The impact of Service Recovery on Consumer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE)

by

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Abstract

The current thesis contributes to service marketing and branding literature by investigating the impact of service recovery (customer participation in service recovery and firm recovery) on Consumer-Based Brand Equity (CBBE) and perceived justice. This thesis examines the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE. It further identifies the moderating role of service failure severity on the relationships between service recovery, perceived justice and CBBE. Finally, this thesis investigates the occurrence of the service recovery paradox with respect to the dimensions of CBBE.

The theoretical development involves a systematic literature review of service recovery literature which set the parameters to review the branding literature. A total of five research questions are developed to fulfil the research gaps which are identified from the literature review. For the empirical investigation, this research uses an exploratory sequential mixed-method research design to answer the research questions (RQs). The first empirical phase is carried out through a qualitative study. There are 24 Semi-structured interviews conducted for qualitative data collection. The second phase is quantitative and includes a 3 (customer participation in service recovery vs firm recovery vs no recovery) X 2 (low service failure severity vs high service failure severity) factorial scenario-based experiment undertaken by 322 participants. RQ1 is answered in the qualitative phase, whereas RQ2, RQ3, RQ4 and RQ5 are answered in the quantitative phase.

The findings of the qualitative phase suggest that perceived quality, perceived value, brand reputation, brand trust, and brand loyalty are the dimensions of CBBE, which have the tendency to decline after a service failure but may increase after a successful service recovery (RQ1). The positive impact of service recovery on these dimensions of CBBE, perceived justice and overall brand equity is confirmed in the quantitative phase (RQ2). The quantitative findings suggest that perceived justice is a critical mediator between service recovery and CBBE (RQ3). Further, it is concluded that service failure severity is a significant moderator among the relationships except in the case of service recovery and brand reputation (RQ4). Finally, the findings suggest that brand loyalty is the only dimension of CBBE which may produce a service recovery paradox (RQ5).

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Author’s Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, this 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.

Signatures:

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Abbreviations

ANOVA - Analysis of Variance

AVE - Average Variance Extract

BL- Brand Loyalty

BR - Brand Reputation

BT - Brand Trust

CBBE - Consumer-Based Brand Equity

CMV - Common Method Variance

CPSR - Customer Participation in Service Recovery

CR - Construct Reliability

FR - Firm Recovery

PLS - Partial Least Squares

PQ - Perceived Quality

ProA - Prolific Academic

PV- Perceived Value

RQ – Research Question

SEM - Structural Equation Modeling

UK – United Kingdom

USA- United States of America

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Research Focus

Brands are valuable assets (Sinclair and Keller, 2014) for firms in all sectors, and in services, the firm itself is the primary brand (Berry, 2000). Firms aim to maintain high levels of consumer-based brand equity (Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020), that is the set of perceptions, attitudes, knowledge, and behaviours on the part of customers (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010) and creates positive long-term cognitive, emotional and behavioural consumer-brand bonds (González-Mansilla *et al.*, 2019). Typically, brands with high brand equity enjoy price premium (Rambocas *et al.*, 2018), secure competitive advantage (Moise *et al.*, 2019) and gain lifetime value (Stahl *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, firms consider CBBE a predominant indicator to measure the strength of their brands (Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020).

One of the major threats to service brands is the inevitability of service failures (Li *et al.*, 2020; Ma and Zhong, 2021), that occur when firms are unable to meet the customers' expectations (Bell and Zemke, 1987). Service failures result in detrimental effects on brands. In particular, service brands lose billions annually due to service failures (Wolter *et al.*, 2019). For example, in the UK alone, firms lose £15.3 billion each year due to poor service experience and defections. Similarly, service failures cost firms around $200 billion per year in the USA (CCMC, 2017). Specifically, the restaurant industry in the UK contracted -3.1% to £18.8bn in the year (McAllister, 2021). According to the MCA (2019) UK restaurant market report, unmet customers' expectation is the key reason for the decline in the UK's restaurant industry. In addition to financial related consequences, service failures effect negatively on the brand facets. The undesirable service failure outcomes are evident when consumers generate negative brand perceptions, in the shape of negative brand image and low perceived value (Sajtos *et al.*, 2010). Customers also shed negative emotions such as dissatisfaction (Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Byun and Jang, 2019) and breach of trust (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016). Service firms also face negative behavioural consequences such as negative word of mouth (Israeli, Lee and Bolden, 2019; Swanson and Hsu, 2009) and a decline in brand loyalty (Cantor and Li, 2019; Mattila *et al.*, 2014). Hence, the inability of the service brands to avoid service failures in the first place is resulting in substantial losses.

The response to a service failure is known as 'service recovery' (Gronroos, 1988). Service recovery includes all the strategies and actions taken by the firm to mitigate the negative effects of service failures (Koc, 2019). Service researchers have examined the recovery and post-recovery stages of service failure and recovery process (Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2019). According to a recent systematic review of 236 studies on service failure and recovery literature (Khamitov *et al.*, 2020), the majority (80.7%) of the studies are related to the recovery and post-recovery stages of the service failure and recovery process journey. The interest of academics and practitioners are moving towards examining the impact of different forms of service recovery on brands (Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Dong *et al.*, 2016; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Jin *et al.*, 2020).

The literature poses three different forms of service recovery initiation. The first form, ‘firm recovery’ (FR), is described as when the service provider performs solely to resolve the service failure, and customers act as passive players (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020). However, today's customer is well informed, actively engage in service processes (Jin *et al.*, 2020), and is keener to be involved in the service recovery process (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, the second form is when customers and service providers both participate in resolving the problem, termed 'Joint recovery/customer participation in service recovery' (CPSR) (Dong *et al.*, 2016). Finally, the third form is when customers solely perform in the service recovery process, and service providers do not perform (Azemi *et al.*, 2019).

The firms may choose to offer any of the three forms of service recovery; but customer evaluation of the service recovery process is crucial (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). Studies related to the recovery and post-recovery stage have utilised "Justice Theory" to understand customers evaluations of the recovery process (see Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Liao, 2007; Ma and Zhong, 2021; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 1999). Perceived justice has been used predominantly in the past two decades because it has been considered the most effective tool utilised to understand the customers' evaluations of the effectiveness of the recovery process (Migacz *et al.*, 2018). Under the theory of justice, customers evaluate the fairness of the service recovery based on four traditional components of justice, i) distributive justice, which is perceived fairness of the distribution of tangible outcomes between individuals or groups, ii) Procedural justice which relates to the policies and procedures adopted by the service firms to solve the problem iii) interactional justice is the perceived fairness of the treatment of customers by the service employees (Tax *et al.*, 1998). Iv) Informational justice is the perceived fairness of the adequacy, accuracy and relevancy of the information provided by the service provider during the service recovery process. (Colquitt, 2001; McQuilken *et al.*, 2020). Perceived justice and its dimensions are key to understanding customers' evaluations of service recovery, which further leads to examining the effects on service brands (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Tax *et al.*, 1998). Therefore, perceived justice acts as a powerful tool in understanding customers' evaluations and as a strong predictor of branding outcomes (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Liao, 2007).

The linkage between service recovery and branding literature is with respect to utilisation of several brand facets as the outcomes of service recovery. The studies document that service recovery works as a toolkit for the service firms, creating a positive influence on service brands by improving the levels of brand loyalty (Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019), brand trust (Lopes and da Silva, 2015), brand image (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015) and positive word of mouth (Migacz *et al.*, 2018). Further, in the case of effective service recovery, it can produce a paradox such that the post-recovery levels of brand image (Andreassen, 2001), satisfaction (Michel and Meuter, 2008), Word of Mouth (Lin *et al.*, 2011) and loyalty (Smith and Bolton, 1998), may increase the pre-failure levels. Consequently, the literature suggests that brand facets tend to decline after a service failure, whereas after service recovery may have a positive influence on the brand facets.

The pattern of declining after a service failure and rising after service recovery suggests that brand facets fluctuate during service failure and recovery process. The term "fluctuate" (verb) or "fluctuation" (noun) is known as the fall and rise in a number or amount (Lexico, 2021). In the current study, fluctuate or fluctuation means the variation of the pattern of CBBE dimensions such that after a service failure, the levels of the CBBE dimensions decline; however, after an effective service recovery, the levels of the CBBE improve if the consumers experience a successful service recovery. Despite the signals from the literature that demonstrate the criticality of consumer-based brand equity within the phenomenon of service recovery, no empirical evidence is found to investigate the impact of service recovery on consumer-based brand equity. Specifically, it is still unknown that which of the CBBE dimensions tend to fluctuate (decline after a service failure and improve after service recovery) during a service failure and recovery process. It is also surprising that key dimensions of CBBE, such as perceived quality and perceived value, has been largely overlooked in the literature as an outcome of service recovery (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 1999). The overlooked linkage between service recovery and consumer-based brand equity is also deficient in examining perceived justice as a key mediator between service recovery and consumer-based brand equity and the moderating role of service failure severity between the relationship of service recovery and post-recovery outcomes. The investigation of the relationship between service recovery and CBBE is warranted because CBBE is considered the most frequent indicator of identifying the brand's strength (Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020). Since service failures are known to dilute the brand equity (Bambauer-Sachse and Mangold, 2011; Casidy and Shin, 2015), the effect of service recovery on brand equity is required to uncover the horizons towards its ability to influence the service brands in a positive direction.

Besides the overlooked linkage, both the pieces of literature (service recovery and CBBE) represent several deficiencies independently. Firstly, service recovery literature has primarily focused on the impact of 'firm recovery' (del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Smith *et al.*, 1999; You *et al.*, 2020), whereas investigations of the impact of 'customer participation in service recovery' on brand facets are scant (Dong *et al.*, 2008; Hazée *et al.*, 2017). Secondly, the investigations related to the service recovery paradox are largely focused on customer satisfaction and overlooks other critical brand-related facets such as perceived quality, perceived value, brand reputation and brand trust (see Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Boshoff, 1997; Karande *et al.*, 2007; Smith and Bolton, 1998; Tax *et al.*, 1998).

Regarding the branding literature, it is enriched with the studies that document its dimensions (see Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Yoo and Donthu, 2001). However, no evidence is found as to which of the dimensions are more vulnerable to affect when brands are exposed with unpleasant situations such as service failure. It is important for the firms because brands spend lavishly and devote maximum efforts to maintain a place in the minds of the consumers (Ahmad and Guzmán, 2020). The hard-earned position is at stake when brands face service failures (Casidy and Shin, 2015). Identifying the dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery is required to let the managers know the vulnerable aspects of the brand that require exceptional attention. Therefore, it is crucial to understand the impact of service recovery on CBBE with the dimensions that fluctuate in a service failure and recovery process.

1.1.1 Research Purpose and objectives

The study aims to explore the impact of service recovery on perceived justice, dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate within the service recovery process, and overall brand equity. In order to achieve the stated aim, the study attempts to identify CBBE dimensions that are vulnerable to fluctuate in the service failure and recovery process. The current study answers the recent calls from the literature, which mentioned that i) examining the influence of service recovery, which includes customer participation in service recovery (CPSR) and firm Recovery (FR) on various brand-related outcomes (Israeli, Lee and Bolden, 2019; Van Vaerenbergh and Orsingher, 2016) ii) utilise service failure severity as a moderator in the study (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015) iii) the brand-related outcomes should be examined twice, pre-failure and post-recovery, to examine whether paradox occurs or not (Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi, 2016; Ok *et al.*, 2007).

The four main objectives of this research are:

1) to identify the dimensions of CBBE which fluctuate in the service failure and recovery process

2) to investigate the impact of service recovery (customer participation of service recovery and firm recovery) on perceived justice, the dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate within the service recovery process and overall brand equity

3) to examine the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery, the dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate within the service recovery process and overall brand equity

4) to examine the moderating role of service failure severity

5) to explore the occurrence of the service recovery paradox concerning the CBBE dimensions.

