Portuguese, Scottish, Singaporean, Slovenian and Ukrainian. Interviews were conducted at various locations for participants' convenience, including my office at the University of Glasgow, the University of Glasgow Main Library, the Fraser Building at the University of Glasgow and via Skype, from my home office.

I digitally audio recorded each interview, as well as taking notes, and transcribed all interviews verbatim using a non-commercial version of Express Scribe. Interviews were played at 63% of their actual speed and automatically paused every few seconds. Less understandable parts were repeated several times. The transcribed interviews were checked against the voice recordings. I added in any omissions. Each hour of interview took, on average, six hours of transcribing. In total, the transcription process yielded over 500 pages (MS Word) of interviews.

I also gathered documents (e.g. news articles, published surveys) and information pertaining to the horse meat scandal from various web sites. Specifically, I gathered data from: The FSA, The BBC News Horse Meat Scandal, Tesco, ASDA, Waitrose, The Co-operative, Aldi, Lidl, The British Retail Consortium (BRC), Harris Interactive, TNS BMRB, Ipsos MORI, Kantar Worldpanel, Which?, the BBC, the *Financial Times*, the *Guardian* and the *Telegraph*. These data were used solely for developing a descriptive story about the scandal, which served as a background context to the empirical study (reported in the Empirical Context chapter). Use of several sources also enabled me to corroborate events and actions about the horse meat scandal.

5.3.3 Data analysis

Following advice from Charmaz (Charmaz, 2006, 2014), I started my data analysis after my first interview. I started coding each line of text (i.e. initial, line-by-line coding). I used line-by-line coding as a heuristic device (Charmaz, 2006). At times, the "line" was a full

sentence or part of a sentence. At times some data fragments were greater or smaller than a line, to capture the idea expressed. I looked at each line of text and though about what it might indicate. I asked myself, 'what is happening in the data fragment? What does the data fragment express?' (Charmaz, 2006, 2014), which helped my conceptualization process. I coded each fragment with a name that captured my interpretation of what it indicated. During this process I was constantly comparing each line of text that I was currently coding with already coded lines of text. When I noted that a current line of text indicated the same concept as some previously coded line, I gave it the same label as the previous line(s).

As I coded, I also recorded ideas which arose during this process (this is memoing). I wrote memos, in various forms, throughout my study. Once I finished coding my first interview transcript I had more than 60 different initial codes. To push my analysis to a more abstract level, I compared all the initial codes (Charmaz, 2006, 2014, 2015; Locke, 2001). I asked what larger story this group of concepts suggested (Charmaz, 2014, 2015). This strategy enabled me to develop several clusters of more abstract codes. I gave each cluster a label which captured the meaning of all subsumed initial codes.

Shortly after, I revisited my first interview transcript and recoded it using the same procedure as described above. This was necessary because I was still not very confident in my coding. The result of my second round of coding was that while most of my initial codes remained similar, I did change the labels of some codes. In similar analytic fashion, I coded my next nine interview transcripts. However, there were three additions/differences in my coding. First, with increased confidence in my coding, I stopped with the full re-coding of each interview. Second, while coding, I compared each line of text with already coded lines in the transcript and with coded lines of text in all previously coded interviews. This enabled me to integrate data from different interviews. Third, as I progressed with my analysis, I started to use in-progress focused codes to analyse data (this is focused coding). As these codes captured large parts of incoming data, new initial codes became fewer.

After coding ten interviews I ended up with ten in-progress focused codes, several initial codes which did not fit into those ten categories and a number of analytical memos, including my analytical ideas about my data, codes and tentative relationships between them. Armed with in-progress focused codes, some open codes, tentative relationships and several theoretical ideas captured in my memos, I proceeded with the previously described

analytical process. However, there was a significant twist. I started to focus my data collection and analysis more on in-progress focused codes and their potential relationships. This is theoretical sampling. With new incoming data, my aim was to further develop my in-progress focused codes. At this stage I did more memoing and my writing became more abstract compared with the start of my data analysis. I reorganised, merged and subsumed some memos on focused codes. Eventually, I revisited my coded interview transcripts to check if there were data that could provide information about my focused codes and their relationships. I found additional relevant information. Through comparison of my codes with the data, data with the codes, and codes with codes, I was able to make my conceptual analysis more abstract. I ended up with six focused codes and developed relationships between them. The reduction in focused codes from ten to six happened because of increasingly abstract analysis. Focused codes and relationships accounted for majority of collected data. Eventually (around 21th interview) I did not found new data that would provide me with novel insights about my focused codes and their interrelationships. In other words, I reached (practical) theoretical saturation (Charmaz, 2066. 2014; Locke, 2014). They were central to explanations of the consumer trust recovery in an organization. To assist in data analysis, I used NVivo 10 software for qualitative data analysis. The software allowed me to keep all data in one place and to have a sense of control over it. In addition, I was able to import data fragments into memos and diagram tentative relationships between concepts. Most importantly, NVivo 10 gave me flexibility in re-naming and re-grouping already developed codes. In sum, NVivo 10 was especially useful as a data management tool.

This ends my discussion about data sampling, collection and analysis. To sum up, in this section I showed that I used principles of purposeful sampling to identify participants who experienced trust recovery in an organization. I showed that I used semi-structured interviews, underpinned by the principles of cognitive interviewing, to limit some of the problems of retrospective interviewing. I progressively collected data from 31 relevant consumers, transcribed the interviews and used analytical procedures of grounded theory methodology to develop grounded theory that explained their trust recovery in an organization.

5.3.4 Ensuring rigour of this study

To ensure rigour of this study I needed to find relevant quality criteria that would provide guidelines and principles for conducting qualitative research (e.g., establishing the research phenomenon, literature review, conceptual work, methodology, use of methods for data collection and analysis, findings/evidence, and the style and type of writing). I identified several similar and fundamentally different quality criteria (e.g., Charmaz, 2006; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln et al., 2011; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016). I identified the two most popular and widely used quality criteria in qualitative research: conventional benchmarks of "rigour" that include internal and external validity and internal and external reliability, and objectivity (e.g., Bryman and Bell, 2011; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln et al., 2011); and the trustworthiness criterion proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), which includes credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability (e.g., Lincoln and Guba, 1985, 1994; Lincoln et al., 2011).

Reasons for this plurality of quality criteria included disciplinary, evidentiary or aesthetic issues (Charmaz, 2006) and the co-existence of different research paradigms. In addition, there is no general agreement as to which criteria are appropriate for performing and evaluating qualitative research, and there is even a lack of agreement that this is a problem (Howard-Grenville, 2016).

I decided to use the quality criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985) because they were aligned with the interpretivist philosophy underpinning this study and were frequently used by qualitative researchers, including grounded theorists working within this paradigm (e.g., Bryman and Bell, 2011; Corley, 2004; Corley and Gioia, 2004; Gioia et al., 2010). These criteria parallel conventional benchmarks of "rigour" that are appropriate quality criteria for quantitative and qualitative research underpinned by positivist/post-positivist assumptions (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln et al., 2011).

In short, credibility (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) means that research needs to be carried out according to the good practice of qualitative research. Researchers should seek confirmation of collected data from members of the social world who were studied (i.e., respondent or member validation). I ensured this by audio recording interviews and asking participants for clarifications of transcribed interviews. I read each interview transcript

several times. This enabled me to develop a close familiarly with the data. I explicitly told participants that I was interested in their experiences and not their opinions and speculations about consumer trust recovery. I followed all required steps in grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 2006, 2014), including initial and focused coding, memo writing, theoretical sampling and theoretical saturation. All developed concepts are grounded in a number of empirical indicators (empirical data). In addition, developed concepts and theories cover a wide range of empirical observations. In other words, the concepts and both developed grounded theories can capture the majority of collected data about recovery of consumer trust in an organization. As a chain of evidence for my developed focused codes, I used a data structure (Gioia et al., 2012) that shows grounding of each focused code. I also use tables with exemplary empirical data that show the reader a complete trail of developing focused codes (i.e., they link empirical data with focused codes). Both analytical devices enabled me to show to the reader how I 'got from 3600 pages of field notes to the final conclusions' (Miles and Huberman, 1984, cited in Eisenhardt, 1989: 539). All theoretical claims are supported with exemplary empirical data. I also presented my findings to several research participants. They felt that the developed theoretical ideas closely represented their actual experiences of trust recovery in an organization. In addition, they felt amazed when they realised how easily their trust was recovered (i.e., unconscious trust recovery). Finally, I also provide quantitative and qualitative evidence of consumer trust recovery (Appendix C).

Transferability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) refers to the applicability of qualitative research findings to other contexts. Because qualitative research generally has less transferability than quantitative, qualitative researchers must describe, in detail, the empirical context of the study. This can help others judge if the findings apply to other contexts based on similarities between both contexts. To address this criterion I described the empirical context in which trust damage and recovery took place (see Chapter 3).

Dependability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) requires researchers to adopt an "auditing approach". This means that all phases of the research process are documented. To ensure this I did the following: (1) I wrote a research diary where I recorded my methodological and analytical steps and analytical ideas; (2) I audio recorded all interviews and transcribed them verbatim in such a way that participant's confidentiality was protected; (3) all empirical data were managed using NVivo 10 software; (4) I conducted data analysis using NVivo 10 software, which enabled accurate records of initial and focused coding.

Confirmability (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) means that a researcher conducts their study in good faith. This means that the researcher does not purposefully impose his ideas/theoretical inclinations on research participants, and does not manipulate participants' stories, data and findings. To ensure this I made sure that transcribed interviews accurately represented participants' accounts. In addition, on several occasions I recoded empirical data. I also asked generative questions and initially coded transcribed interviews line-by-line. This practice helps prevent the manipulation of empirical data and purposeful imposition of the researcher's theoretical ideas on the data (Charmaz, 2006).

5.4 Chapter summary

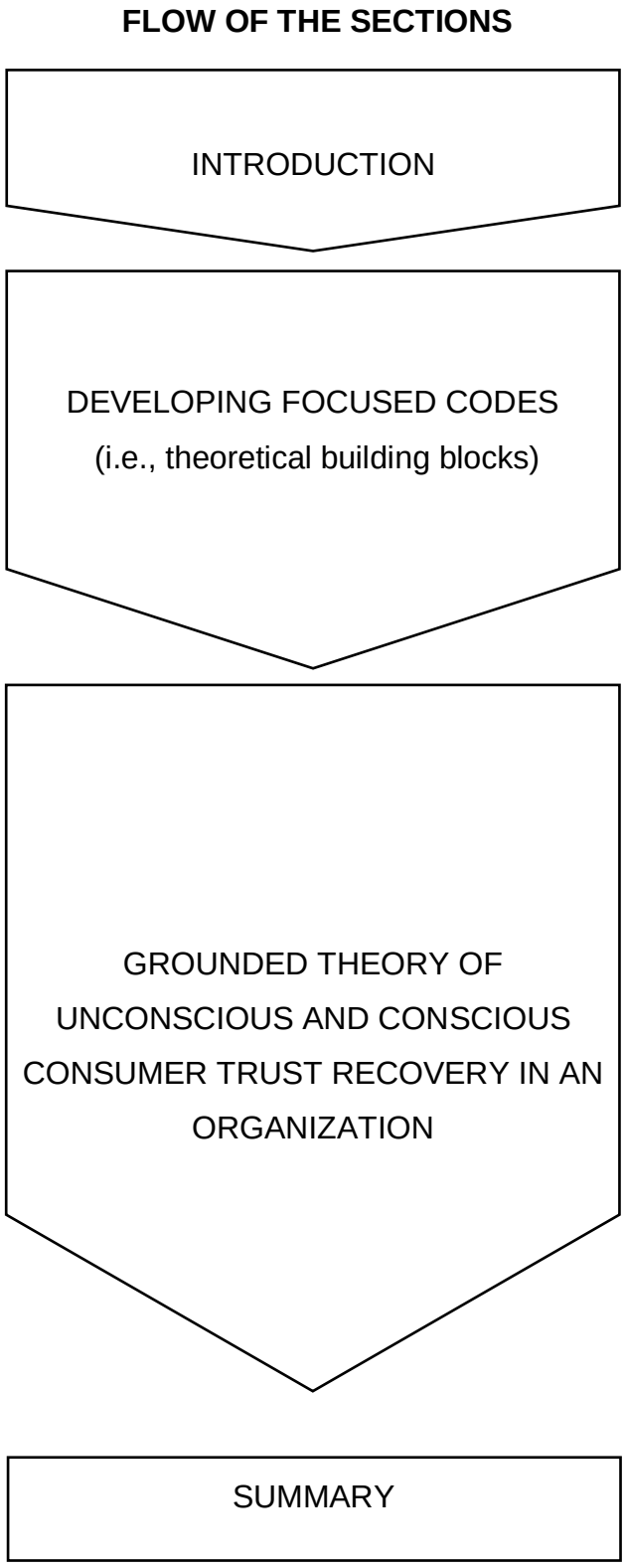
The researcher's aim should determine what type of research methodology is appropriate for conducting an empirical study. A number of methodologies are available to researchers who want to build theory from data; one is grounded theory methodology. There are several versions of this methodology. Because of my interpretivist assumptions I decided to use the Charmazian version of grounded theory methodology (Charmaz, 2006, 2014). Traversing analytical steps of this methodology, in highly recursive and iterative fashion, enabled me to develop two grounded theories which explain unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization.

Chapter 6 FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter showed what I did in order to address my research aim. In this chapter I present the findings, which addressed my research aim. This chapter is divided in two main parts. The first part relates to six developed concepts which were central to explanation of unconscious or conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. These are the theoretical building blocks. Without them, theory building is impossible. The second part of this chapter reports two grounded theories. I show how the developed concepts relate to each other and to my phenomenon of interest – unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery. One group of developed concepts represents causal factors that explain unconscious or conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization (i.e., trust recovery antecedents). The other group of concepts represents underlying mechanisms that explain why/how trust recovery antecedents lead to unconscious or conscious consumer trust recovery. In other words, they open the "black box" between the explanans (trust recovery antecedents) and the explanandum (unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization). The chapter finishes with a conclusion. Figure 6-1 provides an overview of this chapter, with comments.

Figure 6-1 Overview of chapter 6



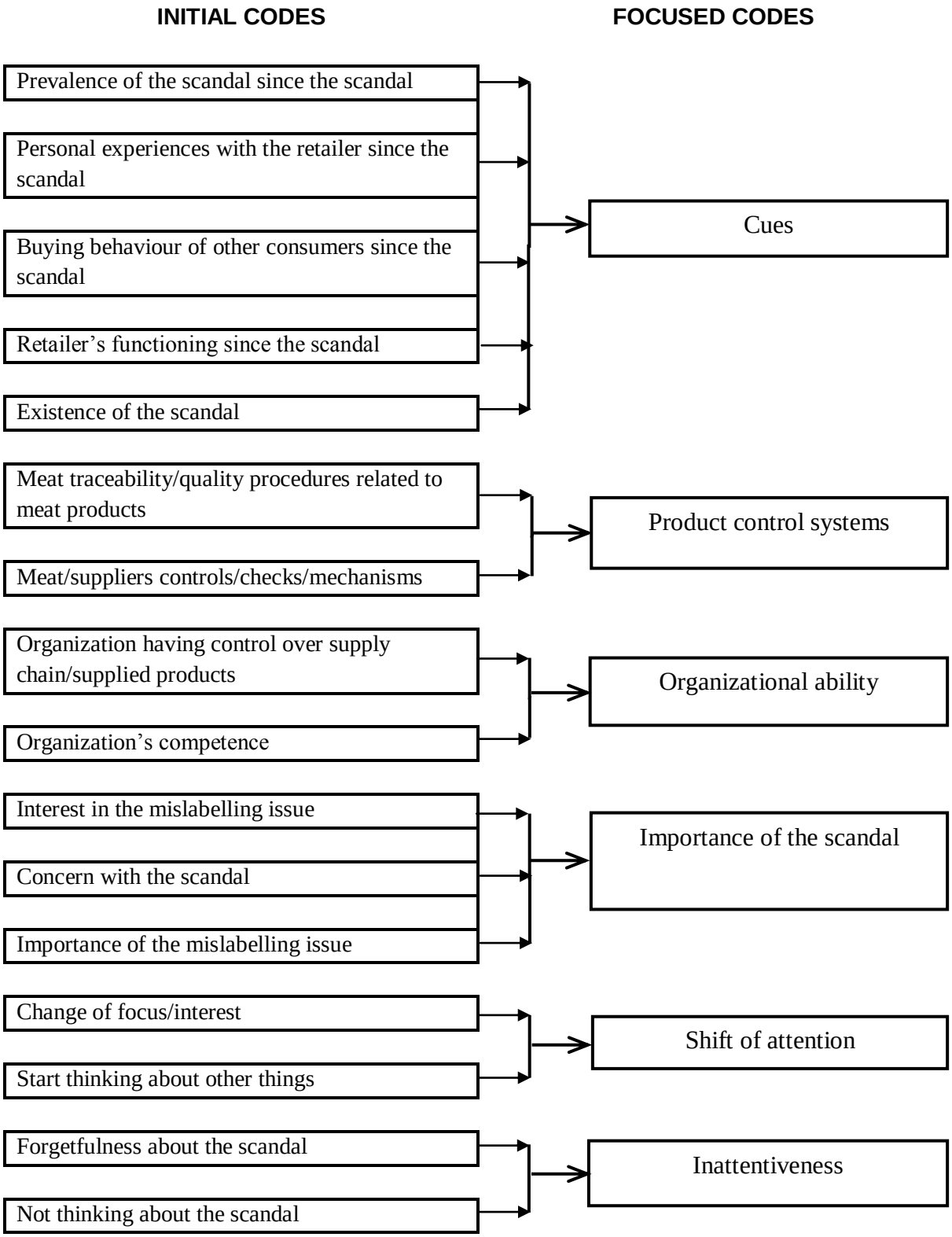
6.2 Concepts central to unconscious or conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization

This first section of the findings is related to six developed focused codes (concepts) that were relevant to unconscious or conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. In other words, together, these focused codes led to the construction of two grounded theories. One explains unconscious while the other explains conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. Both grounded theories are articulated after this first section of the findings. In this section I use three data displays to demonstrate how I developed these concepts and how they are grounded in empirical data: a data structure (Figure 6-2) that shows the progressive development of focused codes; Table 6-1, which illustrates, using exemplary data, the grounding of developed focused code cues in empirical data; and Appendix D, which offers exemplary data for the empirical grounding of the remaining five developed focused codes. After this I discuss each focused code in turn.

Using principles of grounded theory methodology, I developed, from collected empirical data, six focused codes or concepts that were central to unconscious or conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. These were: cues, product control systems, organizational ability, the importance of the scandal, shift of attention, and inattentiveness. I need to note that I use the terms focused code and concept interchangeably – both represent a theoretical building block from which I developed both grounded theories (reported in the second section of this chapter).

Figure 6-2 shows the structure and ordering of the data from less abstract initial codes to six more general focused codes or concepts. For example, the figure shows the development of focused code cues from several less abstract initial codes. These were the prevalence of the scandal since the scandal; personal experience with the retailer since the scandal; buying behaviour of other consumers since the scandal; the retailer's functioning since the scandal; and the existence of the scandal. I would like to note that Figure 6-2 is not a causal theoretical model but a representation of the focused codes and their development.

Figure 6-2 The data structure



While the data structure shows how I developed six focused codes from less abstract initial codes, it does not show the data that underlie them. Table 6-1 shows this for one developed concept named cues, and hence provides additional supporting data which should demonstrate to the reader that I progressively developed this focused code from collected data. For the purposes of clarity and fluidity in my findings narrative, I report exemplary data that substantiate the remaining five focused codes in Appendix D.

For example, the table 6-1 lists several exemplary quotes, including:

> Nothing like that happened again ... it hasn't happened since (Consumer 13)
>
> ...repeat incidents haven't occurred. If like 6 months after the first one there haven't been the second occurrence (Consumer 11)
>
> Since then it has been a couple of months after and I have never heard anything bad about this anymore (Consumer 18)
>
> Tesco never came in the spotlight again regarding horse meat (Consumer 19)
>
> Not hearing about that over the last, I don't know maybe over the last year... It is no longer in the news ... there is no news (Consumer 10)
>
> [...] things have calmed down and it is not in the news anymore... I think not seeing it in the media, not hearing about it (Consumer 22)

On the left hand-side of these exemplary data stands "Prevalence of the scandal since the scandal". This is an initial code which subsumed the meaning of all five exemplary quotes. Below this initial code and all corresponding exemplary data are four additional initial codes and their corresponding exemplary data, also included under the focused code cues. Each of these four additional initial codes also subsumed my interpretation of corresponding exemplary data. Similar to the data structure (see Figure 6-2) table 6-1 shows that the focused code cues captured my interpretation of all five initial codes. Taken together, this example shows the progressive development of focused code from collected data. It also demonstrates that focused code cues was developed from the data (i.e., they are "grounded"). Additional exemplary data supporting my theory development appears throughout this chapter.

Table 6-1 Representative quotes and initial codes underlying focused code cues

FOCUSED CODE CUES	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Prevalence of the scandal since the scandal	Nothing like that happened again ... it hasn't happened since. (Consumer 13) ...repeat incidents haven't occurred. For example, like 6 months after the first one there hasn't been the second occurrence of the scandal. (Consumer 11) Since then it has been a couple of months after and I have never heard anything bad about this anymore. (Consumer 18) Tesco never came in the spotlight regarding horse meat again. (Consumer 19) Not hearing about that over the last, I don't know maybe over the last year... It is no longer in the news ... there is no news. (Consumer 10) [...] things have calmed down and it is not in the news anymore... I think not seeing it in the media, not hearing about it. (Consumer 22) Tesco did not do anything else to screw it up. (Consumer 15) ...they did not sell horse meat recently. They sold it a while ago now (Consumer 3) There were no new scandals. (Consumer 26) [...] with the passage of time, because they did not seem to make the same or similar mistake twice. (Consumer 11) There was no new scandal. (Consumer 25) There was just this one scandal. (27)
Personal experiences with the retailer since the scandal	I have experience and I have survived all the beef products I bought from them ... I saw that this looks like beef and that this is fine ... time has passed and I have gone there and I have seen that everything is fine, so this was the check for me. (Consumer 13) You go to Tesco and they give you services they always gave you in the first place. (Consumer 22) I am using their minced meat and it has a good taste. (Consumer 24)

Table 6-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE CUES (continued)	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Personal experiences with the retailer since the scandal (continued)	I ate the products after the scandal and I did not notice anything wrong. I am sure I would know if I have been eating horse meat... (Consumer 27) Tesco's mince beef tasted OK. (Consumer 7) All was good with all the products bought from Tesco. (Consumer 4)
Buying behaviour of other consumers since the scandal	I don't think I saw any people not going to Tesco anymore, or that their sales had a huge decline. I don't recall it (Consumer 2) You see that there are just as many customers as before the crisis (Consumer 24) Other people were going to Tesco as well (Consumer 13) Other people are buying as before the scandal (Consumer 24) Things are back to normal (Consumer 22) People are buying like before the scandal (Consumer 27)
Retailer's functioning since the scandal	They would not have survived [...] they would not be in the market (Consumer 13) The store still operates (Consumer 25) The company is still in business (Consumer 24) They are still in business (Consumer 1) Well, I see that they are still in business. They are actually the biggest food retailer as far as I know (Consumer 27)
Existence of the scandal	...it was all across the media and newspapers and stuff like that (Consumer 19) They failed (Consumer 13) If you get caught as a supermarket with something going wrong (Consumer 8)

Table 6-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE CUES (continued)	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Existence of the scandal (continued)	The scandal happened. (Consumer 20) It is whatever something like that happens... [referring to the scandal] (Consumer 13) If the company just been, just been found out to be selling horse meat... (Consumer 3) It happened. The scandal happened. (Consumer 22) I just thought probably that it happened once (Consumer 3) They have failed once (Consumer 23) But now retailers have been found out (Consumer 14) there was a scandal and this is positive (Consumer 24)

Taken together, figure 6-2, table 6-1 and appendix D show the progressive development of the six concepts and provide evidence of their grounding in collected data.

Until now, I showed six focused codes that were central to consumers' experiences of their unconscious or conscious trust recovery in an organization. I also showed that each focused code was progressively developed from collected empirical data. Now, I discuss each focused code.

6.2.1 Cues

Consumer stories about their trust recovery in an implicated food retailer frequently involved mentions of various events and things that happened or did not happen after the scandal initially occurred. I captured these data with the following initial codes: prevalence of the scandal since the scandal; personal experience with the retailer since the scandal; retailer's functioning since the scandal; buying behaviour of other consumers since the scandal; existence of the scandal (for exemplary quotes of these initial codes see Table 6-1). I would like to note that these initial codes involved specific values. Consumers experienced no re-occurrence of the scandal, and they had positive experiences with the retailer since the scandal. They saw that the retailer was still in business, that other consumers were shopping with the retailer and that in the past the retailer had been involved in the scandal. Based on my comparative analysis of these initial codes, I realised that they all shared one similarity: an indication of a hidden quality which consumers could not directly observe. This directly unobservable quality was the organization's product control systems. Specifically, all the above mentioned specific values of initial codes were indicators of organizations' improved product control systems. I developed a concept that captured this idea, central to all initial codes, with the concept labelled cues. So, cues are things that can indicate some hidden quality. Another important defining characteristic of cues was that they were not produced with the intention to influence consumers. For example, "prevalence of the scandal since the scandal" (e.g., no re-occurring scandals) was a thing that an organization did not intentionally communicate to consumers in order to influence them. It was consumers themselves that identified and used this event as an indicator of an organization's unobservable quality.

My data analysis indicated that cues were based on consumer past experiences, beliefs and assumptions about how things are and how they work. These assumptions/experiences were fundamental. Consumers used their experiences to recognise specific things or events as cues. In other words, an observable thing can only be interpreted as a cue of a particular unobservable quality when a person has particular past experiences, beliefs and assumptions which enable him/her to make that interpretation. To illustrate: a person can use colour (cue) to infer the temperature of water (individual's inference/perception). This person might believe that a blue colour indicates cold water, while red indicates hot water (individual past experience, background knowledge). In this study, each cue was based on various consumer past experiences, beliefs or assumptions.

Let me give two examples. First, the cue "prevalence of the scandal since the scandal" was based on the following consumer past experiences or beliefs: consumers believed that organizations would have numerous scandals, among others if it does not have an appropriate product control systems. Their experiences and beliefs were that effective/improved product control systems go together with no scandals over a period of time (e.g., one-and-a-half years). In case of the existence of the scandal in the past consumer experiences and beliefs were that people change when there is a scandal. As Consumer 24 said, 'I assume that if there was a scandal that the retailer would try to improve itself ... If there is a scandal you change.'

6.2.2 Product control systems

In their stories about their trust recovery in implicated food retailers, consumers frequently referred to various organizational practices, including checks and balances, rules and regulations for ensuring product quality. I termed these data product control systems. I used initial codes which captured these experiences of trust recovery to develop a concept called organizations' product control systems. Based on the analysis of data subsumed by this concept (see Appendix D for details), I noticed that consumers understood organizations' product control systems as a bundle of organizational practices which involved regular lab testing of products and close monitoring of suppliers. According to consumers, the purpose of such control systems was for organizations to be able to know the exact contents of the products supplied to them, and to know if they corresponded with the product labels. Since the scandal, consumer views on organizations' product control

systems changed. At the time of the scandal their view was that these control systems were insufficient. For them, this was a main reason for retailers' implication in the scandal. So, the scandal was evidence of poor organizational product control systems. However, over time, consumers perceived these control systems as improved and appropriate. For example, Consumer 13 noted, 'I think they are very precise now [...] now everything is fine [...] they are stricter, well I am sure that they are stricter with their controls and that they are checking their suppliers more precisely [...] I know they have overcome it'.

My data analysis indicated that while most consumers were very certain about the state of organizations' post-trust violation product control systems, they did not establish this by direct observation. For consumers, the control systems were unobservable. As consumer 10 noted, 'I have no way of knowing whether this has actually taken place, but yeah, but that is the perception... I mean, if I asked Tesco for example, let me see your quality assurance, they would tell me to get lost'. In addition, consumers believed that organizations voluntarily improved their product control systems.

6.2.3 Organizational ability

My data analysis indicated that consumers frequently referred to implicated food retailers being not in control of their meat supply chain and unable to know the content of their meat products. On several occasions consumers directly referred to food retailers' incompetence in selling correctly labelled products. Appendix D shows how I coded this data and how I coded initial codes that captured their meaning in the 'organizational ability' concept. Drawing on collected data, I concluded that for consumers, organizational ability had to do with retailers' technical skills and competencies that enabled retailers to perform specific tasks, in this case being able to have oversight over the meat supply chain and being able to know if the content of supplied meat products corresponded with the product labels.

My analysis showed that consumers changed their views on organizational ability. When the scandal happened, their view was that organizations were unable to have oversight over their meat supply chain and whether supplied meat products corresponded with labels. For consumers, the scandal itself was evidence of that. After some time, consumers believed that organizations were once more able to have oversight over their meat supply chain and

whether supplied meat products corresponded with labels. In addition, my data analysis indicated that while consumers shared a high degree of certainly about organizational ability, they did not come to know it directly. They were external stakeholders and consequently could not directly observe organizational ability.

6.2.4 Importance of the scandal

My data analysis indicated that empirical data about consumers' trust recovery involved instances where they talked about the importance of the scandal. I captured these data with the concept labelled the 'importance of the scandal'. Appendix D shows how I developed this concept from collected data. This concept is about consumer subjective perception of the importance of or interest in the scandal. My data analysis showed that, over the course of the scandal, consumer perceptions of its importance changed. Most consumers initially perceived the scandal as important and were interested in it. They read newspapers, watched the news and discussed the issue with their family and friends. In other words, the scandal and the issue of damaged trust was, for a while, an important part of their daily life. For example, Consumer 22 said that 'when it happened at that time of course you are talking about it, everybody is talking about it. You stay away from Tesco '. Consumer 7 said that the scandal 'was a concern' when it happened. Consumer 27 said that he 'was reading and following the news' about the scandal. Consumer 7 said that the scandal and the issue of trust made her start thinking 'is it all just front, is all just marketing [...] I was not particularly loyal to one brand. I would shop, you know, on my way back from work or a meeting. I shopped from the most convenient place. But I actually stopped doing that and went to my local butcher, weirdly enough, which was difficult because it meant that I altered my work pattern [...]'.

With time, the scandal became less important and interesting. For some consumers this happened quickly; for others it took longer. For example, Consumer 3 argued that after some time he became 'bored' with the issue of mislabelling. Consumer 11 noted that the scandal 'was exciting when it happened' but eventually 'it was no longer interesting'. Consumer 7 said 'it was a concern; it is now a lesser concern'. My data analysis indicated that the scandal issue became less important as a result of consumers getting bored with the issue because of the constant exposure, an immediate change in behaviour (e.g., buying meat from local butchers) or because of other relatively more important events. It must be

noted that the transition from high to low/no importance happened subtly, without consumer explicit awareness or through their rational decision-making.

6.2.5 Shift of attention

Consumer stories about their trust in a food retailer, in the context of the horse meat scandal, involved situations when their thoughts shifted from the scandal and damaged trust to other things, events or situations. For example, Consumer 9 noted, '... you start thinking about other things like war in the Middle East or Ukraine or other things'. Consumer 22 said, 'There is something else in the news that would have taken over my interest'. Similarly, Consumer 6 said, 'other things are happening in the world that take your attention away'. I conceptualised such data instances in the concept labelled 'shift of attention'. Appendix D demonstrates how I developed this concept.

A shift of attention refers to situations where consumers started to think of something other than the scandal. It is about their cognitive move from one thing to another. It needs to be noted that initially, a shift of attention involved a shift from the scandal to something else. Analysis of collected data also led me to conclude that after this initial cognitive shift from the scandal consumers experienced further cognitive shifts from one thing to the other. Cognitive shifts were a normal part of consumer lives. However, after the scandal, consumers did not normally experience a cognitive shift back to the horse meat scandal/damaged trust in a food retailer. They started to focus on the scandal again when I invited them to an interview for this study.

6.2.6 Inattentiveness

My data analysis indicated a number of instances where consumers talked about their thinking about the scandal. Eventually, I labelled this data "inattentiveness". For example, Consumer 10 said 'you forget about that, you don't think about the scandal'. Similarly, Consumer 22 said 'You do not really think about it ... over time you do forget about these things ... I was able to sort of forget about the issue'. Consumer 3 noted '...it was in a neglected corner of my mind. And finally I thought about the scandal when I saw your email. I can definitely remember it'. Appendix D demonstrates how I developed this concept. I need to note that although the data instances involve the term "forgetting", this concept does not refer to forgetting in the sense that consumers failed to remember the

scandal. During interviews, consumers had no difficulty remembering the scandal and its various details (e.g., who was involved and what the problem was), and their damaged trust. As Consumer 13 noted, 'I still remember, of course I will remember, when you asked me about the horse meat scandal the first thing I thought was Tesco'. So, the terms "forgetting" or "forgetting about", used by consumers, were about consumer retrospective reporting about a time when they did not think about the scandal.

Since the scandal initially happen consumers became inattentive to the scandal or trust issue. When the scandal happened, participating consumers were thinking about it and about the issue of trust. Over time, they stopped thinking about it. Collected data suggested that consumers became inattentive to the scandal shortly after they experienced trust violation. For example, Consumer 9 said, 'I mean, the last time I thought about the scandal must have been most likely last year. It is not on my mind.' Consumer 27 noted, 'well, I forgot about the scandal short after it happened'. Consumers did not notice that they stopped thinking about the scandal and related issues (e.g., about organizations' incompetency). As Consumer 9 reflected on the past, he said, 'I simply forgot'. There is evidence that for most of the time since the scandal occurred (approximately one-and-a-half years before this study) consumers were inattentive to the scandal. For example, consumer 9 said, '...so practically I forgot about the scandal. I mean the last time I thought about the scandal must have been most likely last year. It is not on my mind. I simply forgot ... when I am in the supermarkets buying meat, I don't think about that, I forgot about it.' Similarly, Consumer 2 stated, 'I mean, a year ago, and almost, I feel if you never asked me, if you never mentioned the scandal [...] to me maybe people already forget'. In addition, the data related with the concept of shift of attention also support this. When consumers' attention was on something other than the scandal, they were inattentive to the scandal. Data show that consumers' attention was on other things and events, and not the scandal, for the majority of the time after the scandal occurred.

Based on the data analysis I concluded that various events can make consumers attentive to the scandal. For example, my interviewing, which was part of this study, was a reminder of the scandal for consumers. Consumer 23 said, '...it just goes latent for some time until you are reminded once again. Now I have been reminded with the interview itself ... is the interview itself that got me thinking again.' Consumer 21 said, 'You reminded me about the crisis.' However, consumers argued that over the past eighteen months since the

scandal, they had not noticed any reminders of it. Given that reminders could have triggered consumer thinking about the scandal again, the fact that consumers did not see reminders over the last year or so provides additional evidence for the above conclusion that for the most part, since the scandal, consumers did not think about it.

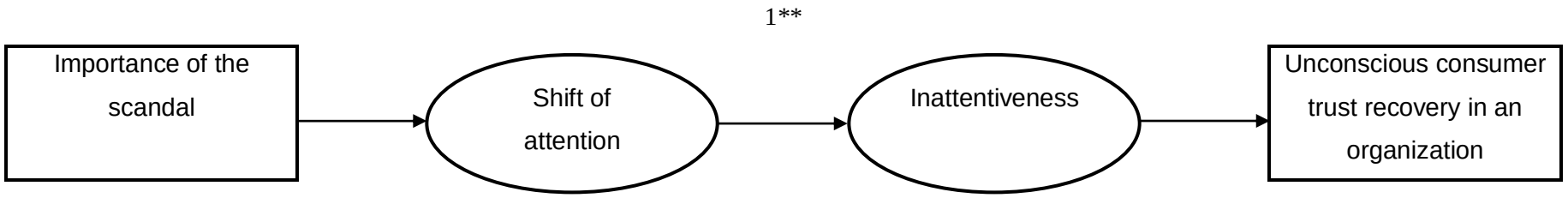
6.3 A grounded theory of unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization

In this second part of this chapter I present two grounded theories that I constructed based on the six developed focused codes (discussed above). I first discuss grounded theory that explains unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. Then, I turn to grounded theory that explains conscious consumer trust recovery. To present each theory I follow the same presentational logic. First, I show a theoretical model which graphically represents the theory. Second, I discuss the theory's constitutive elements: propositions and underlying mechanisms.

6.3.1 A grounded theory of unconscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer

My data analysis led me to conclude that several developed focused codes played a role in explanation of unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. These include the importance of the scandal, a shift of attention and inattentiveness. I showed and discussed these concepts in the first section of this chapter. However, a grounded theory needs to show interrelationships between these concepts. This section presents a grounded theory of unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization, as represented in Figure 6-3, grounded in the data that was collected in this study.

Figure 6-3 Grounded theoretical model of the unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization*



*Based on the developed focused codes (see first section of this chapter)

**Number corresponds to proposition in the text

Figure 6-3 situates the abovementioned concepts in a theoretical model that shows how they are interrelated and why consumers experienced unconscious trust recovery in an organization. The theoretical model shows that unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization occurs when the scandal loses its importance for the consumer. This change in the importance of the scandal, for the consumer, leads to his/her attention shifting away from the scandal and towards something else. Consequently, the consumer becomes inattentive to the scandal. Once this happens, the consumer experiences unconscious trust recovery in an organization.

Theoretical proposition

My data analysis led me to conclude that there was a link between consumer perceived importance of the scandal and unconscious consumer trust recovery. Specifically, when consumers deemed the scandal not very important, they experienced unconscious trust recovery. For example, Consumer 12 noted, 'it wasn't so important to me and I went on to trust again pretty quickly'. In formal terms,

> Proposition 1: Low importance of the scandal for consumers lead to unconscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer.

Underlying mechanism

In the preceding section I stated theoretical proposition which correspond with collected data. However, I did not explain why and how concepts in the proposition are related. My data analysis led me to conclude that the importance of the scandal was related to consumers' attention shift. Specifically, once the scandal became less important for a consumer, his/her attention shifted from the scandal. The following exemplary quotations illustrate this link. For example, Consumer 23 said, 'you get preoccupied with other things that happen, that are more important, that are relevant.' Consumer 24 mentioned that 'after a while I got bored and we start talking about other things'. Consumer 9 noted, 'I focus on news that I am personally more interested in'. Consumer 27 noted 'I fairly quickly lost interest in the scandal. It was in the news quite a lot. I became very busy with my own project'. Consumer 14 said, 'over time things became less, not as uppermost in your mind. It fades as other circumstances come along'. My data analysis also led me to conclude that once a consumer experienced a shift of attention, he/she became inattentive to the scandal.

The following quotations demonstrate this conceptual relationship. Consumer 23 said, 'it just evaporated to irrelevance for a while because you are preoccupied with other things.' Consumer 20 said, '...it is in the background now. You don't think about it. When something is in the background you just carry on with your daily life, you are busy'. When I asked Consumer 20 why this happened, she said, 'because other things happened and you forget about it'. Consumer 26 said, 'there are other things coming into your mind. There are newer things and therefore you stop thinking about the scandal'. Consumer 8 stated, 'I don't spend my life thinking about that, you know, life is busy'.