1.2 Methodology

The current thesis utilises a systematic approach to review the service failure and recovery literature. The traditional ways of synthesizing literature lack rigour and are unorganized (Tranfield *et al.*, 2003). Whereas collating literature in a systematic way helps the researcher get an in-depth understanding of the concepts and identify key areas requiring further investigation (Siddaway *et al.*, 2019). The service recovery literature mainly falls into three different disciplines marketing, tourism and management science. Therefore, a systematic literature review is undertaken to collect and synthesise the literature in an organized manner.

An exploratory sequential mixed method design is adopted to achieve the research objectives of this study. The design includes two phases which are sequential and are executed one after the other. In the current thesis, the qualitative phase precedes the quantitative phase. Semi-structured interviews are utilised as a data collection tool in the qualitative phase, whereas an experimental approach was used to collect data for the quantitative phase. For the qualitative data analysis, thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data. On the other hand, Factorial ANOVA, PLS-SEM and Paired sample t-tests were conducted to analyse the quantitative data.

The methodology chosen for the current thesis is in line with the research objectives. The qualitative approach with semi-structured interviews is adopted to explore the dimensions of CBBE, which fluctuate in the service failure and recovery process. The qualitative research also informs the quantitative phase, thereby assisting the fulfilment of the next three objectives. Finally, the experimental approach is taken to fulfil the next three objectives.

1.3 Expected contributions

The current thesis expects to make several theoretical and practical contributions to the service marketing and brand management scholarship. First, this research aims to contribute to the existing knowledge of service recovery and brand equity by investigating the influence of Service recovery (CPSR and FR) on brand equity and its dimensions. In doing so, this study will be the first to examine brand equity as an outcome of service recovery. Extant research has investigated brand equity as a mediator (Harun *et al.*, 2019), as a driver of evaluations of service encounters (Brady *et al.*, 2008), and as a moderator between service recovery and post-recovery outcomes (Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Huang, 2011). However, much uncertainty still exists about the relation between service recovery and brand equity.

Secondly, this study will contribute to the knowledge of customer participation in service recovery. Existing research examines the instances when customers' participation in service recovery is effective (Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014) and how it influences recovery satisfaction (Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016; Kim and Baker, 2020a), repurchase intentions (Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2017), intentions to future co-creation (Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016); however, existing research has not dealt with the role of customer participation in service recovery in enhancing CBBE. Therefore, the current study seeks to remedy this problem by examining the role of CPSR in enhancing CBBE.

Thirdly, this study aims to identify the dimensions of CBBE that tend to fluctuate in service failure and recovery process. There has been little agreement on the dimensions of CBBE (Ahmad and Guzmán, 2020; Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020). Specifically, the literature lacks finding out the dimensions that fluctuate during the service failure and recovery process. Although existing research has examined the impact of service failure and recovery on brand-related outcomes, which are also considered as dimensions of CBBE, such as brand loyalty (Cantor and Li, 2019; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019), brand trust (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016; Pacheco *et al.*, 2019) and brand image (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015), it has not examined that which dimensions tend to fluctuate in the service failure and recovery process. Therefore, the study aims to enrich the literature by the identification of the CBBE dimensions which tend to fluctuate during service failure and recovery process.

Additionally, this study intends to examine the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE. The existing research has investigated the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and recovery outcomes such as repurchase intentions (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012) and recovery satisfaction (Liao, 2007). However, the evidence for the intervening role of perceived justice between the relationship of service recovery and CBBE dimensions and overall brand equity is yet to be discovered.

This research also aims to contribute knowledge by identifying the service recovery paradox concerning the dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process. Existing research has examined paradoxes concerning customer satisfaction (Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Michel and Meuter, 2008), loyalty (Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi, 2016; Smith and Bolton, 1998), image (Andreassen, 2001), and repurchase intentions (Soares *et al.*, 2017; Voorhees *et al.*, 2006). However, there is a general lack of research on the existence of the service recovery paradox for other brand-related outcomes, such as the dimensions of CBBE.

Finally, this study will guide managers on mending the standard procedure to incorporate customers' suggestions in recovering from service failure. This study will help managers understand the positive outcomes (such as positive influence on CBBE) of customer participation in the service recovery. On the other hand, this study will also examine the effect of firm-initiated service recovery measures that managers can undertake without involving customers in the recovery. Firm-initiated service recovery will also allow managers to maintain standard practices and policies to increase service recovery efficiency and reduce recovery costs (Min *et al.*, 2020).

1.4 Thesis structure

This thesis consists of 10 chapters. The structure of the thesis is as follows. Chapter 2 describes the existing literature related to service failure, service recovery and brand equity. A systematic review approach is undertaken to review the literature on service failure and service recovery. The generated research gaps and research questions from the literature review are demonstrated at the end of this chapter.

Chapter 3 presents the analytical approach adopted for the current thesis. An overall plan of the methodology is discussed. It includes the justification of the researcher's philosophical stance explained in the section of the research paradigm. The research paradigm is followed by the description and justification of the research design adopted to answer the research questions.

Chapter 4 outlines the qualitative methodology utilised for the qualitative phase of the study. This chapter starts with an explanation of the research design adopted for the qualitative investigation. The purpose and objectives of the qualitative phase follow the research design. Next, the explanation of the qualitative method is presented, followed by the method of recruiting participants. The method of qualitative data analysis follows it. Finally, it is explained how qualitative data quality is not compromised by adopting the recommended guidelines.

Chapter 5 explains the findings of the qualitative study. The qualitative findings are relevant in addressing the RQ1 related to identifying the dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process. The chapter utilised the quotes from the semi-structured interviews to generate the qualitative findings.

Chapter 6 presents the conceptual model of the thesis and the relevant hypothesis. The conceptual model, which is developed based on the key insights of the literature review and the qualitative findings, represent the proposed theoretical relationships among the constructs. Based on the proposed relationships, relevant research hypotheses are developed to answer research questions 2, 3, 4 and 5.

Chapter 7 delineates the methodology utilised for the Quantitative phase of this thesis. At the beginning of the chapter, the quantitative research design, its purpose and objectives are explained. Next, the experimental method is presented by explaining the approach to manipulation, controls, and development of hypothetical scenarios. The process of questionnaire development, selection of definitions and selection of measurements follows it. The next parts of this chapter include the approach to pre-testing and pilot testing. It is then followed by explaining how the questionnaire is administered and what was the sampling approach. This chapter also includes the approaches taken to screen the data and enhance the quality of the data. Finally, the approach to the data analysis is described.

Chapter 8 outlines the quantitative analysis. The chapter consists of four main sections. The first section of the chapter delineates the pre-test results, including the manipulation and realism checks for the experiment. The second section presents the assessment of the measurement model. The last three sections report the results of the hypotheses, which are related to RQ2, RQ3, RQ4 and RQ5.

Chapter 9 includes the discussion on the findings of the study generated from the qualitative and quantitative studies. The discussion is based on the comparison between the current study’s findings and the existing research. The correspondence and disagreement of the current study's findings with the literature review are also mentioned in this chapter. The discussion chapter is divided based on the research questions of this thesis.

Chapter 10 concludes the thesis by explaining key contributions. The chapter consists of theoretical, methodological and practical contributions. At the end of the chapter, key limitations and future research avenues are presented.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the past literature concerning the topics of service recovery and brand equity. The literature review reveals what is known about service recovery and its related sub-topics of service failure, perceived justice, and customer participation in service recovery. It also presents the extant knowledge about brand equity literature, including its conceptualisations, perspectives, and measurement.

The structure of this chapter contains three main sections. The first section includes the analysis of service recovery literature. This section starts with the search, inclusion and exclusion process of articles related to service recovery. It is then followed by analysing the definitions, typologies, and consequences of service failures. Next, service recovery is analysed concerning its two forms, firm recovery (FR) and customer participation in service recovery (CPSR). This section includes the definitions of both forms, different terminologies used for 'customer participation in service recovery' and types of recovery actions taken by firms. The concepts of perceived justice, service recovery paradox and service failure severity are discussed at the end of this section.

The second section contains an analysis of brand equity literature. The section illustrates the different perspectives of brand equity discussed in the literature. First, different definitions of consumer-based brand equity are analysed. It is then followed by the measurement approaches of brand equity. It also represents different dimensions utilised to capture consumer-based brand equity.

Finally, the third section of this chapter includes the potential research gaps generated from the literature review of service recovery and brand equity. The research gaps further contribute to identifying relevant research questions.

2.2 Search, inclusion and exclusion process of service recovery research articles

Doing a literature review is getting increasingly complex because business research is witnessing knowledge production at a very high pace (Snyder, 2019). The traditional ways of synthesising literature are often less organised and lack rigour (Tranfield *et al.*, 2003). Whereas synthesising literature in an organised way helps the researcher understand the concepts and identify key areas requiring further investigation (Siddaway *et al.*, 2019), especially when the research area is diverse and undertaken in different disciplines (Snyder, 2019). The concept of service recovery gained much popularity in the last two decades and have been examined extensively. The service recovery literature mainly falls in three different disciplines, marketing, tourism and management science. Therefore, it was essential to collect and synthesise the literature in an organised manner.

The review of service recovery literature was conducted in three business research disciplines, Marketing, Tourism and Management Science. The research articles were collected from the databases of business source premier (EBSCOhost) and Emerald. After an extensive discussion with two academic experts, the collection of articles was conducted using suitable inclusion and exclusion criteria. The final sample of two fifty-three, forty-one, and seventeen articles from the marketing, tourism, and management science disciplines were analysed, respectively. Table 2.1 elaborates the criteria used for the inclusion and exclusion of articles.

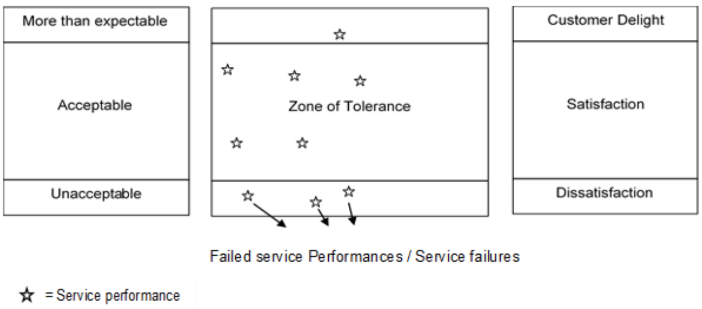
Table 2.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Inclusion Criteria			
	Marketing	**Tourism**	**Management**
Criteria # 1 Database(s)	Business source premier (EBSCOhost) and Emerald		
Criteria # 2 Journals	CABS 3, 4 and 4* and ABDC -A journals		
Criteria #2 Keywords	Service recovery, Service failure, Perceived justice		
Criteria # 3 Type of document	Peer reviewed		
Criteria # 4 language	English only		
Criteria # 5 Time period	2006-2020 (other wise 2019 where available)		
Additional information	Articles allowed before 2006 only which have high citation numbers		
Total number of identified articles	2126	1243	1536
Exclusion criteria			
Exclusion criteria #1 out of scope	Articles not related directly to service recovery (medical recovery, perceived justice utilised other than the context of service recovery)		
Survived	324	91	39
Exclusion criteria # 2	Editorials, commentaries, case studies, duplicated articles		
Survived	253	41	17

2.3 Service failure

Service failure is usually defined as the mismatch of customers' perceptions and expectations. For example, Bell and Zemke (1987) defined service failure as an event when customers' perceptions do not equalise or fall short of their expectations. Although services possess the characteristic of heterogeneity (Dall'Olmo Riley and De Chernatony, 2000), customers acknowledge this variability and accept a range of variations in services (Qin *et al.*, 2019). Service failures are incidents that fall below the "zone of tolerance" (Bugg-Holloway *et al.*, 2009). The zone between customer delight and customer dissatisfaction is known as the 'zone of tolerance' (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1993). Clearly, any service performance that falls below this zone is a mismatch of customers' expectations and perceptions and is known as service failure (Lee *et al.*, 2018).