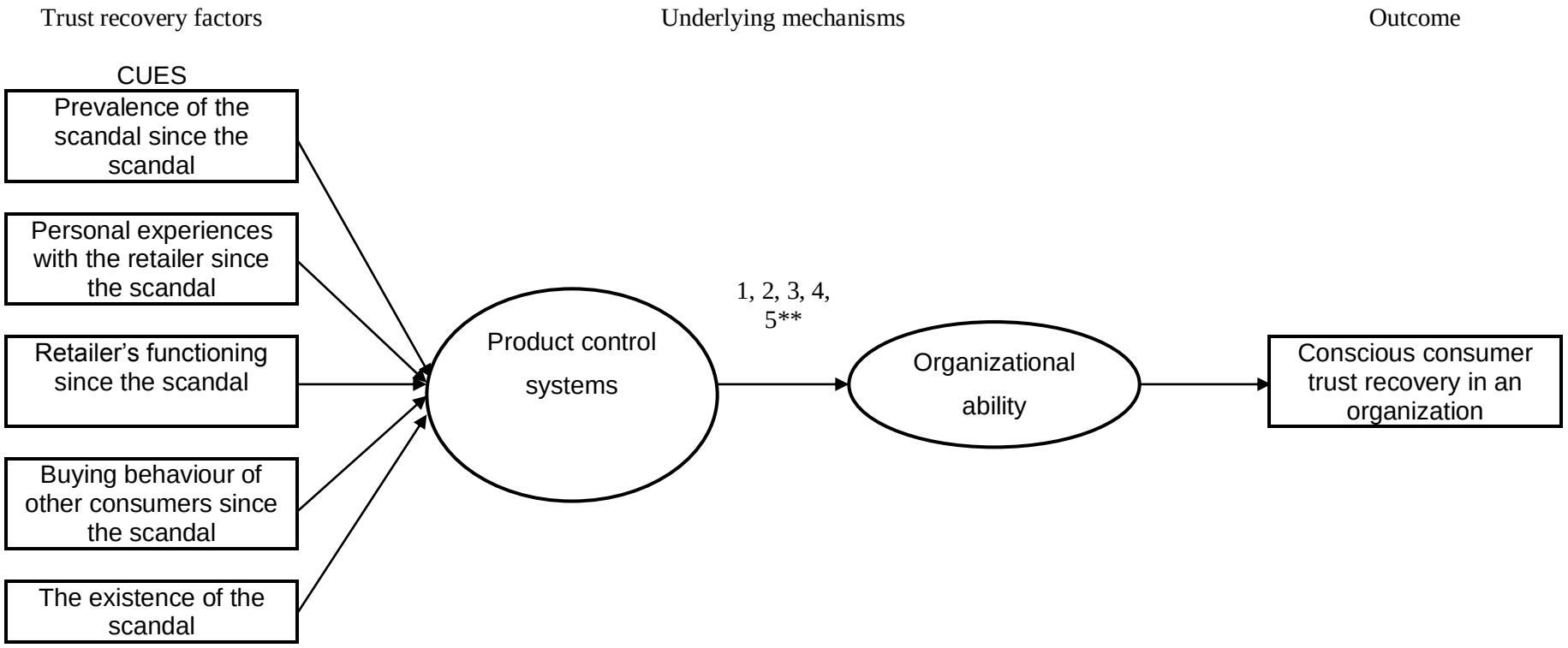
Finally, when consumers were inattentive to the scandal they experienced unconscious trust recovery in a food retailer. Again, I developed this conceptual relationship from empirical data. The following quotations show how consumers' inattentiveness to the scandal was central to their experience of unconscious trust recovery in an organisation. For example, consumer 3 noted, 'I predominantly forgot about the issue. And after that trust just cramped to seven from six.' Consumer 25 said, 'the scandal and lack of trust was in my mind for some time after the scandal. Then, I forgot about all this and then I started to buy the products normally as before the scandal'. Consumer 9 stated, '...so practically I forgot about the scandal. I mean, the last time I thought about the scandal must have been most likely last year. It is not on my mind. I simply forgot about it ... when I am in the supermarkets buying meat, I don't think about that, I forgot about it.' Consumer 10 said, '...as it remains there and you are moving forward so there, there are different processes taking place and as the memory starts to fade away then your trust starts to get back, to increase again.'

6.3.2 A grounded theory of the conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer

My findings indicated that several developed concepts played a role in explanation of conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. These included: cues (prevalence of the scandal since the scandal; personal experiences with the retailer since the scandal; retailer's functioning since the scandal; buying behaviour of other consumers since the scandal; the existence of the scandal); product control systems; and organizational ability. I discussed these concepts in the first section of this chapter. I would like to note again that a grounded theory needs to show interrelationships between these concepts. This section

presents a grounded theory of conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization, as represented in Figure 6-4, grounded in the data that was developed in this study.

Figure 6-4 Grounded theoretical model of conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization*



*Based on the developed focused codes (see first section of this chapter)
**Numbers correspond to propositions in the text

Figure 6-4 situates the abovementioned concepts in a theoretical model that shows how they are interrelated and why consumers experienced conscious trust recovery in an organization. The theoretical model shows that conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization is based on various cues. Specifically, for consumer, no reoccurrence of the scandal since the scandal, positive personal experiences since the scandal, the retailer's functioning since the scandal, other consumers shopping with the food retailer since the scandal, and existence of the scandal are cues that the retailer's product control system has improved and is appropriate. The belief that the retailer's product control system has improved and is appropriate lead consumer to believe that the retailer is able to sell correctly labelled food. Therefore, consumers trust the retailer (i.e., conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization).

In the reminder of this section I first discuss five theoretical propositions and provide exemplary quotes to show that they are grounded in collected data. Then I discuss the underlying sequential mechanism.

Theoretical propositions

My data analysis led me to conclude that the identified cue labelled "prevalence of the scandal since the scandal" played an important role in consumer experiences of conscious trust recovery in an organization. Specifically, no re-occurrence of the scandal since the scandal led consumers to become more trusting of the implicated food retailer. I will illustrate this with few exemplary quotes: Consumer 19 said, '...my trust started rising because Tesco never came in the spotlight again regarding horse meat.' Consumer 1 noted, '...when we no longer hear about that, it is not because there is a lack of tests. The tests are ongoing. It is just that there is nothing wrong with it, so we don't hear about it. So, as a result, the trust factor has increased [...] so, no news is probably good news in this case and you can say that it is a part of the trust repair'. Consumer 18 said, 'And, it is almost one-and-a-half years from then and they did not have any other accident [...]. This kind of situation makes me trust them again'. Similarly, Consumer 3 said '...they did not sell horse meat recently. They sold it a while ago now. So you think, I can put it back where it was [referring to his trust]'. Consumer 15 noted, '...the reason that it changed from 4 to 9 [referring to his trust levels] is Tesco did not do anything else to screw it up.' Consumer 13 said, 'I have another thought. I think why my level of trust is OK now is because at that

point when the scandal happened it felt like they lied about it or they did not have at the same time control over it [...] so, now I am thinking that nothing like that happened ever since. Because it is one-and-a-half year from then and nothing happened, so it is fine now. Some time passed from it, and I can see that now everything is fine and that it was a one-time thing [...]The main reason [why the participant trusts the retailer again] is that, yes, they failed, but nothing like that happened again.' In formal terms,

> Proposition 1: No re-occurrence of the scandal led to conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization.

Consumer personal post-trust violation experiences with the implicated food retailer played an important role in their recovery of conscious trust in the retailer. My interpretation of numerous data instances led me to conclude that consumer positive personal experiences were related with recovery of their conscious trust. For example, Consumer 13 said that she started to trust the retailer again because 'I have experience and I have survived all the beef products I bought from them'. Consumer 13 continued, '...then it gradually increased because I was going there and everything was OK. Just, you know, when I was saying that now I trust them because this was a one-time thing. I think it took me some time to come to this opinion. So maybe if you asked me a year ago I would not be telling you this. But at one point I had experience of going there and everything was OK'. Consumer 22 said, '...when you are relying on someone and they are fulfilling that need I think that is a process of regaining trust as well'. In formal terms,

> Proposition 2: Consumer positive personal experiences with the retailer since the scandal led to conscious recovery of trust in an organization.

My data analysis also led me to conclude that there was a relationship between the concepts of retailer's functioning since the scandal and conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer. To consumers, the fact that one and a half years after the scandal the retailer was still in business was related with conscious trust recovery. In formal terms,

> Proposition 3: The retailer's existence since the scandal led to conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer.

There was a relationship between the concept of other consumer buying behaviour since the scandal and conscious consumer trust recovery. Specifically, participating consumer perception that other consumers were behaving "normally" (i.e., they were shopping with the food retailer and/or buying previously implicated meat products) was related with recovery of their trust in the food retailer. In formal terms,

> Proposition 4: Observing other consumers shopping with the retailer since the scandal led to conscious consumer trust recovery in the food retailer.

Finally, analysis of collected qualitative data led me to conclude that existence of the scandal itself played a role in conscious consumer trust recovery. Specifically, there was a relationship between the occurrence of the scandal in the past and the recovery of conscious consumer trust in an organization. For example, Consumer 22 said, 'before the scandal, probably 7. When I heard about the scandal my trust was very, very low, probably 0 to 1, and I think it has slightly gone up again because it happened'. Consumer 20 said, 'you expect after something like that happened something will be put in place to stop it happening again. It makes sense that you would be slightly more trusting then when it initially happened.' Consumer 10 noted, 'I think it is because of the thought of or the pressure, danger of another scandal like that. Mh, like what if somebody and an organization decided to test our sausages and see what actually is in them. I think that sort of awareness, it was in the news, and people were talking about that.' In formal terms,

> Proposition 5: Existence of the scandal led to conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer.

Finally, my data analysis also led me to conclude that while the scandal no-reoccurrence was the most important trust recovery factor and alone could have led to trust recovery, most consumers also used one or more other trust recovery factors to recover their trust in the food retailer. For example, Consumer 13 said '...then it gradually increased because I was going there and everything was OK. Just, you know, when I was saying that now I trust them because this was a one-time thing. I think it took me some time to come to this opinion. So maybe if you asked me a year ago I would be telling you this. But as I had this experience that everything, at one point I had experience going there and everything was

OK. At the same time there was no news, oh, there is horse meat again somewhere on the shelves. There was nobody, you know nothing.'

Underlying mechanism

In the preceding section I stated five propositions which I developed through analysis of collected data. However, I did not explain why/how concepts in each proposition are related. In other words, I did not provide the underlying logic – a sequential mechanism that would explain why/how a concept in a specific theoretical proposition led to another concept in the same proposition. Because I developed, from collected data, one sequential mechanism that explained all five developed theoretical propositions, I waited to first discuss each proposition. I did not discuss it under each theoretical proposition to avoid repetition and potential confusion. Now that all five propositions have been discussed, it is time to discuss the sequential mechanism.

Figure 6–4 shows that two developed concepts discussed in the first part of this chapter (product control systems and organizational ability) form a sequential mechanism that explains all five developed theoretical propositions. Both concepts were related as follows: improved product control systems led to organizational ability. For example, Consumer 26 noted, 'Today they are able to sell meat products that correspond with the label because they have more controls [...].' Consumer 13 believed that retailers are now in control, because he believed that the problem with organizational product control systems 'has been solved [...]'. In the reminder of this section I demonstrate the sequential mechanism by showing that each explanatory concept in the propositions was related to two concepts that represent a sequential mechanism, and that these concepts were in turn related with conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer. In other words, I show that cues led to conscious consumer trust recovery through a sequential mechanism that consist out of two concepts: product control systems and organizational ability. I begin with trust recovery factors.

My data analysis showed that the prevalence of the scandal since the scandal was a cue for establishing the state of organizations' product control systems. Specifically, no re-occurrence of the scandal meant that consumers perceived organizational product control systems as improved. I illustrate this with several exemplary quotes. Consumer 20 said, 'I

think because it just does not appear in the media anymore you assume [...] that the problem has been resolved. So you assume that the big retailers like Tesco and Asda have taken necessary measures to ensure that this does not happen again'. Consumer 17 noted, 'if there is no more bad news about Tesco and about their meat and quality of the products, this means that things improved and that the things must go well.' Consumer 19 noted, '...my trust started rising because Tesco never came in the spotlight again regarding horse meat. The news kind of died down a little bit. [...] this signalled to me that they got their act together, they are not messing around anymore, that they are serious now and that they have done their job because they have not come into the media regarding that'. Consumer 26 said, 'I think that they changed [their product control systems] because since the scandal there was no reoccurrence of the scandal.' Consumer 12 noted, '...if you don't hear more about it you presume it is fine and then as time goes on it was sorted because otherwise it would be back in the news'. Consumer 13 said, 'I think it is important because no news signals me, of course I discount that the news is a business as well. So I discount that this is not out of the good of their hearts to give us the news. It signals to me that it is not going on anymore. So it stopped and, you know, actually it is signalling that they had a process for repairing the problem, their error, so for me, I am not really looking at Tesco so specifically and following the news about Tesco but I know that there is no news about this anymore [...] Meaning, that, right now, meaning that the problem is solved. But over the last six months the problem is being solved. And this also signals to me that it is going away and that this will not be there forever.' Similarly, for Consumer 16, 'A lack of new information makes you think that the problem is solved'. Consumer 1 said, 'when there is no news it is good news because it does not make the news... when we no longer hear about that it is not because there is a lack of tests. The tests are ongoing. It is just that there is nothing wrong with it, so we don't hear about it ... So, the first time, when everything is going smoothly nobody writes about the incident ... if nothing is wrong you don't hear anything'. Consumer 24 noted, 'the fact that there was no new scandal over the last year and a half tells me that the store solved the problem [with how they manage and control what gets supplied to them]'.

Similarly, my data analysis showed me that other types of cues also led to consumer positive perception of organizations' post-trust violation product control systems. For example, Consumer 27 mentioned the relationship between his positive experiences with

the retailer since the scandal and organizational post-trust violation product control systems. He said ‘since the scandal everything seemed to be OK. I bought meat products and all was fine. So, I guess they improved how they do business’. Consumer 25 made a note that indicated the link between organizational functioning since the scandal and organization’s product control systems. This consumer stated that the ‘retailer is still in business so they must have changed something [referring to how they control what gets supplied to them]’.

Observing other consumers shopping with the retailer since the scandal led to conscious consumer trust recovery, because it cued consumers that the organization’s product control systems had improved. For example, Consumer 2 noted, ‘I don’t think I saw any people not going to Tesco anymore or that their sales have a huge decline. I don’t recall it, so that is reasonable news to me [referring to product control systems]’. The following exemplary quotes demonstrate the link between the occurrence of the scandal and consumer perceptions of improved organizational post-trust violation product control systems. Consumer 19 said, ‘I assume that they have done it [referring to improvement of retailer’s product control systems] because it was all across the media and newspapers and stuff like that.’ Consumer 20 noted, ‘ [...] you expect after something like that something will be put in place to stop it happening again.’ Consumer 13 said that because ‘they failed I am, again, I am sure that they have learned from it and I am sure that they have done twice, ten times more work to overcome it. So, I think they are very precise now’. Consumer 10 similarly said, ‘I assume again that the danger and you know the thought of even more headlines played a role. So that might have forced retailers to control better what they are selling.’ Consumer 7 hoped that ‘if someone shone a light into a particular area then there could be stronger protocols’. Consumer 13 said, ‘I am sure that they are stricter with their controls and that they are checking their suppliers more precisely. It is whatever the scandal like that happens’. Consumer 8 was sure that ‘if you get caught as a supermarket with something going wrong you will try to make things better’. In addition to the above quoted material that demonstrates the link between the existence of the scandal and organizational post-trust violation product control systems, several data instances also show the link between the existence of the scandal and organizational post-trust violation ability. For example, Consumer 3 said, ‘But, just because, if the company just been, just been found out to be selling horse meat it is one think I am pretty sure, it is not selling this

horse meat.' Consumer 22 said, 'I would like to think they are [in control]. I would imagine they are because obviously if the media got hold of that again that would be quite destructive for the company'.

My data analysis also led me to conclude that the above discussed sequential mechanism led to conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. A very illustrative quote is provided Consumer 26. This consumer noted, 'today they are able to sell meat products that correspond with the label because they have more controls; therefore, I trust them.' The data provided additional supporting evidence for the relationship between the sequential mechanism and conscious consumer trust recovery. For example, Consumer 18 said, 'I started to gain trust in the company because they improved, they have changed something', Consumer 13 noted, 'I do trust them. Yes, because I trust them that this is sorted ... If I would not trust them I would go somewhere else and it would be a problem and I would think there is an issue there [...] Tesco is an interesting example, just because it failed at some point. So, I trust them [Tesco] now as you know [...] when it failed I did not want to go there but now I want to go there because I know they have overcome it.' Consumer 8 said, 'the only little bit of additional trust was based more on guesswork, you know, my assumption that they must have done something'. Consumer 1 said, 'Tesco putting in order checks and balance partly by them initiated and these are not mandated. And that has throwing in additional checks then use to do actually help me to improve my trust in them. [...] So, that is why my trust has increased after the thing, because you really have one more layer of checks than before'. Consumer 11 similarly noted, 'I assume that they corrected their practices and therefore can be trusted'. Consumer 12 said, 'the thing that actually re-established my trust is just that actions are taken, and it is just that is my assumption that that was actually done'. Consumer 15 said, 'Now it is up to nine because I would trust them to improve their system.' The last example of the effect of improved organizational product control systems on post-trust violation trust is from Consumer 20, who noted that '...something will be put in place to stop this happening again. It makes sense that you would be slightly more trusting then initially when it happened.'

This ends the second and last part of this chapter. To sum up, in this part of the chapter I presented two grounded theories that I constructed based on the six developed concepts. I first discussed grounded theory explaining unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. Then, I turned to grounded theory that explained conscious consumer trust

recovery in an organization. To present each theory I first showed a theoretical model which graphically represented the theory. Second, I discussed the theory's constitutive elements: propositions and underlying mechanisms.

6.4 Chapter summary

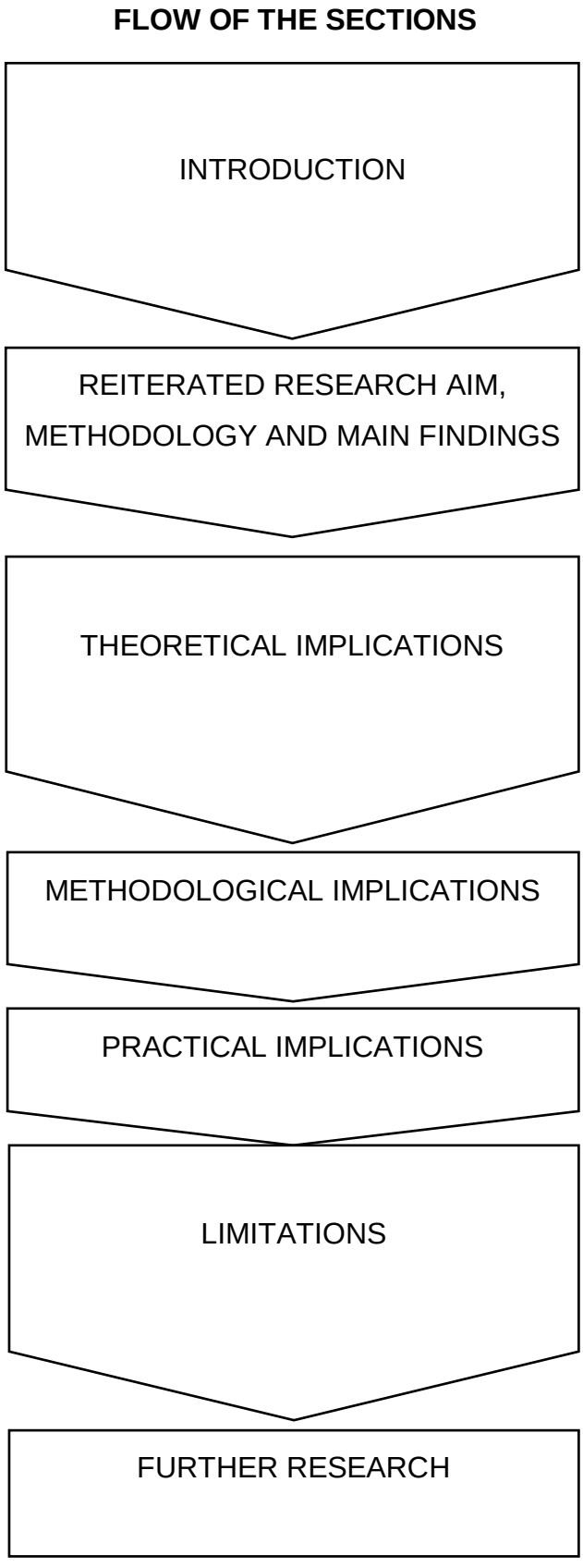
Six concepts, developed from collected data, played a central role in consumer experiences of their unconscious or conscious recovery of trust in an organization. These were: cues; organizational product control systems; organizational ability; importance of the scandal; shift in attention; and inattentiveness. Importance of the scandal was the factor that led to unconscious consumer trust recovery. Shift of attention and inattentiveness represented an underlying sequential mechanism that explained why/how this factor recovered unconscious consumer trust. Cues led to conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. The concept of organizational product control systems and the concept of organizational ability represented an underlying sequential mechanism that showed why/how cues led to conscious consumer trust recovery. In now turn to Chapter 7, where I discuss my findings.

Chapter 7 Discussion

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the findings of this study. In this chapter I discuss them and their contribution to theory. I begin by re-stating my research question and aim, the methodology used to investigate it, and my findings that address the research question. I then discuss my findings in light of what we already know about consumer trust recovery in an organization in particular, and trust recovery in general. I explain how my findings extend understanding about trust recovery, and why I think prior theory and research has failed to do so. I also compare my findings to prior theory and research, drawing out similarities and differences. After this, I discuss the methodological contributions of this study, the practical implications of my findings, limitations of the study and fruitful areas for further research. Figure 7-1 provides an overview of this chapter.

Figure 7-1 Overview of chapter 7



7.2 Reiterated research question, aim, methodology and main findings

I began this study by establishing that an explanation of consumer trust recovery in an organization is theoretically and practically important. My analysis showed there is a paucity of theory on consumer trust recovery. On this basis I formulated my overarching research question, which provided a rationale for undertaking this thesis: 'Why and how does consumer trust recovery in a food retailer occur in the context of the food adulteration scandal in the UK in 2013?' My specific research aim was to build and enrich theory inductively from an interpretivist perspective, and, in doing so, explain why and how does consumer trust recovery in an organisation occur. In other words, I wanted to understand/learn about what leads to consumer trust recovery in an organisation and why/how. To address my research question I collected empirical data of 31 consumers who experienced trust recovery in an organization (in the context of the horse meat scandal in 2013 in the UK), and used grounded theory methodology (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Charmaz, 2006, 2014) to develop a theory of unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization (a food retailer).

My research showed that there are two types of consumer trust recovery in an organization (I call them unconscious and conscious) and that the same consumers can experience both types. My analysis showed that when consumers perceived the scandal as less important, they experienced unconscious trust recovery. This happened because the reduced importance of the scandal led to a shift in their attention, which in turn led to their inattentiveness to the scandal. Consumer inattentiveness was an immediate antecedent of unconscious trust recovery. Conscious consumer trust recovery occurred because consumers saw cues that indicated to them that the food retailer had improved their product control systems, which in turn led them to believe that the organization had renewed ability. Consumer perception of the renewed ability was an immediate antecedent of their conscious trust recovery. These findings enabled me to fully address my research question.

7.3 Comparison of my findings with existing literature on the topic and theoretical implications

In this section I compare my findings (see above) with existing literature on trust recovery (i.e., literature on consumer trust recovery in an organization and trust recovery literature

in general) to establish if this study makes theoretical contribution to this literature. I begin with findings related with unconscious consumer trust recovery and then turn to findings related with conscious consumer trust recovery.

7.3.1 Theory of unconscious consumer trust recovery, existing theory on the topic and theoretical implications

To my knowledge, no trust recovery study empirically identifies the phenomenon I call unconscious trust recovery in general and unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization in particular. My analysis of consumer trust recovery literature and trust recovery literature in general led me to conclude that researchers did not pay attention to unconscious consumer trust recovery because they did not conceptualise trust as a habitual phenomenon. They worked within dominant trust paradigm (see Möllering, 2006) in which trust is an inherently cognitive phenomenon achieved through the trustor's decision-making about his/her trust. Therefore, I can conclude that established unconscious trust recovery makes theoretical contribution to the theory of trust recovery in general and to theory recovery of consumer trust in particular.

Relatedly, no prior study explains unconscious trust recovery in general and unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization in particular. So, the conceptual elements of the developed theory of unconscious trust recovery (the concept of the importance of the trust violation; the concepts of attention shift and inattentiveness; the relationships between these concepts) do not feature in prior trust recovery literature. However, I should note that they do feature in literature on habits (see Barandiaran and Di Paolo, 2014; Carlisle and Sinclair, 2011; Carlisle, 2014; Pollard, 2008) and attention (see Christopher, 2013). Specifically, literature on habits (e.g., Aarts and Dijksterhuis, 2010; James, 1890; Berridge and Robinson, 2011; Reason, 1990; Tam, Wood and Li, 2014; Gilbert, 1989; Wegner, 1994) provides theoretical and empirical support for my finding that inattentiveness (i.e., thinking of something else or not thinking about the scandal) led to unconscious consumer trust recovery in an organization that involved recovered consumer trust that had habitual or routine-like characteristics. For example, Berridge and Robinson (2011: 29-30), drawing on James (1890), provided a classic example of habit at work: 'William James wrote of going upstairs to his bedroom to dress formally for dinner and removing his clothes *while thinking about one of his intellectual projects*. Suddenly he found that he had put on his

pajamas and nearly climbed into bed [...] "Oops, silly me!"' (my emphasis). A more contemporary example of the power of habit involves a hospital nurse who was measuring a dose of liquid chloral hydrate into a cup when she was *distracted* by a pharmacist on her way to the patient's room. The conversation was social in nature and the nurse, who often had a cup of coffee in her hand, drank the medication as if taking a sip of coffee (ISMP, 2012). Berridge and Robinson (2011: 29) argued that 'the defining feature of habits is that they tend to be performed autonomously when one is thinking of something else, without having to think about them [...] they slip in [...] when one's attention wanders [...] automatic habits appear only when there is no countervailing purpose to act otherwise'. Tam, Wood and Li (2014) argued that people will be more successful in inhibiting strong habitual responses when they vigilantly monitor themselves to ensure non-performance of the unwanted habitual response. Reason (1990) theorised that inattention led to intrusion of an old habit. Aarts and Dijksterhuis (2000: 76) argued that 'conscious attention is required to interrupt the habit' and that in situations where attentional resources are absorbed by other things, intrusion of an old-habit might occur. In a similar fashion, the literature on attention (see Christopher, 2013) provided support for the developed concept of shifted attention and its antecedent, and for the finding that once a person shifts from one thought to another, he/she stops experiencing the initial thought (i.e., becomes inattentive to that thought). So, because the above mentioned elements of theory of unconscious consumer trust recovery do not feature in prior trust recovery literature, and because these theoretical elements are well established in literature on habits and attention, my findings related to explanation of unconscious consumer trust recovery essentially show a novel application of these two bodies of literature to theory and research on trust recovery.

My findings showed that when consumers were inattentive to the scandal, they experienced unconscious trust recovery in an organization. This might be disadvantageous and dangerous for consumers. The implication of the role of consumers' inattentiveness in unconscious consumer trust recovery is that consumers experienced unconscious consumer trust recovery regardless of whether the trustee did or did not address the issue that led to the trust violation. In cases where the trustee did not address the cause of trust violation, consumers are vulnerable and at risk of experiencing another trust violation and its negative consequences (e.g., buying and eating products they do not want). This finding supports and contributes to the literature on the dark side of trust (e.g., Currall and Epstein,

2003; Gargiulo and Ertug, 2006; Skinner, Dietz and Weibel, 2013; Kramer, 2009; McEvily et al., 2003; Flores and Solomon, 1998; Hardy et al., 1998; Zahra, Yavuz and Ucbasaran, 2006) that tells us that trust does not necessarily have only positive consequences, nor is it inherently positive. I would like to note that based on the above discussion, trustees (e.g., supermarkets) need to be watched to make sure that they do not exploit the findings of this research.

7.3.2 Theory of conscious consumer trust recovery, existing theory on the topic and theoretical implications

My analysis of trust recovery literature led me to conclude that this literature shares one fundamental assumption – that the trustor knows about the state of an organization's components (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009) which trustor requires for forming opinion about trustee's trustworthiness. The trustor is able to know the state of the organization's components ether because the trustee provides the relevant information (i.e., signals) or s/he observes (i.e., through cues) about the organization. According to Donath (2011: 3), 'signals are meant to communicate the quality; their purpose is to alter the receiver's beliefs or behaviors in ways that benefit the signaler. Unintentional cues, or evidence, exist for other reasons and they may provide information detrimental to the one who reveals them.' This assumption holds in conceptual and experimental studies. In laboratory experiments researchers test the effect of various trust repair actions on trust recovery; by virtue of such research design, the trustor is exposed to trust repair actions (i.e., he receives the trustee's signals or "reads" cues from the trustee). However, this assumption might not hold in real-life situations. In real-life situations a trustor might not see all relevant information about an organization's trust recovery (Kramer, 2015) and might not "read" an organization's components. This is especially likely for external stakeholders (e.g., consumers), who are proximately further away from the organization than internal stakeholders (e.g., employees). Research also supports this claim. For example, Schweitzer and his colleagues (2006: 16) recognised an 'important problem' about the trust recovery process stemming from experimental research on trust. Specifically, Schweitzer et al. (2006) asked what happens, in the context of trust recovery, when a trustor cannot easily observe a trustee's subsequent trustworthy behaviour (e.g., because of the relationship rupture resulting from trust failure). My data also showed that consumers were not able to "read" the organization's components.

So, what happens with conscious consumer trust recovery when a consumer is left without effective trust recovery actions (signals) about structural changes and cannot observe an organization's components (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009) to form an opinion about the organization's trustworthiness? Existing theory of trust recovery (Bachmann et al., 2015; Dirks et al., 2009) would predict that in such situations trust repair would not be possible, because the factors that recover trust are missing. Developed theory of conscious consumer trust recovery tells us that this is not necessarily the case, and that in such situations consumers use a different strategy. They use various environmental cues to form opinions about the state of the organization's post-scandal structures (i.e., one of six organizational components outlined by Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Using this strategy, consumers are able to mitigate the fact that they did not know about the state of the organization's post-trust violation structures. Thus, consumers were able to form opinions about a organization's post-trust violation trustworthiness and in turn about their trust. So, the findings related to theory of conscious consumer trust recovery enabled me to further develop understanding of this type of trust recovery in an organization and trust recovery in general. This is an important theoretical contribution.

Existing definitions of trust recovery implicitly suggest either the possibility of full trust recovery (e.g., Desmet et al., 2011; Kramer and Lewicki, 2010; Schniter et al., 2012; Tomlinson and Mayer, 2009) or partial trust recovery (e.g., Kim et al., 2004; Gillespie et al., 2012; Xie and Peng, 2009). For example, according to Kramer and Lewicki (2010: 249), 'trust repair would focus on those activities in which party 2 has taken advantage of party 1's vulnerability, and seeks to restore the willingness of that party to be vulnerable in the future'. Gillespie and Dietz (2009: 128) defined trust repair as 'a process required for repairing' perceptions of trustworthiness (i.e. ability, benevolence and integrity) 'once they are damaged by organization-level failure.' However, empirical evidence on this issue is scarce. In other words, while definitions suggest partial or even full recovery of damaged trust, there is not much empirical research that could tell us about the actual extent of trust recovery. This is because some empirical studies do not establish pre-trust violation trust but rather assume it, based on the existence of various transgressions (e.g., Chen, Wu and Chang, 2013). While this might be problematic on its own, because transgression does not necessarily mean trust damage (Schwartz and Gibb, 1999, cited in Gillespie and Dietz, 2009: 142), in the context of my discussion here, not knowing the extent of trust before the

scandal makes it impossible to establish the extent of its subsequent recovery. Analysis of empirical trust recovery studies led me to conclude that there are only a few empirical studies that measured trust levels before, during and after a trust violation. These studies tell us that damaged trust can improve to a degree. However, much of this research is experimental. Experimental and survey studies have low ecological validity (i.e., the findings might not reflect real life situations). Therefore, it is not possible to say that the experimentally established degree of trust recovery would also occur outside laboratory environment. In addition, experimental studies favour trust recovery (Schweitzer et al., 2006). Few studies investigate trust recovery in non-experimental settings (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2014).

To sum up, there is very limited evidence about the extent of actual trust recovery in real-life situations. In line with Gillespie et al. (2014), I also established that, in real-life situations, trust can be recovered. However, my data also enabled me to extend our current knowledge of the extent of trust recovery. Based on these data, I conclude that trust in an organization after violation might be stronger than pre-violation. The findings from two surveys conducted by Harris Interactive (2013a, b) documented that immediately after the scandal occurred, up to four percent of consumers reported that they will buy more red meat and ready meals in the future. While the survey does not tell us the reason for this, it may be a reflection of my finding showing higher post-trust violation trust compared to pre-trust violation trust (Mayer et al., 1995). Overall, these findings provide more detailed evidence about the existence and extent of trust recovery in real-life situations. These findings are theoretically important because they offer more data about "*real* trust repair" (Kramer and Lewicki, 2010: 268) and speak to Gillespie et al.'s (2013: 211-212) question: After trust violation, 'will trustors ever trust violators to the same level again?'

More evidence about the extent of trust recovery in real-life situations is also important because this shows that community of trust recovery researcher do not theorize about a phenomenon which, in real-life, does not exists. According to Merton (1987) and Van de Ven (2007, 2015), this is important. For example, Merton (1987: 21) argued that frequently in science, as in everyday life, 'explanations are provided of matters that are not and never were' (Merton, 1987, cited in Van de Ven, 2015: 2).

Contrary to previous studies (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015), conscious consumer theory of trust recovery (but also unconscious consumer trust recovery) suggests that a single approach to trust repair can be effective or can achieve the desired result (i.e., trust recovery).

The majority of trust recovery studies focused on trust recovery between actors in emergent relationships. My research adds to the literature on the topic by investigating trust recovery between trustors and trustees in established relationships.

My analysis of literature on trust recovery led me to conclude that the concept of time rarely featured in trust recovery literature. This was also noted by other trust researchers (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015). For example, Bachmann et al. (2015) identified the role of time as one of five key areas for future research on trust recovery. Developed conscious consumer theory of trust recovery shows a particular role of time in trust recovery. Specifically, my findings indicate that time played an important role in consumer construction of cues. Over time, consumers interpreted accumulated events as cues. Drawing on above discussion the role of time in conscious consumer trust recovery is an important theoretical contribution to trust recovery literature.

The above discussed theoretical contributions related to conscious consumer trust recovery are potentially due to the methodological approach I took compared with prior trust recovery studies. In contrast to almost all prior studies, I investigated trust recovery from the perspective of those living it. Such approach allows for new "discoveries" (Charmaz, 2006, 2014; Gioia et al., 2013; Locke, 2001, 2014). In addition, prior studies investigated trust recovery in a timeframe immediately following or close to trust violation, which did not allow for identifying cues, as this study does.

The theory of conscious consumer trust recovery has several similarities with the structural or regulation and control (Bachmann et al., 2015; Dirks et al., 2009) approach to trust recovery (e.g., Eberl et al., 2015; Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Nakayachi and Watabe, 2005; Sitkin and Roth, 1993; Xie and Peng; 2009) and with trust theory in general (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995). Specifically, existing structural trust recovery theory also showed that various structural changes (e.g., improved product control systems) lead to trust recovery. Unfortunately, the developed conscious consumer theory of trust recovery does not

explicitly show the underlying mechanisms through which structural change (i.e., improved product control systems) lead to improved ability and trust. Therefore, I cannot support or reject the existing belief that formal rules and controls which constrain untrustworthy behaviour and hence prevent new events that could lead to new trust violations (Bachmann et al., 2015) underpin the positive relationship between the change in organizational product control systems and organizational ability. Prior theory of trust (e.g., Mayer et al., 1995) also identified the relationship between ability and trust (Mayer et al., 1995). Conscious consumer trust recovery theory shows a positive relationship between ability and trust. This finding is also in line with prior conceptual and empirical trust recovery literature (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015; Xie and Peng, 2009) and literature on trust (e.g., Colquitt et al., 2007; Bacharach and Gambetta, 2001; Mayer et al., 1995).

There are several potential reasons for the similarities between conscious consumer theory of trust recovery and existing literature. The similarities exist because of the nature of trust violation. In this study trust violation was ability-based. My literature analysis led me to conclude that a structural approach is especially effective for competence-based trust violations. Therefore, by investigating a competence-based trust violation and because of the effectiveness of a structural approach for competence-based trust violations, there was a high probability of discovering similar findings. Relatedly, a structural approach is very popular with trustees, which also increases the possibility of "discovering" structural trust repair interventions.

This study, like some other studies (e.g., Schweitzer et al., 2006), failed to support prior theory and findings which argued that various symbolic trust strategies (e.g., apology, promise) lead to trust recovery. There are several possible reasons for this. A number of participating consumers claimed that they never heard of, or were able to recall, any trust repair actions from the organization. This might be true, or it might be a consequence of the retrospective nature of this study. In either case, these actions did not play a role in their trust recovery eighteen months after the scandal. Other participating consumers recalled the trustee's apology and promise. However, apology from the organization did not help recover consumer trust. One possible reason for this is that participating consumers found the apologies disingenuous and consequently dismissed them.

This is in line with prior theory and research which showed that apology, in order to be effective, needs to be sincere (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009; Tomlinson et al., 2004). My data, related to the ineffectiveness of apology, appear to echo Bachmann et al.'s (2015: 1130) argument that relational trust repair strategies which included apology may be perceived as 'simply a well-crafted show for the public' and not really relational acts that reflect genuine remorse and redemption. Another reason might be that for organizational and institutional-level trust repair requires more than apologies (e.g., Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Finally, a reason might be that instead of focusing on more general impression of trustee consumer considered trustee's apology in a very specific context. This is in line with Schweitzer et al.'s (2006) argument that in such contexts an apology may leave trust judgments unchanged. Similarly, while the organization's promise was welcomed by consumers, it was not effective for trust repair. For consumers, the root problem and cause of their damaged trust was the organization's poor or insufficient product control systems (i.e., ability issue). When consumers heard about the organization's promise, they knew that, at that point, the promise itself did not improve organization's product control systems. Furthermore, consumers believed that such improvement cannot happen "overnight". So, when consumers heard the promise they believed that the organization was still unable to avoid a repeat of the scandal. The fact that new mislabelled products were discovered on a daily/weekly basis further substantiated this belief. When consumers heard the organization's promise ,the scale and details of the scandal were still unknown.

This ends my discussion of the theoretical implications of this study. In sum, I showed that my findings allowed me to make a number of theoretical contributions to trust recovery literature. I now turn to the methodological contribution of this study and then present its practical implications.

7.4 Methodological implications

Recent methodological writing on trust (e.g., Lyon et al., 2012; 2015) demonstrated that trust researchers used a number of quantitative and qualitative methods to study trust. However, my analysis of this body of work and extant empirical trust recovery literature led me to conclude that grounded theory methodology was rarely used in trust recovery research in general and in recovery of consumer trust in particular. This is surprising given that such an approach is very valuable where there is a lack of theory (Charmaz, 2006,

2014; Gioia et al., 2012; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Locke, 2001), which is the case in research on trust recovery (Bachmann et al., 2015; Lyon et al., 2012, 2015). In addition, such rare use of grounded theory methodology is very interesting, especially because grounded theory methodology is an established and well-known qualitative methodology which allows "discoveries" about subjective phenomena from participants' perspectives. A lack of inductive theory building is likely a consequence of the fact that most trust recovery studies had functionalist underpinnings (Burrell and Morgan, 1979) which favoured deductive logic of inquiry. Specifically, to my knowledge, only a few empirical studies on trust (e.g., Elliott and Yanopoulou, 2007; Le Gall and Langley, 2015; Rashid and Edmondson, 2012; Sitkin and Stickle, 1996) and two studies on trust recovery (e.g., Daniel, 2008; Meyer et al., 2012) used some or most elements of grounded theory methodology. Daniel (2008) used several defining features of grounded theory methodology; however, it is hard to say, based on available information, if the researcher used theoretical sampling and logic of theoretical saturation – both key defining principles of any version of grounded theory methodology (Bryant and Charmaz, 2007; Charmaz, 2006; 2014; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Strauss, 1987; Strauss and Corbin, 1990; 1998, 2009, 2015). Meyer et al. (2012) stated that they used Strauss and Corbin's (1998) version of grounded theory. However, their methods section indicates that they did not use theoretical coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). My use of grounded theory methodology makes important methodological contributions because it is the third study that applied grounded theory methodology in general and the first study that applied the Charmazian version of the methodology to trust recovery.