Figure 2.1 Service failure depiction



Adapted from: Johnston (1995)

The review of the literature demonstrates that the definitions of service failure are built on three key insights: 1) occurs when service providers fail to match their actual performance with the perceived performance by the customers (Bell and Zemke, 1987; Bhandari *et al.*, 2007), 2) service failures are negative events that leave the customers dissatisfied and prone to more negative consequences (Bitner, 1990; Chen and Kim, 2019; Maxham III, 2001), 3) service failures may occur before, during or after an experience of the service (Bhandari *et al.*, 2007; Maxham III, 2001) 4) service failures may take various forms/types (Bhandari *et al.*, 2007; Jin *et al.*, 2019; Smith *et al.*, 1999). Hence, a complete definition of service failure demonstrates all or most of the above-mentioned features.

The service failure literature recognises several types of service failures (Khamitov *et al.*, 2020). The categorisations of service failures acknowledge that the mismatch of customers' expectations and actual performance of the service provider may occur at any stage of the service provision process (Akinci and Aksoy, 2019; Jin *et al.*, 2020). Identifying the type of failure is critical for the service providers to address the service problem effectively (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2014). However, the three most frequent perspectives on service failure typologies, Bitner *et al.* (1990), Keaveney (1995) and Smith *et al.* (1999), are commonly accepted in the literature.

The first perspective on the categorisation is contributed by Bitner *et al.* (1990). The three major categories in this perspective are i) failures in service system delivery' ii) non-fulfilment of customer needs and requests iii) unsolicited or unwanted behaviour of the service employees towards customers. The second perspective related to the categorisation found in the literature is contributed by Keaveney (1995). According to him, two categories of service failure are important to consider, i) Core service failures ii) Service encounter failures. The third perspective concerning the categorisation of service failures is found in the study by Smith *et al.* (1999). Their classification is widely accepted in the service failure and recovery literature (see table 2.2). According to them, service failure can be divided into two main categories, outcome failures and process failures. The details with examples are demonstrated in the following table 2.2

Out of the three perspectives discussed, typologies suggested by Smith *et al.* (1999) is most widely accepted in the service failure research. Smith *et al.* (1999) claim that the loss is utilitarian or economic in case of outcome failures, such as loss in terms of money or time. On the other hand, in the process failures, the loss is considered symbolic, psychological, or social, such as loss of self-esteem or status denigration. Moreover, outcome failures can also occur due to external factors. For example, the weather was not conducive, whereas process failures are mostly due to internal factors (Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2010a). For example, the employee ignored the customer's requests because he was not trained well (Ashill *et al.*, 2005).

The differentiation between service failure typologies is also understood based on the service's technical and functional deficiencies. For example, the core service failures suggested by Keaveney (1995) correspond to the fallacies found in the technical quality of the service (cold food served or inaccurate billing). The service encounter failure is associated with the functional quality (the serving waiter is rude) because it damages service delivery precision (Chen *et al.*, 2018; Coulter, 2009). Similarly, Israeli *et al.* (2019) suggest that outcome service failures are considered the technical errors of the service and process service failures are the service's functional errors.

Table 2.2 Existing Classifications of Service Failures

Source	**Categorisation**	**Examples**	**Representative studies following the categorisation**
Bitner *et al.* 1990	i) Failures in service system delivery	a) The gym facilities are closed b) The train is 2 hours late c) Overcooked food is served at the restaurant	(Akinci and Aksoy, 2019; Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Chang, 2006; Forbes, 2008; Forbes *et al.*, 2005; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2010, 2014; Gruber and Frugone, 2011; Jung and Seock, 2017; Kelley *et al.*, 1993; Mostafa *et al.*, 2014; Silva *et al.*, 2020; Surachartkumtonkun *et al.*, 2015; Tsai and Su, 2009)
	ii) Non-fulfilment of customer need and requests	a) Special assistance is not provided at the airport. b) The restaurant does not fulfil the request of the customer to change his table. c) The restaurant staff couldn't deal with the people quarrelling with each other	
	iii) Unsolicited or unwanted behaviour of the service employees towards customer	a) The waiter communicated impolitely with the customers b) The receptionist ignored what the customer said.	
Keaveney, 1995	i) Core service failures	a) The flight is cancelled/delayed b) There is too much salt in the food served at the restaurant c) An incomplete order is served at the coffee shop	(Chen *et al.*, 2018; Chuang *et al.*, 2012; Coulter, 2009; Dutta *et al.*, 2007; Kanuri and Andrews, 2019; Suh *et al.*, 2013; Swanson and Hsu, 2009)
	ii) Encounter service failures	a) The flight attendant is not friendly in her attitude b) The waitress ignores the customer who is calling him to take the order. c) The plumber does not know how to fix the water leakage d) The barber is talking on the phone and not paying attention to the haircut	
Smith *et al.* 1999	i) Outcome Failures	a) The restaurant is out of an entrée mentioned on the menu b) A wrong order is served at the coffee shop c) The reserved car is not available at the car rental services	(Bahmani *et al.*, 2020; Bolton and Mattila, 2015; Choi and Choi, 2014; Karabas *et al.*, 2019; Kasabov and Hain, 2014; Kim and Baker, 2020a; Lin, 2009; Mattila and Ro, 2008; Ok *et al.*, 2007; Shapiro and Nieman-Gonder, 2006; Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2014, 2018; Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2010a)
	ii) Process Failures	a) The flight is delayed b) The waiter is rude in his behaviour c) The preference for a king-size bed in a hotel room is not fulfilled	

Identifying the service failure types is critical for service firms as it sets the basis for developing relevant service recovery mechanisms for different types of service failures (Singhal *et al.*, 2013). Although the service failure typologies by Smith *et al.* (1999) is widely accepted, it has compounded several types of service failures into two broad categories. Similarly, Keaveney (1995) has combined several service failures into two main types, core service failure and service encounter failure. On the other hand, Bitner (1990) suggest a comprehensive service failure typology which includes three major and twelve sub-categories. Confusion regarding the usage of the above perspectives is found in the literature. An example of 'delay in service' is mentioned as 'process failure' in the studies (Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2010a), which utilised Smith's perspective, whereas the same example is labelled as a 'core service failure' in the studies which have considered Keaveney's perspective (Coulter, 2009)**.** The explanation of smith's 'process failure' and Keaveney's core service failure are different. Furthermore, the research suggests that different service failure types have different implications, resulting in various adverse consequences, and service providers have to respond differently to each failure (Chuang *et al.*, 2012; Forbes *et al.*, 2005; Luo and Mattila, 2020). Therefore, a clear division of the service failure types is still warranted.

2.3.1 Consequences of service failure

Service failures bring various detrimental consequences (Akinci and Aksoy, 2019). The adverse effects of the service failure bring out negative emotional reactions (anger, frustration, revenge) among customers harmful to the service firm (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Radu *et al.*, 2020). Service failures urge the customers to engage in post-failure negative behaviour and react in various ways, including the termination of the relationship with the service provider (Bergel and Brock, 2018). The Negative customers' experiences with service providers play a catalytic role in impairing the relationship between the service firm and its customers (Béal *et al.*, 2019). Undesirable service incidents leave a long-lasting impression on the financial health by adversely affecting the profitability of the service firm (Hedrick *et al.*, 2007). Although service failures are inevitable, these negative instances are undesirable for a service brand because even a brand with high brand equity suffers the damage caused by the service failure (Hogreve *et al.*, 2019).

Extant literature related to service failure consequences may be divided into three categories (see table 2.3). The first category discusses the cognitive consequences of service failures. The literature suggests that customers engage in the cognitive process after a service failure and negatively perceive the service firm and its employees. For example, Sajtos *et al.* (2010) found that service failures generate negative perceptions about the firm in the customers' minds and hence the negative brand image is formed. According to them, the effect of service failure on the service brands is easily identified due to the depletion of the brand's image.

The second category of service failure consequences discusses the emotional reactions of the consumer after a service failure, for example, anger (Baker *et al.*, 2008; Folkes *et al.*, 1987; Luo and Mattila, 2020), regret (Bonifield and Cole, 2007) and dissatisfaction (Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Byun and Jang, 2019) and breach of trust (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016; Weun *et al.*, 2004). Customers indulge in intense emotions after not receiving the level of service they expect. Among the several negative emotions discussed in the literature, anger and dissatisfaction are considered as most critical. Anger is considered an immediate reaction towards the firm or its employees due to a failed service (Luo and Mattila, 2020). Similarly, dissatisfaction is considered a default emotional reaction due to service failure (Barakat *et al.*, 2015). Service customers spend money, time and effort to receive an optimum level of service experience; however, a service failure results in tarnishing their expectations, and they feel emotionally drained (Chen and Tussyadiah, 2021; Maher and Sobh, 2014).

Finally, the third category of service failure consequences involves the behavioural responses of customers rendered due to service failure. The literature has mainly discussed the complaining behaviour of customers by relying on the complaining behaviour models (Day and Landon, 1977; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988). One of the most detrimental consequences of service failure is when customers start spreading negative word of mouth (NWoM) (Huang and Philp, 2020; Walker, 2012; Ozanne *et al.*, 2019). One of the reasons behind spreading negative word of mouth is consumers' psychological fulfilment of consumers (Chawdhary and Dall’Olmo Riley, 2015; Ozanne *et al.*, 2019). Similarly, customers reduce their future purchases from the service firm (Hess Jr, 2008; Sarkar *et al.*, 2021), resulting in a decline in their loyalty towards the brand (Cantor and Li, 2019; Mattila *et al.*, 2014). See table 2.3 for a detailed explanation of the three categories.

Table 2.3 Service failure consequences discussed in the literature

		Cognitive		Emotional					Behavioural							
	Year	**Brand Image**	**Perceived Value**	**Negative Emotions**	**Brand Trust**	**Brand Hate**	**Dissatisfaction**	**Forgiveness**	**Avoidance**	**Brand Loyalty**	**Brand Switching**	**Intention to**	**Negative WoM/**	**Behavioural/ Repurchase**	**Revenge Intentions**	**Retaliation**
Folkes *et al.*, 1987	1987			X								X		X		
Bejou and Palmer, 1998	1998									X						
Smith and Bolton, 1998	1998													X		
Weun *et al.*, 2004	2004				X		X			X			X			
Wang and Huff, 2007	2007			X	X								X			
Hess, 2008	2008						X							X		
Baker *et al.*, 2008	2008			X												
Grégoire *et al.*, 2009	2009								X						X	
Matos *et al.*, 2009	2009						X					X				
Swanson and Hsu, 2009	2009										X		X			
Sajtos *et al.*, 2010	2010	X	X		X					X						
Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2010	2010			X												
Walker, 2012	2012												X	X		
Suh *et al.*, 2013	2013										X	X				
Koppitsch *et al.*, 2013	2013			X												X
Du *et al.*, 2014	2014			X								X				
Maher and Sobh, 2014	2014			X								X				
Mattila *et al.*, 2014	2014									X						
Barakat *et al.*, 2015	2015				X		X					X				
Sengupta *et al.*, 2015	2015										X					
Casidy and Shin, 2015	2015												X			
Bougoure *et al.*, 2016	2016						X									
Sembada *et al.*, 2016	2016			X												X
Basso and Pizzutti, 2016	2016				X											
Albrecht *et al.*, 2017	2017			X								X				
Israeli *et al.,* 2019	2019												X			
Radu *et al.*, 2019	2019								X							X
Suri *et al.*, 2019	2019							X								
Byun and Jang, 2019	2019						X							X		
Cantor and Li, 2019	2019									X						
Hur and Jang, 2019	2019							X								
Kamble and Walvekar, 2019	2019									X						
Min and Kim, 2019	2019			X								X				
Ozanne *et al.*, 2019	2019												X			
Walker, 2019	2019			X												
Huang and Philp, 2020	2020												X			
Li *et al.*, 2020	2020											X				
Lu *et al.*, 2020	2020										X	X				
Luo and Mattila, 2020	2020			X			X				X	X				
Torres *et al.*, 2020	2020			X									X	X		
Chen *et al.*, 2021	2021			X			X	X			X		X			
Sarkar *et al.*, 2021	2021					X	X							X		X

2.4 Service Recovery

"To err is human; to recover, divine" Hart *et al.* (1990, p.156) revised the old saying with the addition of recovering the errors/ mistakes caused in a service process. Service recovery is known as the reaction to service failures to mitigate the customers' negative responses (Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019). Service recovery has been viewed as part and parcel of service failures, and failures are unavoidable in the service business (Dong *et al.*, 2016). Early research has acknowledged that service failures' inevitability is due to the variable nature of service and operational dependency on customers in a service process (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1991; Tax *et al.*, 1998). The foundation of service recovery literature suggests that "errors are inevitable, but dissatisfied customers are not" (Hart *et al.*, 1990, p.148). Firms attempt to alleviate the negative consequences by responding to service failures. The service recovery process is considered a 'moment of truth' in which a service firm has the only chance to satisfy its customers and allay negative consequences (Lopes and da Silva, 2015). Therefore, service recovery is considered a second service encounter of a firm with a customer and a final chance for service firms to satisfy the customers (Kenesei and Bali, 2020).

One of the prominent segregations in service recovery literature is based on service recovery forms. Firstly, one of the forms is known as *'firm recovery',* in which the firm resolves the service problems, and customers play a passive in the service recovery process (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020). The majority of the literature has investigated 'firm recovery' and the effect of firm recovery on various outcomes (Khamitov *et al.*, 2020). The researchers have attempted to assist service managers by recommending different combinations of firm recovery strategies/actions which may be suitable to adopt after a service failure (Liao, 2007; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Smith and Bolton, 2002; You *et al.*, 2020).

Secondly, service recovery research has introduced service recovery in which customers participate in the service recovery process along with the service firm and is known as *customer participation in service recovery'* (Dong *et al.*, 2016). Customers do not play a passive role in the service recovery process but are actively involved in the process (Kim and Baker, 2020a). The research on customer participation in service recovery is scant, whereas; service recovery research is overwhelmed with 'firm recovery' research.

2.4.1 Firm Recovery

2.4.1.1 Definition of firm recovery

The majority of service recovery articles that have not acknowledged customer participation in service recovery have defined service recovery as a response that the service firm entirely provides to solve the problem (Andreassen, 2001; Gronroos, 1988; Harun *et al.*, 2019; Jung and Seock, 2017; Zemke and Bell, 1990). An early definition by Gronroos (1988) reported that service recovery is the response in the form of corrective actions taken by the service providers after a service failure. The majority of the researchers have adopted/adapted Gronroos (1988) notion to define service recovery (See table 2.4). Later, the definitions describe the meaning along with the purpose of service recovery. For example, Zemke and Bell (1990) suggested service recovery as a planned process to bring back dissatisfied customers into a satisfying state. Similarly, Jung and Seock (2017, p.23) defined firm recovery as "the effort of a service provider to resolve a problem caused by a service failure and restore customer satisfaction". The mentioned definitions complemented the earlier definition by stating the purpose of service recovery and suggesting it as a response by the service firm.

Another perspective about service recovery states that service recovery responds to a service failure to protect the relationship between a firm and its customers (Hart *et al.*, 1990). According to this definition, the primary motive behind initiating service recovery is to retain customers, as service recovery is considered worthless if it cannot safeguard customers' loyalty (Etemad-Sajadi and Bohrer, 2019). Similarly, (Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019, p.286) state that "service recovery is a systematic effort by a company after a service failure to correct a problem and maintain the customer's goodwill". Andreassen (2001) defines service recovery as a constituent of all the actions taken in response to a service failure to return the customer from a dissatisfied state to a satisfied state. Along with satisfying the customers and maintaining loyalty, the definitions suggest that service recovery is a process that is carried out to prevent: negative customers' feelings (such as anger, regret, frustration and disappointment) and negative word of mouth (Jin *et al.*, 2020; Koc, 2019). More recently, Harun *et al.* (2019, p.623) summarized that "Service recovery is the service provider's response to lessen the negative outcomes of service failure and please the consumer".

Service recovery research which acknowledges the forms of service recovery, 'customer participation in service recovery and firm recovery' has differentiated the definitions of the two forms by mentioning the different levels of customers' participation in the service recovery process (Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Dong *et al.*, 2008; Kim and Baker, 2020a; Wei *et al.*, 2019). For example, Dong *et al.* (2008, p.126) defined that "firm recovery is when recovery efforts are delivered entirely or mostly by the organisation and its employees". In the same vein, Kim and Baker (2020) stated that the firm or its employees perform all or most of the recovery efforts to resolve the problem in firm recovery. On other occasions, the authors mentioned that there is no customer involvement in firm recovery. For example, Balaji *et al.* (2018) defined firm recovery as when customers do not participate in the recovery process, but it is considered as the sole responsibility of the service firm and its employees to recover from the service failure. More recently, Bagherzadeh *et al.* (2020) also stated that there is zero level participation of customers in case of firm recovery. Overall, the key point in defining firm recovery is to indicate that it includes reactive measures from the firm after a service failure, and customers are merely the recipients of the recovery.

Table 2.4 Definitions of Service recovery

Main source	**Definition**	**The motive of Service recovery**	**Other sources following the similar definition**
Gronroos, 1988	Service recovery is the response in the form of corrective actions taken by the service providers after a service failure	Not mentioned	(Agag, 2019; Bahmani *et al.*, 2020; Chen and Kim, 2019; Choi and La, 2013; Ha and Jang, 2009; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Hibbert *et al.*, 2012; Hocutt *et al.*, 2006; Liat *et al.*, 2017; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Piehler *et al.*, 2019; Shin and Larson, 2020)
Zemke and Bell, 1990, p.43	"a thought-out, planned process for returning aggrieved customers to a state of satisfaction with the organisation after a service or product has failed to live up to expectations."	Satisfaction	(Bhandari *et al.*, 2007; Chang, 2006; Gruber and Frugone, 2011; Hur and Jang, 2016; Lee and Park, 2010; Ok *et al.*, 2007; Smith and Karwan, 2010; White and Yanamandram, 2007)
Hart *et al.,* 1990	service recovery is the response to a service failure in order to protect the relationship between a firm and its customers	Customer retention / loyalty	(Chang and Hsiao, 2008; Chao and Cheng, 2019; Contiero *et al.*, 2016; Lin *et al.*, 2011)
Andreassen, 2001	"Service recovery consists of all the actions an organisation may take to rectify the failure. The purpose is to move the dissatisfied customer to a state of satisfaction and, it is hoped, retain the customer for the future"	Satisfaction and Customer retention/ Loyalty	(Chiou *et al.*, 2020; Presi *et al.*, 2014; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2010)
Dong *et al.*, 2008, p.126	**"firm recovery** is when the recovery efforts are delivered entirely or mostly by the organisation and its employees; customers may only have physical presence or merely offer basic and necessary information."	Not mentioned	(Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Dong *et al.*, 2016; Heidenreich *et al.*, 2015; Kim and Baker, 2020a; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012)

2.4.1.2 Service recovery actions /firm recovery actions

The definitions of service recovery suggest that it is a process that involves several actions/strategies adopted by service firms in response to service failure(s) (see table 2.5). The are several actions/strategies mentioned in the early literature of service recovery that firms may adopt to counter the service failure. For example, the variety of service recovery actions ranges from doing nothing (Duffy *et al.*, 2006) to adopt twelve different actions (Kelley *et al.*, 1993). Bell and Zemke (1987) presented that effective service recovery may include five actions: apology, compensation (monetary), quick response, being empathetic during the resolution of the problem, and following up with the customer after the problem has been resolved. According to Bitner (1990), apology, compensation and explanation are enough to respond to a service failure. However, later on, Kelley *et al.* (1993) questioned the generalizability of Bitner's (1990) findings and suggested a wide set of 12 recovery actions, including; amending the failure, involvement of managerial staff, giving compensation, giving discounts to customers, offering reduction, redoing of the service or replacement of a tangible item, apologising, reimbursement of the cost, customer initiated correction, rectification for dissatisfaction, and/or doing nothing.

The literature has acknowledged that different service recovery actions are effective for different service failures and can influence various positive outcomes. For example, Smith *et al.* (1999) summarised that firms might provide service recovery in the shape of four different actions, including; apology, compensation, speed of response and initiation. They found that providing an apology after a core service failure is ineffective but may work after an interactional failure. However, compensation and quick response are effective in response to a core service failure. Later, Davidow (2003) claimed that a service firm could choose six courses, namely, apology, credibility, attentiveness, redress, quick response and facilitation, to rectify a service failure. However, his study's empirical results recommended that among the six actions, attentiveness is most influential in affecting customers repurchase intention, satisfaction, and word of mouth. According to Liao (2007), solving the problem and courtesy are helpful with other traditional actions such as apology, compensation, explanation and speed of response. However, apology, speed of response and compensation are more effective in major failures and in the situations of repeated failures.

Table 2.5 Definitions of service recovery actions

Service recovery action	**Definition**	**Source**
Apology	"Confessions of responsibility for negative events which include some expression of remorse"	Tedeschi *et al.*, 1985, p.299
Attentiveness	The instances of interaction between customers and service employees where employees are conscious and accommodating.	Beauchamp and Barnes, 2015
Compensation	Compensation is known as an economic benefit to the customer in the shape of monetary payment, refund, discount, replacement and so forth.	(Smith *et al.*, 1999)
Courtesy	Courtesy is understood as the "service employees' behaviours that demonstrate politeness, respect, friendliness and patience when interacting with customers."	Liao, 2007, p. 478
Credibility	Credibility is known as the readiness of the service employees to explain the problem and way of solution to the customers	Davidow, 2000
Empathy	Empathy is a service recovery action where service employees emotionally connect with the customers and show them care and sympathetic concern	Radu *et al.*, 2019
Explanation	An explanation is a piece of detailed information provided by the service firm which mainly includes causes of the unfortunate event experienced by customers	Odoom *et al.*, 2019
Facilitation	"Facilitation refers to the policies, procedures, and tools that a company has in place to support customer complaints."	Davidow, 2000, p.475
Follow-up	Follow-up is known as the contact to the customers after the service recovery to know if the firm has satisfactorily provided the solution to the customer's problem.	(Mostafa *et al.*, 2015)
Timeliness	Timeliness is referred to as the efficiency of the service employees in terms of the speed of response to the service failure	Wirtz and Mattila, 2004

To date, there is no agreement in the literature regarding the most effective strategy or strategies to counter service failure. Many studies have come up with a different set of service recovery actions (see table 2.6). However, Mostafa *et al.* (2014) contributed to the literature by presenting a customer recovery toolbox, known as the Customer Recovery (CURE) scale, which includes nine courses of action that a company can adapt and prioritise accordingly service failure. The actions include an apology, speed of response, facilitation, compensation, problem–solving, effort, explanation, follow-up and courtesy. The authors claim that the CURE scale is, first of its kind presented in service recovery literature, more accurate, suitable and applicable in real-world service failure and recovery situations. However, a follow-up study by Mostafa *et al.* (2015) contradicted the previous set of recovery actions and reduced the set by presenting seven recovery actions, apology, compensation, problem-solving, speed of response follow-up, explanation and courtesy. According to their study, out of all the actions, problem-solving and follow-up (from service providers) are the most effective service recovery actions.

The literature suggests that a service provider must use a combination of service recovery strategies because a single recovery action may be ineffective in restoring customer satisfaction (Smith *et al.*, 1999). The most successful combination of service recovery actions includes apology and compensation. For example, Casidy and Shin (2015) contributed that customers are more willing to forgive and less likely to spread negative word of mouth after receiving a combination of apology and compensation. Similarly, Ketron and Mai (2020) suggested that apology and compensation are the primary service recovery actions that a firm may undertake to respond to a service failure. Sharifi *et al.* (2017) concluded that apology and compensation are effective if utilised appropriately. According to them, an apology should be the foremost response from the service employee, followed by compensation to mitigate negative responses and generate positive customer evaluations. Therefore, the literature has prioritised apology and compensation as an effective service recovery actions combination (see table 2.6).