7.5 Practical implications

In this section I discuss how organizations that face damaged consumer trust might use the findings of this study. First, organizations can be assured that after ability-based trust failure, consumer trust can be recovered. Second, managers need to be aware that there are two types of consumer trust recovery (unconscious and conscious), and not one, as previously thought. For organizations, it is best if both types are recovered. Third, unconscious consumer trust recovery can occur even if there are no reasons for such trust recovery (reasons are, however, needed for recovery of conscious consumer trust). To facilitate this type of trust recovery managers should consider actions that might reduce consumer perceived importance/interests in the organization's trust failure. To maintain it,

perhaps they should not remind consumers of the scandal. Reminding consumers about the issue is problematic if consumers also start making trust judgements and if they did not experience conscious trust recovery. In such a situation, consumers could become aware that they have no reason to trust the organization. The nature of unconscious consumer trust recovery also indicates a relatively limited role of the organization in unconscious trust recovery. Consumer thoughts can be influenced by their broader environment, including the media, other consumers, third parties, consumer groups and regulators, which can, by sharing problematic information about an organization, keep them interested and focused on the scandal. However, this might not be a problem. In real life, with time, consumers are concerned with events that are of greater interest to them which shift and keep their focus away from the scandal and their damaged trust, and thereby facilitate and maintain unconscious trust recovery.

Fourth, my findings related to conscious consumer trust recovery provide additional evidence that improving the organizational structures (e.g., product control systems) that caused trust failure can recover conscious consumer trust in an organization. My findings related to conscious consumer trust recovery are supported by prior conceptual and empirical studies (e.g., Bachmann et al., 2015; Dirks et al., 2009). In addition, in some situations, managers do not need to worry if consumers might not have heard their statements about structural improvements or seen such changes. Conscious consumer trust can be recovered anyway. If consumers have cues from their environment (not the organization or its components) indicating improved structural change, they will use them to "fill in" the information gap. It needs to be noted that this might not be the case in contexts different from this study (see below and Chapter 3 for more details about the empirical context of this study).

A cautionary note: theory of conscious consumer trust implies that in some situations, conscious trust in an organization can be recovered via cues even if the organization does not make required structural changes. This can happen when potential indicators of organizational inaction, by chance, remain hidden (e.g., no one finds another mislabelled product although the organization is potentially still selling them). In such a situation cues would not represent the true nature of the organization's post-scandal structure. However, organizations are discouraged from not making appropriate changes and relying on luck. Eventually, indicators of their unchanged structure might surface. Some participating

consumers said that if the scandal had re-occurred, the damage to their trust would have been far greater.

Addressing faulty structures seems to be worth the effort, given that high consumer trust is related with organizational performance, including loyalty and commitment (e.g., Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Sirdeshmukh, Singh and Sabol, 2002;), and strong, quality, long-term relationships with consumers (e.g., Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel, 2004; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Moorman, Zaltman and Deshpande, 1992; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Nooteboom et al., 1997; Tax, Brown and Chandrashekaran, 1998). In addition, for consumers, trusting others (e.g. organizations) helps reduce the complexity of modern life (Luhmann, 1979).

7.6 Limitations of this study

All empirical studies have limitations, and this one is no exception. In this section I discuss its main limitations. First, this study was retrospective. I used interviews to collect data about participants' recent experiences involving their trust in a food retailer. Retrospective studies might be the only viable option for studying trust recovery from the perspective of those living it. The main reasons for this are the difficulty in accessing "live" trust recovery and the unpredictability of trust failures (Gillespie et al., 2014; Weick, 1990, cited in Dietz and Gillespie, 2012: 8; Gillespie et al., 2013; Kramer and Lewicki, 2010). Nevertheless, the problem with such studies is that memory is fallible, and collected data might involve a possible historical reconstruction which occurred under the influence of subsequent experiences (Blaikie, 2007). I mitigated this problem by conducting interviews in line with the principles of cognitive interviewing (Geiselman, Fisher, Firstenberg, Hutton, Sullivan, Avetissian and Frosk, 1984). This type of interviewing technique was developed specifically to ensure more accurate recollections of past experiences. Therefore, I am confident that this strategy has decreased potential inaccuracies emanating from the fallibility of participants' memories and historical reconstruction.

Second, it would be ideal for a study of trust recovery to obtain direct measures of consumer trust in an organization before, during and after a scandal. However, because of the difficulty of predicting trust failures, such measures are difficult to obtain in non-experimental and survey research studies that include hypothetical scenarios and trust

failures (Gillespie et al., 2014; Kramer and Lewicki, 2010). Because of this problem, existing studies of trust recovery that investigate trust recovery using a qualitative approach (e.g., Gillespie et al., 2014) use various cumulative historical data which serve as proxies of pre-, during, and post-trust failure trust. While I had ample direct cumulative historical evidence of consumer trust before and during a trust violation (e.g., Harris Interactive, 2013a, b; Kantarworldpanel, 2013a), I did not rely on this data; they were cumulative, and not all participating consumers experienced trust damage. The only option I was left with was to retrospectively establish participating consumer pre- and during the scandal trust by asking them about their trust at these time points.

Third, a frequent question related with interpretive research is about the generalisability of the findings. Although I used multiple case studies (i.e., each participant was treated as a case) (Locke, 2014) instead of a single case study, which provides a stronger base for more generalisable theory (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007), my findings are not statistically generalisable (i.e., my findings cannot be used to make inferences about a population). This study included a set of non-randomly selected consumers and focused on their experiences related to their trust recovery in a food retailer in the context of an ability-based trust failure. There is evidence that integrity- or benevolence-based trust failures require a different approach. The dynamics of consumer trust recovery might qualitatively differ among different consumers, types of trust failure and/or different products and geographical settings. In addition, because consumers differ from other stakeholders (e.g., employees, general public, the media) by their interests and proximity to an organization, other types of trustors might require different paths to trust recovery. Because the cues responsible for conscious consumer trust recovery are fundamentally underpinned by a number of consumer assumptions and past experiences, which are themselves rooted in different contexts (e.g., cultural, political, economic, industrial), managers should not expect that conscious consumer theory of trust recovery applies to every context. For example, in the context of a tradition of poor regulatory frameworks and a lack of regulatory oversight, consumers might use different cues, or might not use cues at all, to infer whether an organization has improved its structures (e.g., product control systems). In such situations consumers would need to hear or see improved organizational structures. However, I do think that although this study does not have statistical generalisability, it can be used for "naturalistic generalization" (Stake, 1978, cited in Blaikie 2009: 193).

According to Stake, naturalistic generalisation refers to something we naturally do in everyday life. For example, we recognise similarities between things, events, issues and repetitive patterns. In addition, my findings may be transferable to other contexts that are similar to this study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

There are two additional "limitations". First, some researchers from a positivist/post-positivist paradigm may say that, by using an inductive theory-building approach and not using more than one coder to achieve inter-coder reliability, this study relies on the researcher's judgement and interpretation, resulting in subjective findings. This would mean that the findings are "contaminated" with the researcher's bias. I agree to a point. Yes, subjectivity of the findings is an issue; however, only within positivist, post-positivist and functionalist paradigms and researchers of positivist orientations need to make sure that they are "objective" (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Crotty, 1998; Johnson and Duberley, 2000). This research is underpinned by interpretivist assumptions. Within this paradigm, knowledge is always subjective. Objective knowledge is not possible – reality is always socially constructed (Berger and Luckmann, 1966, 1991). The quality and appropriateness of a specific study should be judged or evaluated in line with the epistemological standards of the paradigm within which the study took place (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Thus, subjective findings and co-constructed knowledge of this study are not really limitations.

Second, some readers trained in hypothetico-deductive methods might ask how the findings of this study can be generalised to a population if I studied a limited, non-representative sample of participants (cases). I would like to stress that the purpose of qualitative theory building research is not generalisation from the sample to a population, such as in hypothesis testing studies, but to build or generalise to theory. For this purpose, theoretical and not random sampling is appropriate, because theoretical sampling enables the researcher to direct all data gathering efforts on finding information that will best support their theory development (Charmaz, 2006; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Locke, 2001; Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Stern commented that in inductive theory building, random sampling would be the same as seeking a specific book in the library (for example, a book on the concept of trust) by randomly selecting a book from a randomly selected shelf (Glaser, 1992: xii, cited in Locke, 2001: 55). To be effective and efficient one needs to sample purposefully and not randomly. The key in theory building is to find relevant data that provide the substance from which research can develop a grounded theory. For

that reason, the non-random sampling employed in this study is not really a limitation. I now show the most interesting avenues for future research that stemmed from this study.

7.7 Recommendations for further research

This study opened up some interesting avenues for further research. First, conscious consumer theory of trust recovery showed that when consumers did not see effective trust recovery actions, and when they were unable to establish if the cause of the trust failure had been addressed (i.e., deficient product control systems), they used various cues to establish the state of the organization's product control systems. However, it needs to be noted that it took time for consumers to "read" various things as cues, which indicated the improvement of the product control systems, because time provided a frame that enabled sufficient accumulation of specific things that eventually become interpreted, by consumers, as cues. So, an interesting question is: All else being equal, what happens closer in time to trust failure when, in this study, identified cues still did not existed? In such situations, do consumers use different cues to establish the state of an organization's structures? If yes, what cues do they use? Or, is it, in such situations, even possible that conscious consumer trust recovers via cues?

Second, it might be that in time closer to the scandal consumers might feel negative emotions (which were not salient one-and-a-half years after the scandal) as well as feel a need for organizational restructuring. This possibility is worth investigating because such inquiry would shed light on the possibility that multiple trust recovery mechanisms might not only be necessary at the same time (Bachmann et al., 2015; Dirks et al., 2009) for trust to recover, but that, for conscious trust recovery, different mechanisms may be salient at different times. For example, for conscious consumer trust recovery, consumer relational or social equilibrium and structural trust repair mechanism (Bachmann et al., 2015) may play an important role immediately after the scandal. However, if consumers make a trust judgement about whether they can trust an organization more than during the scandal (i.e., did trust recovery occur?) several months after the scandal, only structural trust repair mechanisms might be relevant (as shown in this study). Understanding the dynamics and potential interplay of different trust repair mechanisms would make an important theoretical contribution to theory of trust recovery. Third, as is the case in all grounded

theory studies (Charmaz. 2006; Baker and Nelson, 2005), further research will be required to test if findings from this study apply in other contexts.

This ends my discussion chapter. In this chapter I first re-stated my research aim, the methodology used to investigate them and my main findings. Then, I showed that this study led me to contribute to theory of trust recovery, methodology on trust recovery and practice. I ended by pointing out the main limitations of this research and showing the most fruitful avenues for further research. I now turn to the final, concluding chapter of this thesis.

Chapter 8 CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, I summarise and conclude this study. This chapter represents the essence of the study.

I started this study by showing that trust as a phenomenon has a long and rich history that can be traced back to Confucius (551-479 BC) and the writings of Hobbes, Locke, Hume, Durkheim, Simmel and Freud. I also pointed out a long-standing interest in trust in the world of practice. I noted that early philosophical debates, contemporary works of trust and references on trust in the word of practice share one thing – they all consider trust an important phenomenon. Focusing on consumer trust in an organization, I showed that although trust can have a "dark side", most researchers were interested in its benefits. These can be lost if an organization commits a transgression that damages consumer trust. I joined trust scholars and practitioners that saw this issue as problematic, particularly for the organization, because such trust transgressions are common, and the consequences of damaged consumer trust in an organization are damaging (for the organization as well as for consumers).

I identified and discussed two streams of nascent but growing theory of trust recovery and research. The first stream related to theory of trust recovery and research within and between organizations and between organizations and the public. The second stream related to consumer theory of trust recovery and research. The first part of my analysis of each stream of theory of trust recovery and research led me to conclude that within each stream, researchers suggested or found a number of strategies that, alone, in combination or in temporal sequence (i.e., "stage models"), explained trust recovery. I also identified several underlying mechanisms that trust recovery researchers suggested that link various strategies to trust recovery.

The second part of my analysis focusing on meta-theoretical underpinnings of theory and research on trust recovery within each stream of literature led me to conclude that each body of literature suffers from great meta-theoretical imbalance. Almost all works, in each stream of literature, are functionalist (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). I ended my analytical discussion by identifying research gaps. The first gap was an under-researched area in theory of trust recovery, which is research relating to consumer trust recovery in an organization. The second gap was a meta-theoretical gap that relates to a lack of

interpretivist theory and research on consumer trust recovery in an organization (as well as wider trust recovery literature) that investigate the phenomenon of consumer trust recovery in an organization from perspective of those living it. Because of the theoretical and practical relevance of knowledge about consumer trust recovery in an organization (see the Introduction chapter for more details), my research question was: 'Why and how does consumer trust recovery in a food retailer occur in the context of the food adulteration scandal in the UK in 2013?' My specific research aim was to build and enrich theory inductively from an interpretivist perspective, and, in doing so, explain why and how does consumer trust recovery in an organisation occur. In other words, I wanted to understand/learn about what leads to consumer trust recovery in an organisation and why/how.

To address my research question I used principles of grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006, 2014). This methodology was particularly useful because it was specifically developed for inductive theory building. In line with the methodology, using criterion and theoretical sampling, I identified 31 consumers who experienced trust recovery in an organization. These consumers provided empirical data related with explanations of why they experienced trust recovery. I collected the data using semi-structured interviews and analysed them using grounded theory analytic procedures. I approached this study with meta-theoretical assumptions related with an interpretivist paradigm. Thus, I treated the phenomenon of trust recovery and my findings socially constructed by my participants and by me. Traces of my meta-theoretical assumptions are evident throughout this study. I need to note that grounded theory underpinned by interpretivist assumptions proved very effective for collecting and analysing qualitative experiential data. Identification of a sufficient number of participants and procedures enabled me to fully address my research question.

My research showed that there are two types of consumer trust recovery in an organization (I call them unconscious and conscious) and that the same consumers can experience both types. I developed a grounded theory that explains why consumers experienced unconscious trust recovery in an organization. In short, my analysis of the data led me to conclude that when consumers considered the scandal as less important, they experienced unconscious trust recovery. The sequential mechanism that explained this relationship consisted of two concepts: a shift in consumer attention and consumer inattentiveness to

the scandal/their damaged trust. I also developed a grounded theory that explains why consumers experienced conscious trust recovery. In brief, conscious consumer trust recovery occurred because consumers saw cues that indicated to them that the food retailer had improved their product control systems, which in turn led to consumer perceptions of the organization's renewed ability. Consumer perception of the renewed ability was an immediate antecedent of their conscious trust recovery. I need to note that this finding needs to be considered in light of the empirical context of this study. The empirical context determines the applicability of the findings.

My findings allowed me to make three theoretical contributions to theory of trust recovery in general and to consumer trust recovery in particular. The first contribution lies in showing that the same consumers can experience two different types of trust recovery, not only one, as previously conceptualised. The second contribution lies in developing a novel trust recovery factor (consumer perceived importance of the scandal) and a novel mechanism (the concept of a shift in consumer attention and the concept of consumer inattentiveness to the scandal), by which unconscious recovery of consumer trust in an organization occurred. The third contribution is the finding that conscious recovery of consumer trust in an organization can occur even when existing theory of trust recovery would predict that it would not.

This study also made a methodological contribution: it is, to my knowledge, the first study that used Charmazian grounded theory to study trust recovery, and the third study that used grounded theory methodology in general for investigating trust recovery. Grounded theory methodology proved to be very useful because it allowed me to come close to consumer experiences and develop a theory that captured their experiences of trust recovery.

This study is practically relevant for managers aiming to repair consumer trust in an organization. My findings provided a set of factors and sequential mechanisms which can inform their trust repair efforts. In short, managers can see that unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization is possible. The findings suggested a relatively automatic occurrence of unconscious trust recovery, and pointed to a limited role of managers aiming to repair trust. Findings related with conscious consumer trust recovery painted an optimistic picture showing that trust recovery can occur even if consumers do not witness an organization's trust repair efforts and cannot see for themselves the

structural changes needed for trust recovery. I note that practitioners need to consider the empirical context of this study, because it determines the generalisability of these recommendations.

I pointed out that this study, like any other, has some limitations. Most importantly, pre-scandal and during-scandal consumer trust levels were established retrospectively. I noted that while such gauging of trust, in the context of trust violations, may be the only possible way to establish if trust recovery, in non-experimental settings, occurred, retrospective trust measurement is nevertheless a limitation. I also noted that data collection using interviews might be problematic because of the possibility of consumers reporting a historical reconstruction of events occurring under the influence of later events. I noted that because of the interpretivist meta-theoretical assumptions underpinning this study, I do not see the subjectivity of my findings as a fundamental problem. According to interpretivism all knowledge is subjective. Similarly, I noted that the sample size and the purposive nature of sampling used in this study were governed by my purpose of theory building and theoretical saturation. My intention was not to generalise my findings to population which would require random sampling and statistically sufficient sample size. My aim was to develop a theory that explains why the phenomenon of interest occurred.

This brings me to the last point of this chapter. Taking a broader perspective, we as a community of trust recovery researchers need to ask ourselves whether we want to continue investing most of our efforts into approaching the phenomenon of trust recovery in general and consumer trust recovery in an organization in particular from a narrow meta-theoretical perspective that gives primacy to managerial agency and can result in fewer "discoveries" and more refinements of existing concepts. Instead, do we want to put more effort into approaching the phenomenon from different perspectives, which could enable us to see it from other vantage points? I join previous arguments (e.g., Siebert et al., 2015; in press) that stressed the importance of a broader, paradigmatically plural, all-encompassing approach to explaining trust recovery. This study represents one such approach. Such an approach not only allowed me to "discover" some of the missing pieces of the trust recovery puzzle, but also to point out where some additional pieces of the puzzle might be. Although such approaches are not without challenges, I believe that they truly hold a key to significant and radically new "discoveries" of the remaining parts of the trust recovery puzzle. The future of trust recovery research can be very exciting!

APPENDIX A: Summary of trust recovery literature within or between organizations and between organizations and the public

This appendix shows a summary of theory of trust recovery and research within or between organizations and between organization and the public. The appendix consists of one table.