Apology

An apology is an indispensable response from service firms after a service failure (Roschk and Gelbrich, 2014). Providing an apology to aggrieved customers is considered a default response by service employees (Sharifi and Spassova, 2020).

It is a message which contains regret and remorse over the incurred loss of the victim, and it is communicated by the service provider (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016).

An apology's success depends on its elements and the timing of its provision (Davidow, 2003; Min *et al.*, 2020; Roschk and Kaiser, 2013). For example, Roschk and Kaiser (2013) suggested that apology is not only about its presence but also how it has been delivered is of utmost importance. Further, they viewed apology as a combination of empathy, intensity and timing. On the other hand, Davidow (2003) considers that an apology is not effective without the presence of courtesy and respect as its ingredients. More recently, Min *et al.* (2020) highlight the importance of the timing of the apology. They concluded that an apology is more effective; i) if it is provided after listening to the customers' grievances completely, and ii) if it includes remorse, acceptance of the mistake and empathy. Hence, the mere presence of an apology is less effective, and instead of mitigating, it can further enhance negative consequences regarding service failure, for example, resulting in faulty service recovery, also known as double deviation (Lee and Park, 2010).

An apology with appropriate ingredients contributes to positive consequences. For example, regaining customers' trust even in double deviation scenarios(Basso and Pizzutti, 2016) . Furthermore, an apology plays a critical role in achieving the main goal of service recovery, which is the restoration of satisfaction (Baker *et al.*, 2008; Tax *et al.*, 1998), as it is an immediate response fulfilling the minimum requirement of reaction after a service failure (Hart *et al.*, 1990). Moreover, positive impact on loyalty (Miller *et al.*, 2000) and positive word of mouth (Davidow, 2000) are also considered fruitful consequences of an effective apology.

An apology is also considered a form of psychological compensation that the service firms give to the grieved customers to restore their psychological state and self-esteem (Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Smith *et al.*, 1999). Customers feel psychologically disgruntled over losing their mental and other costs related to time and money (Bitner *et al.*, 1990). Service firms then apologise to the customer over the service mishap, which shows that the organization has recognized the customer's agony and is willing to rectify it (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). Customers expect that the service provider accepts the service failure's responsibility and admits the guilt, which is crucial in providing psychological compensation (Min *et al.*, 2020).

Compensation

Compensation is identified as an economic recovery tool and is also termed as tangible compensation (Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015). Tangible compensation provides economic benefits to the customers, such as; discounts, coupons, free merchandise, refunds, and replacement of tangible goods or redo of the service performance (Baker and Meyer, 2014; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Stakhovych and Tamaddoni, 2020). Therefore, an apology given by the service provider over a service failure is considered ineffective till it is followed by some form of financial compensation (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016).

It becomes indispensable for service firms to compensate for customers' economic losses to mitigate negative consequences and generate positive outcomes (Stakhovych and Tamaddoni, 2020). Generation of positive outcomes after service failure through tangible compensation is well recognised in the literature. For example, utilising compensation as a service recovery strategy; increases customer satisfaction (Sharifi *et al.*, 2017; Wirtz and Mattila, 2004), generates positive word of mouth (Jung and Seock, 2017; Liu *et al.*, 2019; Tsai *et al.*, 2014) assists in customer retention (Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015; Stakhovych and Tamaddoni, 2020), influences positively on customer affection (Choi and Choi, 2014) and brand image (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015).

Compensation alone does the job well for a service firm to mitigate negative consequences and generate positive outcomes (Stakhovych and Tamaddoni, 2020). Customers who receive tangible compensation (discount, money, and so on) tend to retain this benefit in their minds longer than the benefit they receive as a psychological compensation (apology) (Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005). However, the duo's romance (apology and compensation) is considered the most effective combination in mitigating the negative consequences of service failures (Suri *et al.*, 2019). For example, Bougoure *et al.* (2016) affirm that compensation only becomes the most effective service recovery strategy if combined with an apology. Similarly, Casidy and Shin (2015) investigated 332 airline passengers. They concluded that customers are more willing to forgive and less likely to spread negative word of mouth after receiving a combination of apology and compensation.

Table 2.6 Service Recovery actions discussed in the literature

Main studies	Apology	Attentiveness	Compensation	Courtesy	Credibility	Empathy	Explanation	Facilitation	Follow-up	Timeliness	Initiation	Problem-solving	Redress	Context
Smith *et al.*, 1999	X		X							X	X			Restaurant, Hotel
Davidow, 2000	X	X			X			X		X			X	Diverse (Respondent Choice)
Smith and Bolton, 2002	X		X							X	X			Restaurant, Hotel
Wirtz and Mattila, 2004	X		X							X				Restaurant
Liao, 2007	X			X			X					X		Diverse (Respondent Choice)
Joireman *et al.*, 2013	X		X											Airline
Roschk and Kaiser, 2013	X													Restaurant
Beauchamp and Barnes, 2015		X	X							X				Diverse (Respondent Choice)
Mostafa *et al.*, 2015	X		X	X			X		X	X		X		Mobile phone company
McQuilken *et al.*, 2017	X													Restaurant
Jung and Seock, 2017	X		X											Online retailer
Rasoulian *et al.*, 2017	X		X											Public Traded firms
Sharifi *et al.*, 2017	X		X											Restaurant, Hotel
Sengupta *et al.*, 2018	X													Retail Store
Karabas *et al.*, 2019	X													Restaurant
Liu *et al.*, 2019			X							X				Hotel
Odoom *et al.*, 2019	X		X				X			X				Diverse (Respondent Choice)
Radu *et al.*, 2019	X					X								Diverse (Respondent Choice)
Pulga *et al.*, 2019	X													Retail Bank
Ketron and Mai, 2020	X		X											Transportation App
Min *et al.*, 2020	X													Hotel
Stakhovych and Tamaddoni, 2020			X											Retail store

2.4.2 Customer participation in service recovery (CPSR)

'Customer participation in service recovery' is rooted in the concept of customer participation in 'services', where customers are involved in service production and/ or service delivery (Dong and Sivakumar, 2017, p.2). Customer participation in services is defined as "the degree to which the customer is involved in producing and delivering the service" (Dabholkar, 1990, p.484). Customers' role in a service process was considered unfavourable until Lovelock and Young (1979) presented the potential benefits of involving customers in a service delivery process. Later, the research by Zeithaml *et al.* (1985) highlighted the importance of binding customer participation with one of the characteristics of services. The service characteristic of inseparability obligates customers to participate in the production and or delivery of services (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1985). Customer participation in services provides a win-win situation for the service consumer and service provider (Hsieh and Yeh, 2018; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2017). Firstly, from service providers' point of view, it reduces the burden of service firms because service consumers perform specific activities in a service consumption and delivery process beyond financial transactions (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020). Secondly, from the consumer's point of view, as service consumers become co-creators of the service, an added value is created in the service consumption process (Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

The literature on customer participation progressed in three different streams. The first stream primarily portrays the economic benefits that service firms can gain by utilising customers in various activities of service delivery and consumption (Allen *et al.*, 2016; Betzing *et al.*, 2020; Heinonen *et al.*, 2013; Mills and Morris, 1986). The second stream centres on managing the customers as partial company employees (Auh *et al.*, 2019; Bendapudi and Leone, 2003; Claycomb *et al.*, 2001; Hsieh *et al.*, 2004; Joo, 2020). The studies in this stream capitalised on the notion of customer socialisation. For example, Claycomb *et al.* (2001) suggested that active participation of the customers enhances the socialisation between customers and employees and as a result, service quality and customer satisfaction is increased (Dong *et al.*, 2008). The third stream of customer participation research suggests that added value is created in the process of service consumption and delivery by considering customers as "co-creators" of the service (Brodie *et al.*, 2019; Fan *et al.*, 2020; Payne *et al.*, 2008; Plé, 2016; Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2006).

The third stream studies are theoretically supported by the service-dominant (S-D) logic introduced by Vargo and Lusch (2004). S-D Logic revolves around the premise of “exchange” and presents the theoretical knowledge of value creation through customer participation in the service process (Vargo and Lusch, 2004, 2008, 2016). One of S-D logic's primary foundational premises states that “the customer is always a co-creator of value” (Vargo and Lusch, 2008, p.2). Participation from the customer can appear at any point or many points of the value network (Dong *et al.*, 2008; Vargo and Lusch, 2016). Therefore, it suggests that if customer participation is missed in the initial engagement between the service provider and the consumer, both parties may have a chance to exchange specialised skills and knowledge in the second engagement (during the service recovery process). The premise of exchange and value creation may be compromised if customers are kept out of the service recovery process.

Customer participation in the service recovery (CPSR) emerges from one of the customer participation themes, theoretically supported by the S-D logic (Skourtis *et al.*, 2019). Customer participation in service recovery refers to when customers are involved in the service recovery process to collaborate with the service provider in reaching a mutually agreed solution to service failure (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, the integration of customers’ resources with service firms' resources (to maximise the value) indicates that customer participation in service recovery is rooted in S-D logic (Hazée *et al.*, 2017).

The concept of CPSR is relatively newer, and research related to this concept is scant (Kim and Baker, 2020a). The majority of the service recovery literature has focused on firm recovery (Israeli, Lee and Karpinski, 2019; Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Smith *et al.*, 1999). The major part of firm recovery research has presented the customers as passive recipients in service recovery. On the other hand, modern logic suggests that customers are active participants of the process, share resources and, as a result, co-create value (Vargo and Lusch, 2016). Building on the SD logic, there is a growing body of literature focusing on the role of customers in the service recovery process in recent years.

The growing body of literature attempts to revitalise service recovery literature by focusing on the effects of customer participation in service recovery (see table 2.7).

The focus on CPSR was initiated by introducing the concept known as “recovery voice” by Karande *et al.* (2007). “Recovery voice” is conceptualised as an opportunity for the customers to express their suggestions to solve the problem in a service recovery process (Karande *et al.*, 2007; Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2018). Though the scope of the concept is limited to customers' verbal participation, the introduction of the concept provided a lead for the researchers to refine the concept.

Dong *et al.* (2008) formally introduced the concept of “customer participation in service recovery”. The concept embraces that customers can be involved in a service recovery process. They classified ‘customer participation in service recovery’ into three distinct types, i) Firm recovery (zero to no involvement of the customer), ii) Joint recovery (both customer and firm are involved), and iii) Customer Recovery (only the customer is involved and no involvement of the firm). Though the investigation proved to be groundbreaking in the area of ‘customer participation in service recovery, it seems that the understanding of Dong *et al.* (2008) about the concept is questionable and limited. Firstly, this examination was limited to self-service technologies (SST) context and avenues to non-self-service contexts remained open. Secondly, the term “participation” connotates “the act of taking part in an activity or an event” (Lexico, n.d.). The interpretation of the meaning suggests that participation indicates a “share” of one’s actions with someone. It does not imply a sole performance. Therefore, according to the interpretation, only “Joint recovery” seems to align with the concept of customer participation in service recovery.

Roggeveen *et al.* (2012) extended the research on ‘customer participation in service recovery’ by examining the role of CPSR in a non-SST context. The investigation included four different studies which identified different situations where CPSR is and is not suitable. Moreover, the authors investigated the effects of CPSR when service failure is not co-created. The findings advocate the effectiveness of CPSR by proving that CPSR is cost-efficient in comparison to compensation. The elevated levels of recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions verified the usefulness of engaging customers in a service recovery process. Therefore, the first three noticeable studies related to CPSR (Dong *et al.*, 2008; Karande *et al.*, 2007; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012) provided a solid foundation for future studies to investigate deeper.