Table A-1 Summary of literature on trust recovery within or between organizations and between organizations and the public

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Bottom, Gibson, Daniels and Murnighan (2002)	Investigated the effects of explanations and varying forms of substantive amends on the restoration of mutual cooperation	Experiment involving 225 students	Rebuilding of cooperation was feasible. Substantive actions were more effective than apologies and explanations. Acknowledgments were more effective than denials in short interactions, and vice versa.	Opportunistic behaviour	Individuals	Individuals
Brockner and Bianchi (2012)	Explored when and why employees may respond relatively positively to mistrusted managers	Four surveys and one experiment	Favourable outcomes for employees, accompanied by fair operational processes, led employees to respond positively to mistrusted managers	Not specified	Managers	Employees
Child and Rodrigues (2004)	Suggested policies that may help repair employees' trust	Conceptual paper	The authors propose that avoidance of unitary exercise of power, closure of interest gaps between top management and stakeholders, and employees' active participation in decision making should improve employees' trust.	Hostile takeovers, neo-liberalism, organizational hierarchy	Management (corporate governance) in the UK and the US	Employees
Daniel (2008)	How an organization can repair trust with stakeholders after committing trust failure	Study employing some principles of grounded theory and involving 24 participants	Trust repair involved: credible reparative information; evidence of organizational change; character of organizational executives and communication mode	Various integrity-based trust violations	Various organizations	Employees and customers

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Desmet and De Cremer (2012)	Explored how and when apologies may be effective in promoting reconciliation after trust violation	Conceptual paper	The effectiveness of an apology was determined by the trustor's motivational state(s). In case of an approach motivational state, an apology is effective for trust repair. In case of avoidance motivational state it is not. An increased sense of power and positive mood might shift the trustor's motivational state from avoidance to approach.	Not keeping a promise, lying or cheating	Individual	Individual
De Cremer (2010)	Explored the effectiveness of financial compensation and apology for recovery of trust	Laboratory experiment involving 86 students	Financial compensation was more effective for trust repair when the trustor experienced a negative outcome (financial loss). Apology was more effective when the trustor experienced unfair distribution of financial gains.	Unfair offer in bargaining	Individual	Individual
Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk (2010)	Explored the impact of financial compensation on victims' trust towards the transgressor, and examined whether the amount of compensation is relevant to this process	Laboratory experiment involving 146 students	Larger financial compensations only led to more trust when the transgressor provided the compensation voluntarily, whereas compensation size had no effect when the transgressor was forced by a third party.	Unethical behaviour	Individual	Individual

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk (2011a)	Examined if voluntary offered financial compensation was more effective for trust repair than financial compensation enforced by a third party	Laboratory experiment involving 72 students	Voluntary vis-a-vis imposed financial compensation was in general more effective because it signalled the trustee's greater repentance. Trustors with low tendency to forgive discounted this repentance in their decisions to trust again. For people with a high tendency to forgive, the offender's repentance mattered less in their willingness to be vulnerable again.	Unethical behaviour	Individual	Individual
Desmet, De Cremer and van Dijk (2011b)	Examined whether financial compensation can increase trust towards a transgressor, and whether the amount of compensation was relevant to this process	Four experiments involving 132, 213, 106 and 98 students, respectively	The amount of financial compensation was positively related with the level of repaired trust when the trustor was unclear about whether or not the trustee had an intention to transgress. When the trustor believed that the trustee had bad intentions, overcompensation was not more effective than exact financial compensation.	Distributive harm	Individual	Individual

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Dietz and Gillespie (2012a)	Examined how organization-level trust repair occurred in the BBC, through the lens of an organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009)	Theory testing using a retrospective case study	In general, the authors find support for the four stages of trust repair proposed by Gillespie and Dietz (2009). However, the authors find some overlap between the stages and with evolving new issues and events. Both underlying mechanisms (i.e., distrust regulation and trustworthiness demonstration) complemented and bolstered each other. The authors inferred that the BBC tried hard to achieve congruence across its interventions, and addressed all three dimensions of trustworthiness. Employees reacted negatively to the organization's efforts to repair public's trust.	A number of faked broadcasts	Organization (The BBC)	Public and employees
Dietz and Gillespie (2012b)	Explored six real-life cases of organization-level trust repair through the lens of an organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009)	Theory testing using retrospective case studies	The authors found support for the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009)	Integrity-based and competency-based trust violations	Various organizations	Various stakeholders

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Dirks, Kim, Ferrin and Cooper (2011)	Explored the implication of substantive actions (penance and regulation) for trust repair, and cognitive processes underpinning their effectiveness	Four experiments including 106, 143, 102, and 121 students, respectively	Penance and regulation were effective for trust repair. Perceived repentance was the key mediating cognition that was responsible for the effects of penance. Regulation was effective when it elicited perceived repentance.	Broken promise, unwillingness to return money	Individual	Individual
Eberl, Geiger, Aßländer (2015)	Investigates how an organization attempts to repair trust after organizational-level integrity violations by examining the influence of organizational rules on trust repair.	A case study of one organization based documentary evidence	Tightening of organizational rules is an appropriate signal of trustworthiness for external stakeholders. Tightening of organizational rules have negative effects for internal stakeholders	Organizational -level integrity violations (bribery scandal)	Siemens AG	Internal and external stakeholders
Ferrin, Kim, Cooper and Dirks (2007)	Compared the effectiveness of reticence with apology and denial for integrity- and competency-based trust violations	Two laboratory experiments involving 102 and 241 students, respectively	Reticence was a sub-optimal trust repair response compared to apology and denial for both integrity-based and competency-based trust violations.	Integrity- and competence-based trust violation	Job applicants (Study 1) and individuals (Study 2)	Managers

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Fulmer (2010)	Examined how the interaction among trust violation, collectivistic self-construal, ingroup and outgroup dynamics, and group identification affected trust dynamics after violation	Laboratory experiment involving 72 students	Trustor from low collectivist culture exhibited a smaller and slower increase in trust restoration after a large versus small trust violation compared with trustor from high collectivist culture. High collectivists, high on group identification, showed a small and slow trust increase in restoration, whereas high collectivists low on group identification showed a large and fast trust increase. Low collectivists high on group identification were more forgiving during trust restoration than low collectivists low on group identification.	Trustee not returning the money as expected by trustor	Individual	Individual
Fulmer and Gelfand (2009)	Explored the role of culture and magnitude of trust violation for trust dissolution and repair	Laboratory experiment involving 69 students	Trustors from a collectivistic culture experienced faster trust repair than trustors from an individualistic culture in cases of smaller trust failures. In larger trust violations trustors from an individualistic culture experienced faster trust recovery.	Trustee not returning the money as expected by trustor	Individual	Individual

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Gill, Febbraro and Thompson (2011)	Explored trust breakdown and trust repair in the Canadian military	Experiment involving 50 civilian participants, and a qualitative-inductive study	Six trust repair factors were identified: more effective communication with the local population and including the local population in their work; the military taking responsibility for their actions; provision of a timeline or a plan of the trustee's action; the military demonstrating greater concern for the local population; the trustee fulfilling their promises; resolution of the cocoa leaf crop issue.	Competency-based trust violation and integrity-based trust violation	Military organization	Local population
Gillespie and Dietz (2009)	Developed a trust repair model for repairing trust between an organization (trustee) and employees (trustor)	Conceptual paper	The authors conceptualised trust repair as a process involving four stages: (1) immediate response; (2) diagnosis; (3) reforming interventions; (4) evaluation. Each step involves various tactics. Trust repair process repaired employee perceptions of the organization's trustworthiness through distrust regulation and trustworthiness demonstration.	Organizational-level trust failure	Organization	Employees

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Gillespie, Hurley, Dietz and Bachmann (2012)	Explored the global financial crisis (GFC) from a trust perspective to identify insights and principles for the practical repair of institutional trust	Theory testing using a single, longitudinal (retrospective) contextualised case study	Found support for the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Key for trust repair was distrust regulation, control mechanisms and structural approaches (e.g., increased government regulation, reforms in board governance, cultural change within institutions, replacing senior leaders and redesigning incentive structures to better align management, and stakeholders' interests).	Global financial crisis	Financial institutions and financial market	Various stakeholders
Gillespie, Dietz and Lockey (2014)	The authors tested the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009) and reintegration theory (Pfarrer et al., 2008) in the context of various stakeholders	Theory testing using a single, longitudinal (retrospective) contextualised case study	The study supported the organization-level trust repair framework (Gillespie and Dietz, 2009). Three additionally identified trust repair factors were: re-establishing a positive organizational identity amongst the workforce; "changing of the guard" at the top; and reforming targeting procedures and culture. Denials after an integrity-based trust violation led to distrust.	Integrity-based violation (i.e., fraud and data manipulation scandal)	Severn Trent	Various stakeholders

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Haselhuhn, Schweitzer and Wood (2010)	Explored the role of trustors' characteristics (i.e., implicit beliefs of moral character) in the trust repair process	Experiment involving 207 students	Implicit beliefs regarding moral character (on the part of the trustor) were a key characteristic moderating trust recovery efforts. Individuals with incremental beliefs were significantly more likely to trust their counterpart following an apology and trustworthy behavior than were individuals with entity beliefs (i.e., a belief that moral character cannot change).	Decision not to pass on a financial endowment	Individual	Individual
Janowicz-Panjaitan and Krishnan (2009)	Predominantly examined how partners in an interorganizational relationship can repair violated trust, and if that was impossible, how they can preserve the collaborative relationship	Conceptual paper	The effectiveness of legalistic and non-legalistic measures for trust repair was a function of the hierarchical level at which the violation occurred (i.e., corporate vs. operating), the character of the violation (i.e., competence vs. integrity), the frequency and severity of the violation, the degree of constraint placed on boundary spanners by the organization, and the extent of the trustor's dependence on the trustee.	Competence-based and integrity-based trust violation	Organization	Organization

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Kim, Ferrin, Cooper and Dirks (2004)	Explored the effectiveness of apology versus denial for trust repair after competency- and integrity-based trust violations	Two laboratory experiments involving 200 and 444 students, respectively	An apology was most effective after a competence-based trust violation. Denials were more successful than apology after an integrity trust violation. An apology was also more effective when there was subsequent evidence of guilt. Denial was more effective when there was subsequent evidence of innocence. Neither apology nor denial completely repaired trust.	Accusation of incorrectly filing a tax return in a previous job	Job applicant	Manager
Kim, Dirks, Cooper and Ferrin (2006)	Explored the role of apology with internal versus external attribution for repairing trust after competence-based versus integrity-based trust violations	Laboratory experiment involving 189 students	Trust was repaired more successfully when the mistrusted party apologised with an internal attribution when the violation concerned matters of competence, but with an external attribution when the violation concerned matters of integrity.	Accusation of incorrectly filing a tax return in a previous job	Job applicant	Manager
Kim, Dirks and Cooper (2009)	Focused on how trust repair may be pursued	Conceptual paper	Trustors are likely to advocate the belief that the trustee is untrustworthy. Trustees are likely to promote the belief that greater trust is deserved. Relative strength of the efforts determines trust repair.	Not specified	Not specified	Not specified

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Kim, Cooper, Dirk and Ferrin (2013)	Explored trust repair with groups versus individuals	Laboratory experiment involving 673 students	Trust repair with groups was more difficult than with individuals. For both individuals and groups, denials were less effective than apology for competence-based trust violation, and apology was less effective than denial for integrity-based trust violation.	Competency-based and integrity-based trust violation	Individuals	Individuals and groups
Lewicki and Bunker (1996)	Explored the trust repair process	Conceptual paper	The authors propose that trust repair is a process which involves four stages: (1) acknowledgement that a violation has occurred; (2) determination of the causes of the violation and admittance of culpability; (3) admittance that the act was destructive; (4) acceptance of responsibility for the consequences. The trustee should then engage in action designed to undo the violation and rebuild the trust.	Not specified	Individual	Individual

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Lewicki and Polin (2012)	Explored the structure of effective apology for trust repair	Theory testing with four case studies	The studied elements of apology (i.e., expressing regret; acknowledging responsibility, declaring repentance; offering repair; explaining the trust failure cause and asking for forgiveness) did not fully restore trust. The authors argue that additional elements of apology (e.g., attribution of causality, communication medium, tone) are needed to increase its effectiveness for trust repair.	Various integrity- and competence-based trust violations	Individuals and organizations	Individuals (e.g., the public)
Lount, Zhong, Sivanatha and Murnighan (2008)	Investigated the effects of the timing (i.e., immediate, early, and late) of a trust violation on trust development and repair	Two experiments involving 138 and 108 students, respectively.	The authors argue that immediate or early breaches made it harder to restore trust than later breaches. Immediate breaches had long-run consequences which were mitigated, to some degree, by cooperative action. Any breach, however, planted a seed of distrust: a relatively quick return to cooperation looked good on the surface, but it disappeared in the end.	Defection	Individual	Individual

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Maddux, Kim, Okumura and Brett (2011)	Examined cultural variation in the utility of trust repair	Survey with 38 US- and 40 Japan-based and experiment with 102 US- and 103 Japan-based students	Apologies for integrity violations led to greater trust repair for Japanese students than Americans. Apologies for competence violations were somewhat more effective for Americans	Competence- and integrity-based trust violations	Individual	Individual
Martin, Siebert and Bozic (2014)	Focused on trust breakdown and repair	Conceptual paper with an illustrative case study	The authors develop a process model of organizational trust breakdown and repair in the context of repeated trust violations. The model of trust breakdown and repair combines repeated cycles of trust transgressions and attempted trust repair. These cycles of trust breakdown and repair were embedded in different levels of context that both shape their trajectory and are enacted by key actors in the process of trust repair.	Not specified	Organization (The Royal Bank of Scotland)	Stakeholders
McDonald and Walters (2010)	Explored how to repair inter-organizational trust	Conceptual paper with an illustrative scenario	The authors propose a three-step approach for trust repair: (1) initial public communiqué; (2) transparent accounting of circumstances that led to data loss and recovery; (3) independent audit.	Critical data loss	Organization	Organization

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Mueller, Carter and Whittle (2015)	Examines the role of the institutionalized mechanism of the public inquiry for trust repair in the context of the British audit industry	Case study. Analysis of the interrogation and testimony of UK managing partners of the four major accounting firms	Re-legitimisation of the industry occurs via trustworthiness transference from impartial inquiry leaders to the industry that suffers damaged trust.	The global financial crisis	Audit as an exemplar of an expert system	Public
Pate, Morgan-Thomas and Beaumont (2012)	Examined an actual attempt by senior management to restore employee trust	Longitudinal survey involving 206 participants and secondary data from employee attitude surveys in a context of a single case study	Trust repair closely corresponded with Gillespie and Dietz's (2009) organization-level trust repair model, except for timeliness. Trust repair efforts had a significant effect on employees' perceptions of senior management's loyalty, benevolence and openness. However, senior management's efforts did not recover all factors of trustworthiness.	Management's inaction in dealing with workplace bullying	Senior management as a group	Employees

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Poppo and Schepker (2010)	Explored how organizations can repair trust with the general public	Conceptual paper	(1) voluntary acknowledgement of an organizational trust failure and a commitment to a follow-up investigation is more effective for trust repair than no response; (2) quick and transparent organizational response to a competence-trust violation vis-avis integrity trust violation has a greater impact on public trust than the alternative; (3) denying responsibility after an integrity trust failure is more effective for trust repair than accepting responsibility; (4) an apology without accepting responsibility for a competence violation has a greater impact on public trust than denial; (5) removal of associated employees in response to an integrity violation is more effective than in the case of a competency violation; (6) structural, strategic and institutional reforms are most effective after a competence trust violation.	Integrity- and competence-based trust violation in general	Organization	Public

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Rashid and Edmondson (2012)	How people in multi-entity teams learned to trust in a context of extreme risk	Grounded theory involving 10 participants (20 interviews in total)	The authors argue that managers may repair trust by not only overcoming formal organizational barriers to trust through process innovation but also by overcoming cognitive and social barriers to trust through task-specific process framing, discourse and coaching that enables internalisation of new ways of being and acting. This study was not about trust repair but about building of risky trust between individuals without relational history.	Mistrust in general	Individual	Individual
Ring (2005)	Focused on governmental attempts to recover consumer trust in the pension sector	Inductive qualitative study	The paper suggests that the government can restore consumer trust in the public pension system by reducing the current complexity of the sector and providing a guaranteed, non-means-tested state pension for all, set at a reasonable minimum level. Policy change must involve public consultation.	Trust failures in the financial sector and increasing complexity of the public pension sector	Private and public pension sector	Public/ Consumers

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Schniter Sheremeta and Sznycer (2012)	Explored the role of apologies and promises for trust building and repair	Experiment involving 458 students	Promises and apologies were frequently effective for trust repair. It was argued that trust repair involves three steps: (1) trustee's recognition of its trust failure; (2) trustee's regret or sorrow stemming from having caused the failure, such as through apology. The trust violator should promise to change its behaviour to persuade and assure victims that relationship repair is possible; (3) the violator's corrective actions. If the trustor can't perform these actions trustee need to signal the intent to take them.	Broken promises	Individual	Individual
Schweitzer, Hershey and Bradlow (2006)	Explored how a promise, an apology, or a promise and an apology repair trust when combined with trustworthy actions	Laboratory experiment	Promise and trustworthy actions effectively restored trust after untrustworthy behaviour. Promises hastened the trust repair process. Trust damaged by the same untrustworthy actions and deception did not fully recover	Deception and untrustworthy behaviour	Individual	Individual

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Searle, Hope-Hailey and Dietz (2012)	Explored how to repair employees' trust in an organization	Survey involving over 2,500 respondents	Trust repair should involve the creation of a trust fund; leading with integrity in difficult times; servant leadership; open communication; reconnecting at the local level (i.e., concluding and clarifying the organization's goals with local line managers); and re-positioning the employment relationships.	Economic adversity	Organization	Employees
Siebert and Martin (2014)	Explored managers' attempts to restore trust after an intra-organizational breach of trust	Conceptual paper	In some situations the most effective trust repair strategy is inaction. Managers may be better advised to follow a logic of appropriateness (March and Olsen, 1989) in restoring trust among employees, which acknowledges the importance of context and managers' lack of control over employees' reactions to trust repair strategies.	Intra-organizational breach of trust	Managers	Employees
Sitkin and Roth (1993)	Explored the role of legalistic mechanisms for employees' trust repair	Conceptual paper with an illustrative case study	Legalistic mechanisms were effective for trust repair in the context of task-specific reliability (trust), while they were not in the context of value congruence (distrust).	HIV/AIDS	Management	Employees

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Sørensen, Hasle and Pejtersen (2011)	Explored how trust develops between groups of organizational actors and how declining trust can be repaired	Two case studies	The authors found that trust repair became increasingly difficult with decreasing levels of employee trust in management. It was argued that strong management actions that symbolise integrity, competence and benevolence may counteract reduced trust, but if low trust turns into distrust, the result may be a deadlock.	Transformational change	Management (as a group)	Employees (as a group)
Stevens, MacDuffie and Helper (2015)	Investigates reorienting and recalibrating as strategies for achieving optimal trust in inter-organizational relationships	Longitudinal case study of supplier-buyer trust at Honda and Nissan	Reorientation processes include substantial efforts to change parties' attributions of the intentions underlying past behavior, to re-establish social equilibrium among the parties, and to make structural changes via adjustments to goals and incentives. Recalibration practices can maintaining optimal trust	Relational dynamics between Honda and Nissan	Organization	Organization

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Tomlinson, Dineen and Lewicki (2004)	Studied victims' willingness to reconcile in an arms-length, transactional exchange relationship	Survey involving 44 students	Apology (with internal or external attribution) was more effective for victims' willingness to reconcile than placating the trustor after a broken promise. Apology with internal attribution was more effective than apology with external attribution. Both types of apologies were effective when they were perceived to be sincere. Timeliness, sincerity, a good past relationship and a low probability of a future violation were all positively related to a willingness to reconcile the relationship. The magnitude of trust violation had a moderating effect on the willingness to reconcile. The nature of the past relationship was weighted more heavily, whereas the probability of a future violation was weighted less heavily	Violation of explicit promise within the context of a business negotiation	Individuals	Individuals

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Tomlinson (2011)	Examined the role of relationship dependence and outcome severity in the context of trust repair	Conceptual paper	A more benevolent attribution for a negative outcome is negatively related to the difficulty of repairing trust. In addition, the author argues that the degree of outcome severity a trustor experiences will be positively related to the difficulty of repairing trust.	Negative outcome	Individual	Individual
Tomlinson and Mayer (2009)	Studied how trustworthiness and trust were updated after trust violation	Conceptual paper	The authors argue that after a trustor experiences trust failure he/she will feel emotional displeasure and will engage in cognitive sensemaking. This sensemaking consists of causal ascription, which is followed by causal attribution. Through cognitive sensemaking the trustor will establish the trustee's trustworthiness. Trust repair efforts should target the trustor's cognitive sensemaking and his/hers specific emotional reactions.	Negative outcomes	Not specified	Not specified

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Van Laer and De Ruyter (2010)	Studied restoration of consumer trust after integrity violation	Three experiments involving 153, 145 and 95 students, respectively	A narrative apology was more effective for restoration of integrity (trust) than any other response tested (narrative denial, analytical denial and analytical apology). The second-best response in recovering integrity was analytical denial. A narrative apology offered by an implicated employee was more effective than a response by a firm's spokesperson. No response fully restored firm's integrity.	Integrity-based trust failures	GP, CEO and sales repre-sentative	The public and consumers and
Webber, Bishop and O'Neill (2012)	Examined trust repair of top management within an organization, specifically focusing on the impact of perceived organizational support and issue-selling success	Qualitative study and survey involving 32 managers	Perceived organizational support was significantly and positively related to trust in top management. Issue-selling success rate was negatively related to trust in top management above and beyond the impact of perceived organizational support.	Competency- and integrity-based trust violation	Top management	Middle management
Williams (2012)	Explored the role of perspective taking in building and repairing trust	Conceptual paper	X's perspective taking led to interpersonal understanding of Y, self-other overlap with Y and sympathy for Y. These mechanisms led to X's possibility of	Not specified	Individual	Individual

Table A-1 (Continued)

SOURCE	FOCUS OF THE PAPER	METHODOLOGY	KEY FINDINGS	TRUST VIOLATION	TRUSTEE	TRUSTOR
Williams (2012) (continued)			influencing the emotions of others in a positive direction, X's goal alignment with Y and X's benevolent actions toward Y, respectively. These three mediating processes lead to X's trustworthiness towards Y.			

Source: Author's table

APPENDIX B Key trust repair actions taken by two main implicated food retailers (Tesco and Asda)

This appendix shows key trust repair actions taken by two main implicated food retailers (Tesco and Asda). The appendix consists of two tables.

Table B-1 Tesco's key attempts for regaining consumer trust

DATE	TESCO'S KEY ACTIONS FOR TRUST REPAIR
15 January	• Tesco withdraws its Everyday Value 8 x Frozen Beef Burgers (397g), Tesco 4 x Frozen Beef Quarter Pounders (454g) and a branded product, Flamehouse Frozen Chargrilled Quarter Pounders, after they tested positive for horsemeat
16 January	• They highlight that they find the problem with their products absolutely unacceptable. • They withdraw from sales all products from implicated supplier. • They offer refund for tainted products. • They acknowledge in a full-page adverts published in a number of national UK newspapers their fault and they apologize for letting their customers down by selling products containing horse meat. • They provide contact information for concerned consumers. • They said that they will find out exactly what happened – and when they do they will come back and tell its customers. • They stress that they will work harder than ever with all their suppliers to make sure this never happens again.
30 January	• Tesco ends its contract with Silvercrest with immediate effect. • Tesco continues testing its products for traces of horsemeat.
5 February	• Tesco removes the frozen Spaghetti Bolognese from sales after Findus's concerns with the source of its meat processed by Comigel.
11 February	• After the frozen Spaghetti Bolognese tested positive for horse meat Tesco announced that they will not take food from Comigel facilities again. • They said that they are sorry that they let their customers down.
15 February	• Tesco plans to launch new 'farm and factory' website which will 'take' customers into the farms and factories to see who the farmers are and how they Tesco's products are produced. They highlight that they had been working 'flat out to get to the bottom of the issue. • Tesco highlights the number of tests they performed. Together with other major UK supermarkets they wrote an open letter to customers reassuring that whatever steps necessary will be taken to restore customer trust. • They said that they will set a new benchmark for the testing of the products. • Plan to analyse their supply chain to increase visibility and transparency • They are building a website which will show customers the progress they are making with their testing programme.

Table B-1 (Continued)

DATE	TESCO'S KEY ACTIONS FOR TRUST REPAIR
15 February	• They plan to open their supply chain to its customers and give them more information than any other retailer has given them before. • Tesco aims to increase transparency and collaboration with the suppliers. • They promise to make all changes necessary to prevent similar events in the future.
22 February	• Further 100 Tesco products tested negative.
27 February	• Tesco launches its food news website: tescofoodnews.com. Key information include: number of tests carried out (showing how many are were negative or positive); promises (including putting in place better controls; bringing food closer to home; building better relationships with the farmers; creating more transparency); a timeline of the events related to horse meat scandal at Tesco. • Tesco's CEO Philip Clarke speaks at the National Farmers Union annual conference. He announces the commitments Tesco is making to the UK farming and the launch of a new website giving customers an insight into the food supply chain and testing of products. • To buy more meat from UK and to install cameras at its suppliers. • Tesco highlights that they already are the biggest customer of UK agriculture but that they can do much more. • Tesco will start souring other products such as chicken, frozen and ready meals from UK. • Tesco stresses the importance of bringing food closer to home. • They will have more partnership and collaboration with farmers. • Tesco states that the scandal has minimal effect on their sales. • Tesco promises to tighten the supply chain. • They highlight that their objective is that products contain what is on the label. • They highlight that out of 300 tests only few were positive.
5 March	• Tesco places advert in newspapers across the UK to let people know about ongoing commitments and changes.
12 March	• Tesco completes testing on further 118 products. All tests are negative for horsemeat. • Frozen Tesco Simply Roast Meatloaf 600g tests positive for traces of 2-5% horsemeat and is immediately withdrawn from sale.
13 March	• Tesco highlights that tests on 15 other lines from the same factory were tested negative for horse meat. • They say that they are sorry that they have had a further product which failed to meet the high standards we and our customers expect. • They started investigation into how horse meat came in the product. Then they will take decision whether to continue using the supplier. • They highlighted that they tested 500 product lines. • Tesco completes testing on further 150 products, all test negative for horsemeat

Table B-1 (Continued)

DATE	TESCO'S KEY ACTIONS FOR TRUST REPAIR
19 March	• Tesco completes testing on further 141 products. All test negative for horsemeat.
23 April	• Tesco group commercial director Kevin Grace speaks at the National Farmers Union Council giving an update on the commitments Tesco made to UK farming earlier in February.

Source: The BBC (2013a, c); Tesco (2013); The Guardian (2013 a, b); The Independent (2013); The Financial Times (2013); Marketing Magazine (2013)

Table B-2 Asda's key attempts for regaining consumer trust

DATE	ASDA'S KEY ACTIONS FOR TRUST REPAIR
16 January	• Asda clears nine of its beef burger products including smart value brand, as a 'precautionary measure' and launches full traceability audit with their suppliers. • A spokeswoman for Asda said: 'We take matters like this extremely seriously [...]'
5 February	• As a precaution they withdrew additional beef burger products although tests show that they do not contain horse meat. • They say that 'although all the science says there's no trace of horse meat in the burgers produced for Asda, we can't and won't take any chances when it comes to the authenticity of ingredients in our products – so as a precaution we've taken all four frozen burger products off sale.' They also instructed the producer (Freeza Meats) to segregate and hold any frozen burgers currently in production or in their supply chain destined for Asda
14 February	• Asda withdrew its 'Chosen by You' 350g fresh beef Bolognese sauce after being tested positive for traces of horse DNA. • As a precaution the supermarket withdrew three other products from Bristol based supplier Greencore: a beef broth soup, 'meat feast' pasta sauce and chilli con carne soup. • Asda said: 'we want you to have complete confidence in the food you buy at Asda so we are taking a belt and braces approach, moving swiftly to remove products from sale as a precaution even when there is no direct evidence that one of our own products is affected. We're also committed to giving you all the facts as soon as possible.' • An Asda spokeswoman said: 'we're very sorry if this ongoing situation is causing our customers any upset or inconvenience. We, along with the rest of the industry, are working hard to ensure they can have complete confidence in the food they buy.
21 February	• Asda vows to leave 'no stone unturned' in its supply chain in an effort to restore consumer confidence. Asda's CEO said that they are going wider than the testing required by the FSA regardless the costs because we want customers to be confident that everything they buy is what it says it is. • In an interview Asda CEO highlights that: (1) he was shocked; (2) that the first thing they did was to look inside their own organization to identify any issues they should be concerned about; (3) that they took a transparent approach right from the start and that they embarked on 'what is a world-leading change for the industry and our organization in terms of testing'; (4) that they will fully examine their supply chain.

Table B-1 (Continued)

DATE	ASDA'S KEY ACTIONS FOR TRUST REPAIR
9 April	• Asda states its commitment to keep its customers up to date on the testing programme. • They highlighted that they took extremely cautious approach carrying out more than 700 tests and swiftly removed any wherever they have the smallest concern. • They further commit themselves to further regular testing and to update its customers with the latest news as soon as they can. • They work closely with the FSA to ensure that the product contains what the label says. • They offer refunds for any products customers are not 100% happy with. • They offer information how concerned customers can contact them.
17 May	• Andy Clarke, ASDA CEO says that 'It's fair to say trust was dented. There was some marginal sales impact initially, but we've seen that recover. We are back to where we were.'

Source: websites of the BBC (2013a, c), Asda (2013), the Guardian (2013 a, b), the Independent (2013), the Financial Times (2013), ITN (2013), Marketing Week (2013), the Telegraph (2013)

APPENDIX C: Evidence of unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization

In this appendix I provide evidence on unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer. These data are important because they demonstrate that: (1) participating consumers had relevant experience about the phenomena (i.e., unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer) that I, in this study, seek to explain; and that (2) both types of trust recovery exist. I first report qualitative evidence of unconscious consumer trust recovery. Then, I report quantitative evidence of conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer, and qualitative data that corroborate them. All tables and figures are followed by a brief commentary.

Evidence on unconscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer

In this section I present qualitative data related to unconscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer. Table C-1 summarises this study's exemplary evidence on this type of trust recovery. These data relate to instances where consumers were describing their trust experiences without being prompted (by me) to explain how much they trusted the retailer.

Table C-1 Exemplary qualitative data about the trust levels of individual consumers before the scandal, during the scandal and eighteen months after the scandal, relating to unconscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer*

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL, RELATING TO UNCONSCIOUS TRUST RECOVERY IN A FOOD RETAILER
Consumer 1	When nothing happens I do not think about my trust in a food retailer. I guess I just trust.
Consumer 2	Trust means spontaneity ... it is very natural, and it is very spontaneous. It is part of your life ... You don't think about it. If you think about it I think there is something critical in your mind, yeah [...] during the scandal I thought about trust. I think, it is a hard question but I think if you look at it before crisis and after crisis I think the trust domain is the same, because, like, for me, now, if I go to Tesco to buy stuff I pretty much would buy anything I want. I mean anything I plan to get. Not like, oh, like I will not get these particular things in Tesco, like meat, if I would like to buy a pack of meat, I would get it from someone else. But I would just buy, like, buy two so you get sale or like bread from Tesco but not meat. It is not happening. [...] So, before and after the crisis my trust domain is pretty much at the same level.
Consumer 3	Before the scandal, I never considered how much I trust Tesco. Before that I didn't really question what is in the meat [...] before the scandal I wasn't thinking about trust because there was no scandal [...] Even now after the scandal I don't question it either [...] during the scandal I had to think about what was in the meat [...] we definitely stopped buying lasagne for a month and then probably within a couple of months after that I predominantly forgot about the issue and after that trust just it just cramped to seven from six [consumer is referring to change in his trust]
Consumer 4	I do not think about how much I trusted these retailers. During the scandal I did.
Consumer 5	There have not been many events that made me think, oh yes, I should start trusting Tesco again. I think it has been just, the memory is a funny thing, I mean, going back into old habit.

Table C-1 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL, RELATING TO UNCONSCIOUS TRUST RECOVERY IN A FOOD RETAILER
Consumer 5 (continued)	I suppose day to day you don't really think about trust in them, that is not, you don't think about whether you're gonna buy it or not, whether you're gonna use it or you don't think so much about trust unless there is a controversy related to some aspect [...] I don't think about my trust in the supermarket on a day-to-day basis.
Consumer 6	Of course there is a level of, how can I say, it is just that you don't, you start doubting, yeah. Yeah, you just start doubting the transparency of the information that is given on the label. ... There is a doubt in your mind.
Consumer 7	I guess I subconsciously assumed that if I was doing my part and buying what was labelled premium brands or paying extra for additional quality, that I was being met more than halfway by the supplier or the retailer.
Consumer 8	I started questioning what they are selling because when you realise that one product they are selling is completely different from what is inside, how do you know that what happens with yogurt is OK because it may be exactly the same.
Consumer 9	it was in the news I actually had to think about that. I had to think about what is in the meat really. I am not quite sure but maybe I stayed away from the meat shelves. During the scandal I had to think about what is in the meat. Now I don't need to think about this anymore.
Consumer 10	Trust in these retailers only became prominent when the scandal happened. I never actively though about if can trust them that what they are selling what they are selling. I just assumed that if they say the product contains beef it contains beef.
Consumer 11	I somehow assumed that what they put on the label is what they put in the products. Certainly before and I guess even after [...]
Consumer 12	OK. YOU SAID YOU DID NOT THINK ABOUT YOUR TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL. No.
Consumer 13	So at that point when the scandal happened, the trust, the issue of trust became more prominent than maybe it is now. Because now it is just, it is there, but I am not thinking about it that much [...] it is a routine; it got back to a routine. [...] at some point I just started going there [to Tesco] Before the scandal, I didn't have specific concerns with them about trust.

Table C-1 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL, RELATING TO UNCONSCIOUS TRUST RECOVERY IN A FOOD RETAILER
Consumer 14	Now and before the scandal I take it for granted that they sell what they are supposed to sell. You do trust them. During the scandal you couldn't trust them about what was on the shelves. Before the scandal, I did not question if the products sold by Tesco or Asda were correctly labelled. I did not think it wasn't beef.
Consumer 15	With this specific issue, to be honest, before the scandal I didn't specifically think that they were selling mislabelled food [...]
Consumer 16	[...] trust gets back to normal.
Consumer 17	To be honest I didn't really think too much about it ... I just went on ... Before the scandal, I did not think about my trust in Tesco and if you had asked me then I would really be surprised why you were asking me about trust anyway [...] ... During the scandal that just went to zero really. And now [...] I would probably go with about 3. But I do not think about this. I think, funny enough I don't think I ever have expectations of any shop, but what happened with the scandal is people started to think where things come from, can we really trust supermarkets, because I never did question this thing before, I just went on.

Table C-1 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL, RELATING TO UNCONSCIOUS TRUST RECOVERY IN A FOOD RETAILER
Consumer 18	Today, I don't think about trust when I am in Tesco. I did not really think about trust; I just treated them as in the past. In the past I really did not think about trust. I don't really think about this [referring to trust in food retailers], yeah.
Consumer 19	I don't think deeply or intimately about the trust relationship we have. Now, when I go in I buy what I need to buy, stand in line and leave. We all trust them. We all shop there. Once in our life we have shop there. So when you buy a product from them you have a sense of assurance that they are not messing you around regarding quality. They are being honest and truthful with you. So you expect that when you go there.
Consumer 20	Before this interview I did not think about my trust in Tesco.... Before the scandal I did not think about how much I can trust Tesco. It was somehow automatic. We trusted Tesco that they know what they are selling ... During the scandal I did question them. I lost my trust in implicated retailers.
Consumer 21	Today, when I go to Tesco to buy beef products I don't think about trust. I just buy the products, like before the scandal.
Consumer 22	I didn't think about trust when I was shopping. The only trust issue I have is when the things are not priced correctly. ...you rely on supermarkets ... And you don't go back and test the product...

Table C-1 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL, RELATING TO UNCONSCIOUS TRUST RECOVERY IN A FOOD RETAILER
Consumer 23	I never questioned my trust in food retailers that they know what they are selling. My trust was there but I did not reflect on it... When I heard about the scandal I lost my trust in Tesco.
Consumer 24	Before the crisis I did not think about trust in a retailer. You somehow trust automatically because there were no problems and you did not really think about trust. During the scandal we did not buy these products for some time. Then you slowly forget about the scandal. Today, I don't think about trust. I just buy products. When the scandal occurred it was an alarm to me. I started to think about my trust in the retailer. I did not trust them to sell correctly labelled products. I started to make my own minced beef from scratch.
Consumer 25	Before the scandal I did trust, well, I did not really think about this. When the scandal occurred I started buying elsewhere. Today, I take trust for granted. I don't think about it. When I am in the store buying beef products I don't think about whether I can trust the retailer. Normally, you don't think about trust. When the scandal happened I started to think about trust – that I don't trust the retailer. You are simply buying, checking the prices. Today, I go to the store, pick the products but I don't really think about any previous scandals.

Table C-1 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL, RELATING TO UNCONSCIOUS TRUST RECOVERY IN A FOOD RETAILER
Consumer 26	I don't think about trust when I am in the store buying meat. Before the scandal I did not think about trust, or if the supermarkets are selling meat products fit for consumption. During the scandal I did not trust the retailers that the meat they are selling was OK. I did not trust them to sell OK meat products. Now, when I go to store, and when I am buying and thinking about other things, I don't think about trust. I do not think about whether beef is beef. During the scandal I did not buy the meat. It was out of the question that I would go in the store and buy the meat. Today, I do not think or question the content of meat products.
Consumer 27	I am not sure how much I trust Tesco. I don't think about trust.
Consumer 28	Before and after the scandal I did not think about my trust.
Consumer 29	It feels a bit funny now because it just happened that I think like this. Before the scandal I never considered how much I trust Tesco and Asda about what they are selling. The scandal made us aware that we trusted too much [...] today I guess I returned to my habit. I go there and buy. I don't really reflect on my trust.
Consumer 30	I was buying the product. You consider the price and how much fat it contains. That is the most important thing. I normally do not buy mince beef if I can't get like 10% or less fat.
Consumer 31	Funny enough I never realised that I started to trust them again. I simply forgot about the problem.

*I need to note that occasionally all data instances from a specific consumer need to be considered simultaneously to establish if their trust in a food retailer was recovered or not.

Comments

Taken together, the data in table C-1indicate that before the scandal and after the scandal, consumers did not think about their trust in a food retailer. They were not aware of their trust in a retailer. Their trust was habitual or routine. However, when the scandal occurred, consumers became aware of their trust. They knew that their trust was damaged. During this time they thought about their damaged trust.

Evidence on conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization

In this section I provide quantitative and qualitative data that relate to participating consumer conscious trust recovery in a food retailer. Table C-2 and Figure C-1summarise this study's evidence on conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization. To remind the reader, the methodology chapter provides details on how I gauged this type of trust recovery.

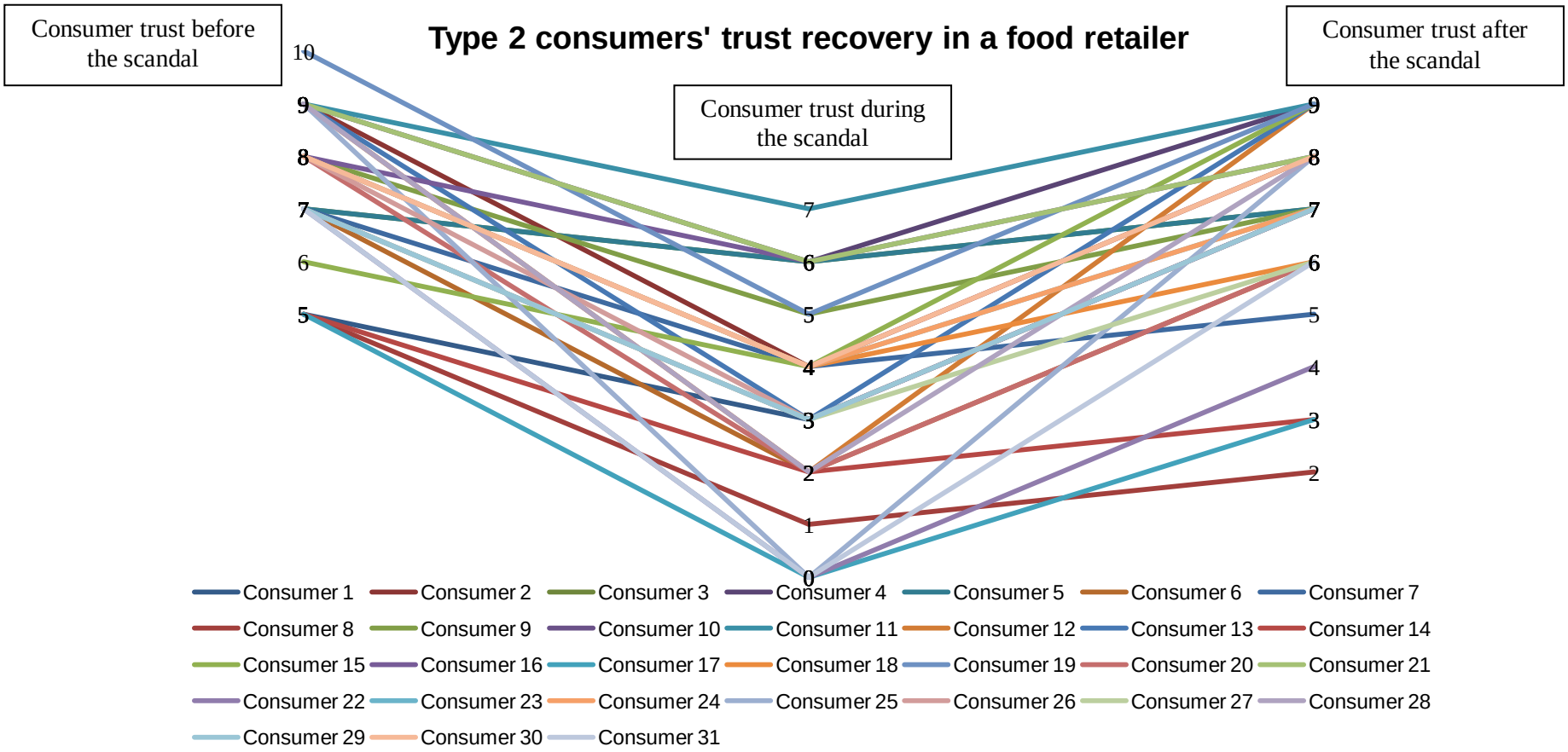
Table C-2 Consumer trust levels before the scandal, during the scandal and eighteen months after the scandal, related to their conscious trust recovery in a food retailer

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST LEVELS (1 = NO TRUST; 10 = COMPLETE TRUST)		
	Before the scandal	During the scandal	Eighteen months after the scandal
Consumer 1	5	3	7
Consumer 2	9	4	8
Consumer 3	7	6	7
Consumer 4	9	6	9
Consumer 5	7	6	7
Consumer 6	7	2	6
Consumer 7	7	4	5
Consumer 8	5	1	2
Consumer 9	8	5	7
Consumer 10	7	3	7
Consumer 11	9	7	9
Consumer 12	9	2	9
Consumer 13	9	3	9
Consumer 14	5	2	3
Consumer 15	6	4	9
Consumer 16	8	6	8
Consumer 17	5	0	3
Consumer 18	8	4	6
Consumer 19	10	5	9
Consumer 20	8	2	6
Consumer 21	9	6	8
Consumer 22	7	0	4
Consumer 23	8	4	7
Consumer 24	8	4	7
Consumer 25	9	0	8
Consumer 26	8	3	7
Consumer 27	7	3	6
Consumer 28	9	2	8
Consumer 29	7	3	7
Consumer 30	8	4	8
Consumer 31	7	0	6

Comment

Table C-2 shows the levels of consumer pre-scandal, during the scandal and post-scandal trust. Evidently, before the scandal all consumers experienced relatively high levels of trust in the implicated food retailer. The table also shows that the scandal had negative effect on their trust. This finding was also corroborated by a survey conducted by Harris Interactive (2013a), commissioned by the Food Safety Agency (FSA). After the scandal, consumers once more had relatively high trust in implicated retailers. However, most consumers reported relatively lower post-scandal trust than their pre-scandal trust. Taken together, these findings indicate conscious recovery of their trust in a food retailer. Figure C-1 below graphically depicts the data presented in Table C-2.