Further research in the area of 'customer participation in service recovery', demonstrates delving efforts but holds mixed findings related to customer participation in service recovery. Primarily, the literature offers multiple benefits of engaging customers in the service recovery process, namely: cost-efficiency (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014), elevation in the level of recovery satisfaction (Cheung and To, 2016; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Jin *et al.*, 2019), improvement in overall satisfaction (Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2017), increased repurchase intentions (Guo, Xiao, *et al.*, 2016; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Kim and Baker, 2020a), positive influence on customer trust (Busser and Shulga, 2019), increase in the positive word of mouth (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2017) and intentions of future customer participation in service production or delivery (Dong *et al.*, 2016; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Wei *et al.*, 2019). On the other hand, research indicates that customer participation in service recovery is not always favourable. For example, if the magnitude of customer participation in initial service provision is low, then customer participation in service recovery is not suitable (Heidenreich *et al.*, 2015). Also, CPSR is not favourable for firms having high brand equity (Hazée *et al.*, 2017).

The literature review suggests that customers may participate at different stages during the service recovery process in various ways (Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2018). For example, customers may get involved at the 'start' of the service recovery process by informing the service provider about the problem and requirements of the solution (Jin *et al.*, 2019; Karande *et al.*, 2007). Customers may also participate 'during' the recovery process either by reproducing the whole service with the help of the service provider (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012) by evaluating alternative solutions to the problem (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Wei *et al.*, 2019), and by selecting the recovery outcome (deciding on compensation alternatives (Guo *et al.*, 2016). Different ways of customer participation strengthen the sense of empowerment in customers and reduce their psychological costs (Hazée *et al.*, 2017). The area of research regarding the effectiveness of different types of customer participation is shallow; however, a sole study by Guo *et al.* (2016) has found complementary effects of different types of customer participation. The involvement of customers in the service recovery process plays a critical role in resolving the problem because customers gain the liberty of ensuring that the solution is best suited to them (Kim and Baker, 2020a).

Table 2.7 Existing research on customer participation in service recovery

Author(s)	**Terminology used**	**Positive impact**	**Non-significant impact / Negative impact / Lesser impact/ No impact**
Karande *et al.* 2007	Recovery voice	• Post failure overall satisfaction	**N.A**
Dong *et al.*, 2008	Customer participation in service recovery	• Intention towards future co-creation, • Role Clarity, • Perceived value for future co-creation, • Satisfaction with service recovery, • Ability in future co-creation	**Non-significant impact** • Customer's ability in future co-creation
Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012	Customer co-creation of the recovery	• Recovery Process satisfaction (only if the service failure severity is high) • Repurchase intentions	**Negative impact** *(when the service failure severity is low)* • Recovery process satisfaction
Xu *et al.*, 2014	Co-recovery	• Perceived Justice • Satisfaction with recovery • Repurchase intention	**Lesser impact** *(when the customer initiates the co-recovery)* • Perceived Justice, • Satisfaction with recovery, • Repurchase intention
Heidenreich *et al.*, 2015	Co-creation during service recovery	• Customer satisfaction	**Lesser impact** *(when failure attributed towards the firm)* • Post-recovery satisfaction
Dong *et al.*, 2016	Customer participation in service recovery	• Satisfaction with recovery • Intention for future co-production	**N.A.**
(Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016)	Co-creation in service recovery	• Emotions • Post-recovery satisfaction • Perceived value • Intention to reuse • Intention to future co-creation	**N.A**
Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016	Co-creation in service recovery	• Post-recovery satisfaction	**N.A.**
Guo *et al.*, 2016	Co-creation of service recovery	• Outcome favourability • Relationship-based self-esteem • Repurchase intentions	**N.A**

Author(s)	Terminology used	Positive impact	Non-significant impact / Negative impact / Lesser impact/ No impact
Park and Ha, 2016	Co-creation of service recovery	• Perceived Equity • Affect towards recovery *(only with the utilitarian value of co-creation of service recovery)* • Repurchase intentions	**Negative impact** • Affect towards recovery
Hazée *et al.*, 2017	Co-creation in service recovery	• Outcome favourability • Customer satisfaction with service recovery • Repurchase intentions	**No impact** *(for the service firms having low brand equity)* • Outcome favourability • Customer satisfaction with service recovery • Repurchase intentions
Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2017	Co-creation of service recovery	• Satisfaction • Repurchase intentions • Word of mouth	**N.A**
Busser and Shulga, 2019	Co-recovery	• Satisfaction • Loyalty • Trust	**N.A**
Jin *et al.*, 2019	Customer participation in service recovery	• Customer satisfaction	**N.A**

2.4.3.1 Terminologies

The usage of different terminologies is prevalent in labelling customer participation in service recovery. The main terms used are: i) Customer participation in service recovery (Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Dong *et al.*, 2008) ii) Co-creation of service recovery (Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016; Kim and Baker, 2020a; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012) iii) Joint Recovery (Dong *et al.*, 2016; Jin *et al.*, 2019) and iv) Co-recovery (Skourtis *et al.*, 2019; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014). Although the confusion of using different terms is critiqued in the literature (Dong and Sivakumar, 2017; Grönroos and Voima, 2013), various terminologies are still present in the literature. However, the service recovery literature review suggests that the concept's connotation does not differ significantly by the usage of different terminologies.

The current research prefered "customer participation in service recovery (CPSR)" as a suitable term. The term is chosen after scrutinising the supporting arguments by Dong and Sivakumar (2017). For example, i) customer participation is a broader term that captures the essence of other related terms (co-creation, co-recovery, Joint recovery), hence results in less confusion, ii) the term customer participation is not limited to a certain level of participation; instead it can depict passive or active participation, iii) finally, customer participation is a simple term which can be easily visualised by the majority readers including even those who are not very familiar with the various terminologies used in the literature.

2.4.3.2 Definition of customer participation in service recovery

The concept of customer participation in service recovery is relatively new, and research related to this notion is limited (Kim and Baker, 2020a). Researchers have made efforts in defining the concept by capitalising on the service co-creation literature (Dong *et al.*, 2008). However, the difference between the two concepts required distinctive conceptualisations to understand both concepts better. Co-creation of services occurs in the primary engagement between customers and service providers, whereas; customer participation in service recovery occurs after customers experience a service failure and the service provider intends to recover (Dong *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, researchers have defined CPSR for a better understanding (Dong *et al.*, 2008; Park and Ha, 2016; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014). The review of limited literature suggests that presented definitions hold three different viewpoints (see table 2.8).

The first viewpoint suggests that customer participation is "the degree to which the customer is involved in taking actions to respond to a service failure" (Dong *et al.*, 2008, p.126). This perspective focuses on the "extent" to which the customers are engaged in a service recovery process (Jin *et al.*, 2019). Customer participation is described as the extent of customers' engagement in a service recovery because Dong *et al.* (2008) classifies customer participation into three different levels, i) Firm recovery (no involvement of customers or a very low level of involvement) ii) Joint Recovery (customer and service provider both participate in the service recovery process) and iii) Customer recovery (when there is no involvement from the service provider and solely customer recovers the service). Under this perspective, only the type "joint recovery" is relevant to the concept of CPSR, which clearly articulates that customer and firm both play a sufficient role in service recovery whereas; the other two types (Firm recovery and customer recovery) represent role dominance of either the firm or the customer.

The second perspective carries the definition suggested by Roggeveen *et al.* (2012), which indicates that CPSR is not only referred to as the activity of working together, but it represents the abilities of the customer(s) and service provider(s) to design or tailor the features of the service recovery. Designing service recovery content with the service provider helps the customer mitigate the negative experience of service failure (Wei *et al.*, 2019). This viewpoint suggests that customers are not considered merely as the firm's employees but play a role in the service recovery process to ensure a sense of gratification (Kim and Baker, 2020a).

The third perspective suggests that CPSR is "a process of creating a solution through interactions between a service company and its customers" (Xu *et al.*, 2014, p.371). The definition centres on the notion that a solution to the problem is achievable with the help of interactions between customers and service providers. The definition is vague regarding the term "interactions", as it does not specify if the interaction is only verbal or customers also perform any physical activity. In the same vein, Park and Ha (2016) describe that CPSR is a course of interactions and conversations between customers and service providers to reach a solution that satisfies the customers. Although these definitions suggest the role of customers in the service recovery process through communicating with service providers, these do not reflect that customers play a part in performing physical activities.

Table 2.8 Definitions of Customer Participation in Service Recovery

Terminology used	**Definition**	**Perspective**	**Source**	**References following the definition**
Customer participation	"the degree to which the customer is involved in taking actions to respond to a service failure" (p.126)	Degree of participation	Dong *et al.* 2008	(Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Dong *et al.*, 2016; Jin *et al.*, 2019)
Customer Co-creation of the recovery	"ability to shape or personalise the content of the recovery through joint collaboration with the service provider" (p.772)	Personalisation	Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012	(Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Kim and Baker, 2020a; Wei *et al.*, 2019)
Co-recovery	"a process of creating a solution through interactions between a service company and its customers" (p.371)	Interaction	Xu *et al.*, 2014	(Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Park and Ha, 2016; Skourtis *et al.*, 2019)

Although the three main definitions have a different plot, there is a consensus that customers play some part in the service recovery process. The point of difference between the second (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012) and third (Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014) stance is the description of the participation's approach taken by the customers in a service recovery process. In contrast, the first stance (Dong *et al.*, 2008) is different from the other two, based on the role of the customers in a service recovery process. Roggeveen's stance is more comprehensive than the other two because it clearly explains the nature of CPSR. The definition explicitly suggests participation and implicitly suggests the degree of customers' participation in a service recovery process.

2.4.4 Customers' evaluation of service recovery process

Customers' evaluation of 'firm recovery' and 'customer participation in service recovery' is crucial to mitigate service failures' negative consequences (del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009). Customers cognitive evaluation of the service recovery process is key to assess the effectiveness of service recovery. Customers' perceptions of fairness in service recovery are the basis of service recovery evaluation (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). In this regard, the service literature has predominantly utilised perceived justice as a critical factor in service recovery frameworks. The predominance of its utilisation is supported by strong theoretical reasoning. Firstly, perceived justice is rated as the most powerful tool in understanding customers evaluations of the service recovery process (Migacz *et al.*, 2018). Secondly, perceived justice is considered the strongest predictor of cognitive, emotional and behavioural branding outcomes (Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016). Thirdly, according to the existing research, approximately 60% of the service recovery evaluations are based on perceived justice (Migacz *et al.*, 2018).

2.4.4.1 Perceived Justice

Perceived justice is known as the customers' cognitive evaluation of the service recovery process (Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019). Perceived justice is rooted in the concept of 'fairness in exchange', coined by Homans (1958), who explained that fair exchange between two persons or parties depends on gaining equal or expected rewards against the costs incurred. This idea was acknowledged by Adams (1963), and he introduced "a theory of social inequity", which stated that employees expect to maintain a balanced relationship with their employer in a workplace by having a belief of receiving equitable outcomes (rewards) against their inputs (efforts). Building upon the concept of 'fairness of exchange and the theory of social inequity, a 'theory of justice' was presented by Rawls (1971), which proposes that customers evaluate service recovery based on justice perceptions (Migacz *et al.*, 2018).

During the service recovery process, fair treatment or justice becomes essential for the customers to; retain their self-esteem, obtain economic gains, and avoid psychological dissonance; whereas injustice or ill-treatment can trigger them negatively (Migacz *et al.*, 2018). Justice theory is a dominant theoretical framework within the service recovery literature, utilised to understand the customers' perceptions of fairness (Colquitt, 2001; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Tax *et al.*, 1998). The Justice theory framework gained popularity in service recovery literature as it is considered the customers' cognitive evaluation of the service firm's recovery efforts (La and Choi, 2019; Migacz *et al.*, 2018). Justice theory posits that customers engage in a cognitive cost-benefit analysis to evaluate the benefits received against the loss they have incurred (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015).

Traditionally, the justice theory entails that customers evaluate service firm's actions through three dimensions of justice, i) Distributive Justice which is the perceived fairness of the outcomes received against the costs incurred because of the service failure, ii) Interactional Justice which is the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment of customers by service employees and iii) Procedural Justice which is perceived fairness of the policies and procedures adopted by the service firm in the service recovery process (Chen and Kim, 2019; Tax *et al.*, 1998). However, Colquitt contributed to the literature by the addition of informational justice. The aspect of 'explanation/information' related to interactional justice can be included in informational justice. Informational justice is referred to as the perceived fairness of the authenticity, completeness and relevancy of the information received by the customers from the service employees (Bradley and Sparks, 2009; Colquitt, 2001). Although usage of informational justice as a fourth dimension is scant in service recovery literature, customers perceived fairness evaluation remains incomplete without the inclusion of informational justice in the service recovery frameworks (Gohary et al., 2016). The evidence is found in the literature that studies have treated perceived justice both as a single global construct (Balaji *et al.*, 2018; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Liao, 2007) and as a multidimensional construct (Migacz *et al.*, 2018; Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009).

The dimensions of perceived justice are separated based on distinct elements. For example, distributive justice entails tangible assets such as financial compensation, refunds, discounts, complimentary gifts, replacements of tangible items in service or redo of a service (Choi and Choi, 2014; Sharifi and Spassova, 2020). Interactional justice relates to the aspects of apology, empathy, politeness, and courtesy rendered by the service firm's employees (Chen and Kim, 2019; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). The conceptualization of procedural justice includes timeliness, flexibility, and consistency of the policies and procedures (Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019; Chalmers, 2016). Finally, authenticity, completeness and relevancy of information/explanation are considered critical components of informational justice (Colquitt, 2001; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016). The constituency of the justice dimensions with the mentioned aspect is, however, inconsistent; for example, some studies consider apology as a distributive justice element instead of an element of interactional justice (Crisafulli and Singh, 2016; Tax *et al.*, 1998). Similarly, studies that consider informational justice as a fourth dimension consider information, explanation, and truthfulness as informational justice traits (Chalmers, 2016; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Wang and Chang, 2013). Clearly, every dimension holds different elements which justify the distinction among perceived justice dimensions.

Service recovery frameworks have utilised perceived justice in different roles. For example, perceived justice has performed as an independent (Chen and Kim, 2019; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Tax *et al.*, 1998), mediator (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 1999), moderator (Lee *et al.*, 2020), and dependant variable (Bae *et al.*, 2020). Regardless of the role, studies have conflicting findings concerning perceived justice. For example, Tax *et al.* (1998) found that all dimensions of perceived justice impact post-recovery outcomes independently, whereas; Martínez-Tur *et al.* (2006) suggested that only distributive justice influences recovery satisfaction. Similarly, Balaji *et al.* (2018) concluded no significant relationship between perceived justice and satisfaction if the customers are more cynical. Others demonstrated inconsistencies regarding perceived justice dimensions' effectiveness (Bae *et al.*, 2020; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). Within the case of mediation role; perceived justice has been utilised in between the relationship of service recovery strategies and post-recovery outcomes (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012).

Perceived justice serves as a critical vehicle for service recovery frameworks to predict post-recovery behavioural and emotional outcomes (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Tax *et al.*, 1998). Studies have suggested that perceived justice is the most powerful predictor of satisfaction and other outcomes with service recovery (see table 2.9). Since satisfaction with service recovery is episodic and presents only the immediate fulfilment of customers, studies have also investigated the impact of perceived justice on overall satisfaction. (Liao, 2007; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020), Customer trust (Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019; Tax *et al.*, 1998; Wang and Chang, 2013), and customer loyalty (Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019; Choi and Choi, 2014; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). Regarding emotional outcomes, literature has typically focused on the relationship between perceived justice and customer positive and negative emotions (Chebat and

Slusarczyk, 2005; Chen and Kim, 2019; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009). The relationships between perceived justice and the above-mentioned outcomes sometimes lead to other behavioural outcomes, mainly word of mouth (Chen and Kim, 2019; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016) and repurchase intentions (Lin *et al.*, 2011; Migacz *et al.*, 2018). Table 2.9 details the usage of perceived justice in service recovery frameworks.

Table 2.9 Perceived Justice utilised in service recovery frameworks

Studies	**Perceived Justice**				**Role**	**Outcomes**	**Main findings related to Perceived Justice and its dimensions**
	DJ	**IJ**	**PJ**	**Inf J**			
Tax *et al.*, 1998	X	X	X		Independent	- Recovery Satisfaction - Trust - Commitment	All dimensions of justice strongly impact recovery satisfaction, and further recovery satisfaction positively influences trust and commitment.
Smith *et al.*, 1999	X	X	X		Mediator	- Recovery Satisfaction	Distributive justice has the strongest positive impact on recovery satisfaction
Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002	X	X	X		Independent	- Recovery Satisfaction - Overall Satisfaction - WOM intent - Repurchase intent	Interactional and procedural justice have a stronger effect on outcomes.
Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005	X	X			Independent	- Emotions - Exit and Loyalty	Interactional Justice is considered the most influential dimension of perceived justice
Liao, 2007	**X**	**X**	**X**		Mediator	- Satisfaction - Repurchase intention	Perceived Justice as a single construct mediate the relationship between service recovery strategies and customer satisfaction and also plays a mediating role between service recovery strategies and repurchase intent
Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2008	X	X	X		Mediator	- Satisfaction	Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice are more influential and have a stronger impact on customer satisfaction
del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009	X	X	X		Independent	- Negative emotions - Recovery Satisfaction	Procedural Justice resulted in the strongest dimension to influence satisfaction and customer negative emotions
Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012	**X**	**X**	**X**		Mediator	- Repurchase intention - Recovery satisfaction	Perceived justice (equity) performed as a successful mediator between co-created service recovery and post-recovery evaluations
Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016	**X**	**X**	**X**		Independent	- Recovery Satisfaction Emotions - Trust and Loyalty	Procedural Justice and Interactional Justice are considered as key dimensions to affect customer loyalty
Choi and Choi, 2014	X	X	X		Independent	- Customer Affection - Customer Loyalty - Positive WOM	Interactional Justice and Procedural Justice positively affect customer affection; whereas, distributive justice does not significantly impact. Distributive justice is only effective in influencing customer affection when the magnitude of failure is high.

Studies	Perceived Justice				Role	Outcomes	Main findings related to Perceived Justice and its dimensions
	DJ	**IJ**	**PJ**	**Inf J**			
Mostafa *et al.*, 2015	X	X	X		Mediator	- Recovery Satisfaction - Corporate Image	Only interactional justice has positive direct effects on corporate image. Distributive and procedural justice affects corporate image indirectly
Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016	X	X	X	X	Independent	- Recovery Satisfaction - Positive WOM - Customer Loyalty - Repurchase Intention - Future Co-Creation Tendency	Perceived Justice is positively related to recovery satisfaction. Informational Justice holds a key position in an online context because customers are more satisfied when managers explain in detail the reasons for failure and also how the decisions about recovery outcomes (distribution of benefits) are taken
Balaji *et al.*, 2018	**X**	**X**	**X**		Independent	- Negative inferred motive - Customer Satisfaction	Perceived Justice does not have a positive impact on customer satisfaction in the case of cynical customers.
Migacz *et al.*, 2018	X	X	X		Independent	- Recovery Satisfaction - Negative WOM - Repurchase intention	All dimensions of perceived justice have a positive impact on recovery satisfaction. Distributive justice has a stronger impact than procedural and interactional justice.
Albrecht *et al.*, 2019	X				Mediator	- Recovery Satisfaction	Distributive justice acts successfully as a mediator between compensation and recovery satisfaction
Chen and Kim, 2019	X	X	X		Independent	- Emotions - Overall satisfaction - WOM intention	No significant relationship between perceived justice dimensions and emotions
Bae *et al.*, 2020	X	X	X		Dependant		Passive complainers perceive better distributive and interactional justice than active complainers
Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020	X	X	X		Independent	- Customer forgiveness - Relationship satisfaction	Insignificant impact of procedural justice on satisfaction
Lee *et al.*, 2020	X	X			Moderator	- Repurchase intention	Perceived Justice positively moderates the relationship between brand equity and repurchase intentions

Note:Dj= Distributiuve Justice , IJ= Interactional Justice, PJ= Procedural Justice, Inf J=Informtional Justice

X = Perceived Justice is utilised as a single construct (second-order construct)

X = Individual dimensions are utlised

2.4.5 The role of service failure severity in service recovery frameworks

The evaluations of service recovery efforts have been mainly affected by the nature and intensity of the service failure/service failure severity (Chao and Cheng, 2019). Service failure severity is known as the intensity of the service failure perceived by the customers (Sengupta *et al.*, 2015). Several studies have taken service failure severity into account and demonstrated failure severity as a critical factor in shaping recovery satisfaction and other service recovery outcomes (Choi and Choi, 2014; Liu *et al.*, 2019; Mattila, 1999; Shams *et al.*, 2020; Weun *et al.*, 2004). According to Mattila (1999), it is challenging for service firms to recover from a serious service failure, leaving them dissatisfied. After experiencing severe service failure, customers raise their expectations of service recovery efforts, and failure of meeting their expectations leads to dissatisfaction (Matikiti *et al.*, 2019). Thus, identifying the intensity of the failure is critical in the recovery process (Chao and Cheng, 2019).

The importance of service failure severity among service recovery frameworks is well recognized for two decades (Liao, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2019; Magnini *et al.*, 2007; Matikiti *et al.*, 2019; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Sembada *et al.*, 2016; Smith *et al.*, 1999). Service failure severity has played several roles in the frameworks such as; a control variable (Liao, 2007), a moderator (Magnini *et al.*, 2007; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 1999), a dependent variable (Sembada *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, a large number of investigations (Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013; Chuang *et al.*, 2012; Weun *et al.*, 2004) have empirically tested its main effects. Service failure severity becomes critical for service firms, as it negatively influences branding outcomes even in the presence of service recovery efforts (Barakat *et al.*, 2015).

The determination of service failure severity is essential before applying service recovery as different intensity levels of service failures have different implications (Shams *et al.*, 2020). The literature has mentioned two levels of service failure severity, high and low (Liu *et al.*, 2019). High severity failures are high in their intensity and represent a major loss (financial, psychological, emotional, physical), whereas low severity failures are low in their intensity and represent a minor loss (financial, psychological, emotional, physical) of the consumers (Cantor and Li, 2019). Researchers have mentioned different implications and have recommended different recovery strategies for both levels of service failure severity. For example, Choi and Choi (2014) concluded that a mere apology is more appropriate for a low-severity service failure, whereas financial compensation is necessary for high severity service failure. On the other hand, Liu *et al.* (2019) discouraged service managers from recovering customers who have experienced high severity service failures instead be responsive to customers who have faced low severity failures. They reasoned that this implication is due to incurring high costs with no possibility of recovering customers who experience high severity failures. Hence, identification of the magnitude of the failure is critical.

2.4.6 Service recovery paradox

The service recovery paradox (SRP) phenomenon is that through service recovery, firms can achieve higher levels of consumer outcomes after service failure and recovery compared to a situation where there is no service failure and recovery (Khamitov *et al.*, 2020). The paradox suggests that customers feel more content and happy with the firm after experiencing service failure and recovery rather than before it (Matos *et al.*, 2007). SRP is considered a ‘blessing in disguise’ where service failures are considered an opportunity for firms to deliver excellent service recovery and create more goodwill (Michel and Meuter, 2008).

The literature has examined various service recovery outcomes as a subject of a paradox, for example, satisfaction (Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Boshoff, 1997; Karande *et al.*, 2007), repurchase intent (Maxham III, 2001; Soares *et al.*, 2017), corporate image (Andreassen, 2001), word of mouth (Lin *et al.*, 2011; Maxham III, 2001) and loyalty (Kim and Baker, 2020c; Smith and Bolton, 1998). Satisfaction has been used more frequently in studies investigating the service recovery paradox (see table 2.10) because satisfaction is considered as a key outcome to examine the effectiveness of service recovery efforts. The studies investigating the phenomenon of service recovery paradox with satisfaction and other outcomes signify its significance for the firms to avail the undesirable situation to their advantage (Matos *et al.*, 2007).