Figure C-1 Conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer



Comment

Figure C-1 charts each consumer's level of trust before, during and after the trust violation. Note that the numbers on the lines correspond to each consumer's trust level (0 indicates no trust at all; 10 indicates full trust). Individually and taken together, Figure C-1 shows typical "V" shaped lines indicating that all consumers experienced conscious trust recovery.

In addition to Table C-2and Figure C-1, I identified a number of instances in interview transcripts where consumers mentioned (unprompted) that they had experienced conscious trust recovery in a food retailer. Table C-3 below summarises these instances.

Table C-3 Data related to conscious consumer trust recovery*

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL
Consumer 1	To put it simply, on a scale of 1 to 10, before the crisis my trust was at the level of 5. But right after the scandal, you could say my trust in them dropped to 3. Thus, immediately I lost confidence in what they said. They did not do the checks.
Consumer 2	Yeah, so it means that I do have a high level of trust in a company. Otherwise, if I did not have confidence, I wouldn't invest my personal money into it. So, so, I think that was that, yeah. I mean, they have, I trust them... If you trust Tesco then you would engage, you know, purchase from them. You would buy things at Tesco, so definitely trust. We don't trust Tesco, you buy nothing. We trust very little, you would buy only branded stuff in Tesco. But if you highly trust Tesco, you would buy Tesco branded stuff. You wouldn't be aware if it is labelled Coca Cola or Tesco Coke. So you don't care. Yeah. [...] if you look at it before the crisis and after the crisis I think the trust domain is the same because, like, for me now if I go to Tesco to buy stuff I pretty much would buy anything I want. I mean anything I plan to get. Not like, oh, like I will not get these particular things in Tesco, like meat – if I would like to buy a pack of meat, I would get it from someone else. But I would just buy all the products [...] So, before and after the crisis my trust is pretty much at the same level.
Consumer 3	...we definitely stopped buying lasagne for a month and then, about, after a month later we, we like, I think we just gave up on this.
Consumer 4	[...] it helps me regain the little bit of trust I have lost, I would say. [...] my overall trust in the supermarkets might have been a little altered at the time, now it is not a concern anymore I would say.
Consumer 5	[...] I wouldn't say that I have more trust in them now then I had before. I think I would not buy from them if I did not have some level of trust.
Consumer 6	-
Consumer 7	SO, BASICALLY WHEN THE SCANDAL HAPPENED YOU BECAME LESS TRUSTFUL? Absolutely.

Table C-3 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL
Consumer 8	-
Consumer 9	...it wasn't such a shock for me and my level of trust did not really drop significantly. It has to do more like OK, maybe for this month I will stay away from the mince meat shelf but I wasn't really, but there wasn't such as significant drop of my trust simply because I always kind of been suspicious that something is not exactly as it suppose to be. So when it happened, I saw I was right, hehehe. But I wasn't like, again, there was this joke people saying OK there is at least some kind of meat in the sausage'. I stayed away from the meat shelves [...] I trust them a bit more now. Yeah, yeah, yeah, so my trust is rebuilt.
Consumer 10	So, I think that is the reason why the trust level started to increase again. It was like OK, yeah, they did break my trust [...]
Consumer 11	[...] helped me to increase my trust [...]
Consumer 12	I went to trust them again pretty quickly [...] [...] the things that actually re-established my trust [...] WHERE DO YOU NORMALLY BUY FOOD, MEAT PRODUCTS? At the moment in supermarkets. Tesco usually. OK. WAS THIS THE CASE BEFORE, DURING AND AFTER THE SCANDAL? Yeah. It was also Morissons and Sainsbury's.

Table C-3 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL
Consumer 13	But yeah, there was trust. Today, mh, it is the same [...] I trust Tesco now to sell me what they are saying. I trust that the beef is beef [...] Actually, when I go to buy beef I am going to Tesco [...] I wouldn't be buying if I did not trust. So when I said I was going to Tesco it is not like I am going away from the beef section. It is not that I am going there for only other products. I am going there and I am shopping [...] During the scandal, I stopped buying beef in general, because of the problem in general, because I was cautious about it.
Consumer 14	[...] it is also like you done something before so you may do something else so you don't get back to the full trust; there is always a small element of doubt. DID THE HORSE MEAT SCANDAL DECREASE YOUR TRUST IN IMPLICATED FOOD RETAILERS? Yes, it did.
Consumer 15	Now, I trust them more not to mislabel things [...]
Consumer 16	-
Consumer 17	I did stop shopping in Tesco I think, we stopped eating meat and I said to my friend now there will be no meat, I don't want to touch any meat at all. And like it was really few months. I think it was a summer when I started to cook and eat meat again. I had a few beef lasagnes in the freezer and they all went into the bin when I heard about the scandal.

Table C-3 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL
Consumer 18	I would say today I trust the retailer a little bit more. I think there is a difference because in the past I really did not think about trust. I just had some kind of medium trust. But after this happened, the issue of trust is there somewhere, yeah. So, it is coming back to normal. [...] this kind of situation made me trust them again. But I would not say that I trust them as much as before. I trust them a little bit less. I would only stop trusting again if the new scandal happens.
Consumer 19	Before the scandal I had a lot of trust in these big retailers. During the scandal OK my trust in a retailer slipped a bit. After the horse meat scandal it started to go up again.
Consumer 20	-
Consumer 21	WERE YOU BUYING ANY OF THESE PRODUCTS PERHAPS? Yes, primarily the sausages and the beef meat. I trust them to provide good quality, high quality food after the crisis. I rebuilt my trust in them and the score increased little by little [...] I don’t think my trust in Tesco would go back to what it was before the crisis. It would be similar to that but never the same again.
Consumer 22	-

Table C-3 (Continued)

CONSUMERS	CONSUMER TRUST BEFORE THE SCANDAL, DURING THE SCANDAL AND EIGHTEEN MONTHS AFTER THE SCANDAL
Consumer 23	Well, for some the problem was the fact that there was horse meat, but for me it was because I did not consume the product itself – the problem was the fact that I can no longer trust any of the companies involved in the production of food. ...overall there has been some decline in my trust in Tesco but I would say it is not only Tesco but retailers in general. [...] the reason why my trust has returned. I regained my trust in the company [...]
Consumer 24	-
Consumer 25	I do trust them more than during the scandal. In a way my trust increased.
Consumer 26	[...] my trust was repaired [...]
Consumer 27	-
Consumer 28	-
Consumer 29	-
Consumer 30	Yes, I do trust them as I did before the scandal.
Consumer 31	-

*I need to note that occasionally all data instances from a specific consumer need to be considered simultaneously to establish if their trust in a food retailer was recovered or not. Some interviews did not include explicit qualitative data about conscious consumer trust recovery in an organization.

Comment

Table C-3 shows consumer experience of conscious trust recovery in a food retailer. This qualitative data corroborates quantitative data about consumer trust levels before, during and after the trust violation reported in Table C-2 and Figure C-1.

Appendix C summary

I started this appendix by saying that data about unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer are important because they showed that: (1) participating consumers had relevant experience about the phenomena (i.e., unconscious and conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer) that I seek to explain in this study; and that (2) both types of trust recovery existed. Then I reported qualitative data showing that consumers experienced unconscious trust recovery. After that, I reported quantitative data about consumer trust levels before, during and after the scandal, related with their conscious trust recovery in a food retailer. This data provided strong evidence of conscious consumer trust recovery in a food retailer. Finally, I presented qualitative data that also evidenced conscious consumer trust recovery and corroborated the quantitative data about conscious trust recovery.

APPENDIX D: Exemplary quotes and initial codes underlying focused codes: product control systems; organizational ability; importance of the scandal; shift of attention; inattentiveness

Table D-1 Exemplary quotes and initial codes underlying five focused codes: product control systems; organizational ability; importance of the scandal; shift of attention; inattentiveness

FOCUSED CODE: PRODUCT CONTROL SYSTEMS	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Meat traceability/Quality procedures related to meat products	Since the scandal, they have more regulations in place to follow the meat now, as far as I am aware (Consumer 5) They might have started working on some kind of procedure for making sure that the meat they get from the manufacturers is the right type of meat, but I don't know what kind of procedures they could actually put in place or come up with (Consumer 9) I know these guys probably spent millions on staff, hiring and training them, getting quality procedures done (Consumer 19) To get more quarantines from their suppliers about the traceability of the ingredients that they put in there, in the product (Consumer 8) I don't know what they did exactly. You know, I don't work for the supermarket but I would assume that their quality control people must have tried to find a way (Consumer 11) I believe they will have much more robust internal self-regulatory systems now. (Consumer 2) I think they put more pressure on the suppliers (Consumer 14) They probably have to update their procedures for making sure that the meat they get is the right type of meat, with testing and such things. They probably have such procedures in place (Consumer 9) I am assuming that they have done it [improved their product/supply chain controls] (Consumer 19)

Table D-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE: PRODUCT CONTROL SYSTEMS (continued)	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Meat/suppliers controls/checks/mechanisms	...forces them to stick to the rules or do more checks or make sure that what they are selling or the products, the products' origin is clear (Consumer 10) I think they have a very high level of internal control, quality control, yeah (Consumer 2) They are now controlling the meat more than before (Consumer 26) I think that they did put control mechanisms...they certainly put things in place (Consumer 6) Now, you don't think that there might be any problem. They are controlling the products. (Consumer 24) I am sure they now have more checks now than when the scandal happened. (Consumer 17) I think they are very precise now with how they control supplied products. ... I am sure they have internal and external checks; that is what I would expect (Consumer 13) ...in the past they did not have these additional checks in place (Consumer 1) ...they may have put a system in place in the supermarket to control the products (Consumer 8) I believe they would have put a lot of systems in place to ensure that this doesn't fail again (Consumer 15) ...they corrected their practices for dealing with products they sell (Consumer 11) So these guys kind of learned their lesson [referring to poor product control before the scandal] (Consumer 19) ...checks put in place (Consumer 12) So that might have forced retailers to better control what they are selling ...do more checks or make sure that what they are selling or the product's origin is clear (Consumer 10) ...they are better controlling what they are selling (Consumer 16) I think they did put, to be honest with you ... I think that they did put control mechanisms in place (Consumer 6) I think they have more control now ... they resumed their product control ... the situation has improved significantly ... they have control over their supply chain (Consumer 21) ...they improved their control (Consumer 15) ...you can instill different mechanisms, right, and that is what they did for sure (Consumer 6) Tesco has improved their checks of supplied product and suppliers. These checks are initiated by them. They are not mandated. (Consumer 1)

Table D-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE: ORGANIZATIONAL ABILITY	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Organization being in control of supplied products/supply chain	They have control over their supply chain (Consumer 21) They are in control of their suppliers now (Consumer 1) It can't happen anymore, they are in control (Consumer 10) They will not overlook mislabelled products again (Consumer 13) YOU MENTIONED BEFORE THAT FROM TODAY'S PERSPECTIVE YOU BELIEVE THAT THE RETAILER IS NOW IN CONTROL. Yes (Consumer 11) They will not overlook the mislabelled beef products again (Consumer 17) I believe that today Tesco knows what is in the products. (Consumer 22)
Organizations' competence	I believe that in general they are more competent (Consumer 13) Today they are able to sell meat products that correspond with the label (Consumer 26) They are certainly more competent at the moment (Consumer 25) I am sure the retailers are more competent today. (Consumer 1) They know if the suppliers are selling them mislabelled products... (Consumer 27) Now, the retailers know what they are selling.(Consumer 24) I think now they are not selling horse meat. (Consumer 17) Now I assume that the retailer can sell correctly labelled products. (Consumer 3) Now they know the content of the products supplied to them (Consumer 31)

Table D-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE: THE IMPORTANCE OF THE SCANDAL	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Interest in the mislabelling issue	That was a scandal and it was exciting when it happened. But it couldn't go on much longer. It was no longer interesting. (Consumer 11) I wasn't particularly interested. Of my friends, I was one of the least interested in the horse meat scandal (Consumer 3) I did not read about it in detail during that time. I just browsed through the news actually; whenever I read a text about that, I just browsed through the text (Consumer 9) I was not particularly interested (Consumer 23) I would say it is a matter of disinterest (Consumer 3) There are so many things going on in life that, to you personally, are more important than the scandal (Consumer 5) I didn't really dig into that or read many articles (Consumer 4) I wasn't actively interested. I wasn't really involved, like every minute of every hour. I read the general headlines of what was going on (Consumer 19)
Concern with the scandal	...it becomes less of a priority for me. So, it is not something I have to remember (Consumer 5) Well, during, I mean, during the scandal, at first we were gutted, I am sure. You think, what on earth am I eating? But on the other hand, you are trying to, I mean from the media you are trying to get more information like, is there a health risk associated with eating horse meat? And it seemed not. So, that is why I think my concern with the scandal was reduced. (Consumer 2) ...it becomes less of a priority for me. So, it is not something I have to remember (Consumer 5) It was a concern; it is now a lesser concern (Consumer 7) Personally, it didn't bother me too much because I don't tend to eat a lot ready meals (Consumer 8) I am not concerned (Consumer 2) I focus on news that I am personally more interested in (Consumer 9)

Table D-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE: THE IMPORTANCE OF THE SCANDAL (continued)	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Concern with the scandal (continued)	Well, from my perspective, I was never really that bothered about this kind of product. If the products that I am buying more frequently would be affected then I would be much more concerned. (Consumer 18) When the scandal happened of course you are talking about it. Everybody is talking about it. You stay away from Tesco. But now, the things have calmed down. (Consumer 22) It is not like mouse meat or, you know, something disgusting, because, horse meat, to me, to my culture, to my perception, is acceptable. But, I mean, it is a small cheating. So, even eating horse meat, ...you lessen the extent to which it affects you.... Like, you hear about a war conflict somewhere and it shocks you at first ... You distance yourself from the event so ... your worry decreases. (Consumer 10)
Importance of the mislabelling issue	It just evaporated to irrelevance (Consumer 23) You get preoccupied with other things that happen, that are important, that are relevant (Consumer 23) ...it wasn't such a big deal for me. Maybe, at that point we actually did not buy much mince meat, now we buy more (Consumer 9) Then within literally a few weeks we got kind of bored with the horse meat scandal. (Consumer 3) With time the scandal became not so important...The importance of the scandal has faded. (Consumer 14) It faded, the importance of it has faded ...it stopped being an issue ... This is the story that does not interests me anymore. (Consumer 13) The horse meat scandal becomes less important ... I became less concerned about the scandal. You stopped being annoyed every time (Consumer 3) ...because, because it is not the centre of your life. But, at that point it was a big deal, but now it is not a big deal (Consumer 7) Other things became more important than the scandal. (Consumer 24) Time, time! So, as time goes by you lessen, I mean in your mind you lessen the extent to which it affects you. (Consumer 10)

Table D-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE: SHIFT OF ATTENTION	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Change of focus/interest	There is something else in the news that would have taken over my interest (Consumer 22) There was all this other news (Consumer 25) There are so many things going on in life that are more important. (Consumer 5) There is something else in the news (Consumer 22) Other circumstances come along (Consumer 14) You watch the news and then there were all these other things (Consumer 26) There are so many other things going on (Consumer 18) You start thinking about other things (Consumer 25) I think about other things that are more recent (Consumer 25) You are preoccupied with other things (Consumer 23) You just carry on with your daily life, you are busy (Consumer 20) Life is busy (Consumer 8) I think because people are so busy with their own problems in their lives (Consumer 17)
Start thinking about other things	Other things are happening in the world that take your attention away from historical happenings, you know (Consumer 6) ...you start thinking about other things like war in the Middle East or Ukraine or other things (Consumer 9) You think about other daily events. You focus on current things (Consumer 24) So, it is like that, it overrides, it actually diverse the public attention from you know, focusing on the wrongdoing of this company (Consumer 2) Other things happen. We move our attention to the next disaster. (Consumer 2) Around the time of the scandal there were so many other things going on in my life.(Consumer 26)

Table D-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE: INATTENTIVENESS	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Forgetfulness about the scandal	You distance yourself from the event so it is not on the top of your mind (Consumer 10) I mean, a year from now, if we say, it is like, we are so forgetful. We have forgotten what has happened. You know, disguising horse meat. So, it's gone (Consumer 2) ...that has just dropped off my radar (Consumer 5) Simply because I forget. I forgot about the scandal and my damaged trust. If it has not been for the interview I would not be thinking about this. I mean the last time I thought about the scandal must have been most likely last year. It is not on my mind. I simply forgot, I was buying the food in the supermarkets or meat, I don't think about that, I forgot about it. But when the scandal was like a big thing it was, it was (Consumer 9) I forgot about the scandal really (Consumer 25) Actually, during the interview, I started to think that I forgot about the scandal and the trust issue (Consumer 17) ...if I think the good thing they did is, if they mentioned a year after that they changed a lot of this would remind people of the incident and then even though if the improved something I would still trust them less because I would be reminded of the scandal and lasagne. (Consumer 18) Now, the scandal and damaged trust is not nagging in my mind.(Consumer 23) You forget about the issue (Consumer 3) You forget about the scandal (Consumer 26) I forgot about it (Consumer 13) The horse meat scandal moved to the back of my mind (Consumer 24) If I would recall the scandal and damaged trust when I am buying meat... (Consumer 26) I think it has been just, the memory is a funny thing (Consumer 5)

Table D-1 (Continued)

FOCUSED CODE: INATTENTIVENESS (continued)	
INITIAL CODES	EXEMPLARY DATA
Not thinking about the scandal	I did not think about the scandal. I wanted to eat spaghetti Bolognese and I bought the meat (Consumer 26) ...it was in a neglected corner of my mind. And finally I thought about the scandal when I saw your email. I can definitely remember it (Consumer 3) There wasn't anything to remind me about it so I stopped thinking basically (Consumer 9) I did actually have to think about that, I did not read about that. So it wasn't actually on my mind at all. So, ahhh, so practically I forgot about the scandal (Consumer 9) The scandal and lack of trust is no longer in your mind, our mind. (Consumer 3) You do not really think about it. ... over time you do forget about these things ... I was able to sort of forget about the issue (Consumer 22) You are not attentive to the scandal anymore and, as before the scandal, you don't think about trust anymore (Consumer 25) I didn't think too much of it (Consumer 12) It gradually started to fade away (Consumer 13) The scandal has faded over time (Consumer 23) You don't think about it (Consumer 6) I did not spend too much time thinking about it (Consumer 5) Immediately after the scandal you are thinking about the scandal and how you can't trust them (Consumer 5) You start not thinking about that every day (Consumer 10) It is in the background now. You don't think about it (Consumer 20)

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