Despite its significance, there are mixed findings related to the occurrence of the service recovery paradox. For example, Smith and Bolton (1998) examined restaurant and hotel consumers. They found that consumers have higher ratings of cumulative satisfaction and loyalty after experiencing a service recovery than the ratings before service failure and recovery. Similarly, Heidenreich *et al.* (2015) also found evidence of the service recovery paradox when customers participate in the service recovery process. More recently, Azemi *et al.* (2019) suggest that the chances of service recovery paradox are prominent if customers participate in service recovery and if the customers are provided with timely compensation. A few other studies show partial support of service recovery paradox occurrence (Hocutt *et al.*, 2006; Karande *et al.*, 2007). In contrast, some studies exposit that the service recovery paradox does not occur. For example, Maxham III (2001) launched a pre-test post-test between-subject design and found no support of a service recovery paradox in the context of a haircut service. Lin *et al.* (2011) also suggest that the service recovery paradox does not appear, and ratings of satisfaction, word of mouth, and repurchase intention remain lower after service recovery compared to before service failure. It is suggested that the variation in the findings are due to the severity of service failure (Gruber and Frugone, 2011; Weun *et al.*, 2004).

Table 2.10 Studies Investigating Service Recovery Paradox

Studies	**Service recovery Paradox with respect to**						**Paradox occurrence**
	Corporate Image	Emotions	Loyalty	Repurchase Intention	Satisfaction	Word of mouth	
Boshoff, 1997					X		Yes
Smith and Bolton, 1998			X		X		Yes
Tax *et al.*, 1998					X		Yes
McCollough, 2000					X		No
Andreassen, 2001	X			X			No
Maxham III, 2001				X	X	X	No
Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002					X		Yes
Weun *et al.*, 2004					X		Yes
Hocutt *et al.*, 2006					X		Yes
Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006					X		No
Voorhees *et al.*, 2006				X			Yes
Magnini *et al.*, 2007					X		Yes
Ok *et al.*, 2007					X		Yes
Ringberg *et al.*, 2007					X		Yes
Michel and Meuter, 2008					X		Yes
Du *et al.*, 2011		X					No
Lin *et al.*, 2011				X	X	X	No
Singhal *et al.*, 2013					X		Yes
Heidenreich *et al.*, 2015					X		Yes
Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017			X				Yes
Soares *et al.*, 2017				X			Yes
Azemi *et al.*, 2019					X		Yes

2.5 Brand equity

Firms are competing viciously (Lappeman *et al.*, 2020) to gain a competitive advantage and a healthy financial position; consequently, branding has risen as a central approach for service brand managers (Girard *et al.*, 2017). Brands are the most valuable treasure nowadays, so the firms prioritise developing strong brands and improving their value (Moise *et al.*, 2019). The need for a key marketing performance indicator is critical, which is brand equity in this case (Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015). The race of achieving high brand equity is continuing because brand equity drives a firm towards business success by gaining a sustainable competitive advantage and a healthy financial position (Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2016; Ou *et al.*, 2020).

Over the past 30 years, brand equity has emerged to be a significant area in branding among academics because of its various benefits to firms and to consumers (Aaker, 1991; Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2016; Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010; Farquhar, 1989; Keller, 1993; Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020; Yoo and Donthu, 2001). The concept gained prominence in the late 1980s after Farquhar (1989, p.24) explained brand equity as "added value with which a given brand endows a product". Since then, numerous researchers have documented brand equity as a source of several benefits for brands and consumers. For example, brands with high brand equity can gain price premiums from the customers (Keller, 1993; Rambocas *et al.*, 2018), have higher market share (Agarwal and Rao, 1996), secure cash flows and competitive advantage (Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015; Moise *et al.*, 2019), create obstacles for competition to enter a market (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; González-Mansilla *et al.*, 2019) resulting in a higher long-term and short-term performance (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010), allow customers to make confident purchase decisions (Aaker, 1996), gain lifetime value (Stahl *et al.*, 2012) and help consumers in the information processing during the pre-purchase evaluation of products or services (French and Smith, 2013; Yang, Sonmez, *et al.*, 2019). Clearly, brands with high brand equity are beneficial for all parties involved.

According to Christodoulides *et al.* (2006), brand equity is also significant for services where customers seek intangible benefits. Specifically, the level of perceived risks in service purchase is high because service failures are inevitable within the service industry. Within service recovery literature, brand equity is shown to play a buffering role in reducing these perceived risks (Hogreve *et al.*, 2019). Brady *et al.* (2008) found that, in cases of service failure followed by a service recovery, firms with high brand equity show more favourable consumer outcomes than firms having low brand equity. Brand equity has also been investigated as a moderator between service recovery and various consumer outcomes. For example, Huang (2011) investigated the moderating role of brand equity within the service recovery framework and found that firms with high brand equity have an overall advantage over firms having low brand equity to increase recovery satisfaction and behavioural intentions after service recovery. More recently, Hazée *et al.* (2017) suggest that brand equity plays a moderating role in the direct relationship of co-creating a service recovery and outcome favorability. The influential effect is visible because the Brand equity of a service provider builds on customers' perceptions of service quality and can be seen as customers' differential reaction to a specific brand owing to brand knowledge (Harun *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, it is evident from extant research that brand equity is equally important in the service industry.

2.5.1 Perspectives of brand equity

Brand equity has been analysed from a variety of perspectives. For example, common perspectives include; financial perspective(Lim *et al.*, 2020; Schultz, 2016; Simon and Sullivan, 1993), employee perspective (King and Grace, 2010; Lee *et al.*, 2019; Poulis and Wisker, 2016), employer perspective (Benraiss-Noailles and Viot, 2020; Jiang and Iles, 2011; Theurer *et al.*, 2018) and consumer perspective (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2019; Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010; Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020; Yoo and Donthu, 2001). The segregation of the perspectives is based on the viewpoint's of different entities involved (firm, consumer, employee and employer) and benefits yielded from brand equity (See table 2.11).

The first perspective relates to the financial value generated by the brand equity to the firm and is termed as Financial-Based Brand Equity (FBBE) (Wang, 2010). In accounting terms, brand equity results from the difference between a firm's tangible asset value and a firm's financial market value (Simon and Sullivan, 1993). This perspective is inclined towards estimating the brand value for accounting purposes

(Tuominen, 1999). It also characterises brand equity as a source of future profits or cash flows gained through different marketing efforts (Ambler, 2003). FBBE considers its financial market value to measure its brand strength (Lim *et al.*, 2020). However, financial valuation is the forecast which can be volatile (Feldwick, 1996). Although FBBE is inclined to estimate the brand value for accounting purposes (Tuominen, 1999), a limitation of this perspective is that it does not consider intangible assets such as human resources while measuring the brand's financial value (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016).

The second perspective is known as Employee-based brand equity, which considers the importance of human resources. This perspective emphasises that role of employees cannot be neglected as a driver of brand success because employees are part of stakeholder groups (Supornpraditchai *et al.*, 2007). It is explained as the brand's added value to a firm in terms of its employees' positive attitudes and behaviours (King *et al.*, 2012). Employee based brand equity is essential nowadays because organizations have gone beyond using only instrumental attributes of a job for organizational attraction because nowadays, the firm attraction is predicted by perceived innovations and competence (Poulis and Wisker, 2016). Therefore, to ensure that employees carry out their tasks successfully and follow the firms' requirements, the firms need to instil effective internal brand management and build employee-based brand equity (Boukis and Christodoulides, 2020; King and Grace, 2010).

The third perspective relates to employer branding. Firms consider employer branding as an effective tool to acquire and retain employees (Biswas and Suar, 2016). In this regard, associations and awareness of current and potential employees towards the employer brand is considered as Employer Brand Equity (Biswas and Suar, 2016). Employer-based brand equity is essential to communicate a firm's offerings to its current and potential employees (Theurer *et al.*, 2018). The three main benefits sought through employer-based brand equity include promoting the firm as a distinctive employer among its competition in front of potential employees, improving employees' engagement, and retaining the talent pool (Jiang and Iles, 2011). The trio: i) Level of awareness, ii) overall beliefs or opinions held by public and, iii) actual perceptions held by the public, impact employer brand equity and leads to organizational attractiveness as an outcome (Theurer *et al.*, 2018).

Finally, the fourth perspective of brand equity is from the consumers' perspective (Jiao *et al.*, 2018). This perspective takes the roots of cognitive psychology and explains brand equity in terms of the value of a brand held in consumers' minds, commonly known as consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) (Krautz, 2017). The occurrence of CBBE is identified with the presence of positive attitudes, favourable behaviours, strong brand awareness and associations, which further result in strengthening the earning power of a brand (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010). These determinants are shaped with the help of customer experiences with the brand over time (Mohan *et al.*, 2017). In other words, this perspective reflects that the power of the brand resides in consumers' minds, and its understanding from consumers' point of view will enrich the firms to develop successful marketing activities (Stahl *et al.*, 2012).

Among the four perspectives of brand equity, the most researched perspective in the branding literature is consumer-based brand equity (Alvarado-Karste and Guzmán, 2020). Although all brand equity perspectives have relevance and are complementary to each other, consumer-based brand equity is the most common indicator of brand equity (Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020). The perspectives of brand equity differ in their scope and benefits (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016). For example, consumer-based brand equity depicts the strength of the brands in consumers' minds which allows the firms to charge premium prices, gain a competitive advantage and increase customer retention (Moise *et al.*, 2019; Rambocas *et al.*, 2018). In contrast, the scope of employee-based brand equity and employer-based brand equity is limited to its current and potential employees' response towards the firm's internal marketing or towards the firm as a beneficial place to work (Biswas and Suar, 2016; King *et al.*, 2012). Similarly, financial-based brand equity represents the financial value of a brand, which is usually used in accounting by financial accountants. Keeping in view that different stakeholders contribute to shaping the brand's value, the primary source of brand equity is the consumer (Mohan *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, CBBE is relevant in most investigations where the purpose is to examine how the consumers' perceptions, associations, attitudes and behaviours impact brand equity.

Table 2.11 Brand Equity Perspectives

Perspective	Main contributions	Benefits to brands
Financial based brand equity (FBBE)	Davcik and Sharma, 2015; Feldwick, 1996; Lim et al., 2020; Schultz, 2016; Shankar et al., 2008; Simon and Sullivan, 1993	Cash flows, expansion opportunities
Consumer Based Brand Equity (CBBE)	(Aaker, 1991, 1996; Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Broyles et al., 2010; Chatzipanagiotou et al., 2019; Christodoulides et al., 2015; Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010; Girard et al., 2017; Keller, 1993; Lassar et al., 1995; Netemeyer et al., 2004; Pappu et al., 2005; Stahl et al., 2012; Veloutsou et al., 2013, 2020; Yoo et al., 2000; Yoo and Donthu, 2001)	Price premiums, customer retention, competitive advantage, barriers to competitive entry, market share
Employee Based Brand Equity (EBBE)	(King et al., 2012; King and Grace, 2005, 2010; Poulis and Wisker, 2016; Supornpraditchai et al., 2007; Tavassoli et al., 2014)	Satisfaction of employees, retention, employee Positive word of mouth
Employer Brand Equity (EBE)	(Biswas and Suar, 2016; Jiang and Iles, 2011; Theurer *et al.*, 2018)	Attracting potential employees, Acquisition of new talent at reduced costs, Increased Organizational attractiveness

2.5.2 Definition of consumer-based brand equity

The research on the concept of consumer-based brand equity over the past three decades remains unprecedented, with many studies on defining the brand equity concept; however, scholarly work on its conceptualisation has not been exhausted yet (Hepola *et al.*, 2017). This is because there does not exist an agreed-upon definition of the brand equity concept in the marketing literature (Dinçer *et al.*, 2019). This disagreement has led to an extensive debate on the way brand equity can benefit businesses, its dimensions, and how it can be built with distinct marketing actions (Godey *et al.*, 2016). Hence Winters (1991, p.70) explanation of this dilemma is still relevant, who states that “if you ask 10 people to define brand equity, you are likely to get 10 (maybe 11) different answers as what it means”.

What we know about the conceptualization of brand equity is that the definitions are largely based upon the seminal study of Farquhar (1989), who considered brand equity as the added value endowed to a product by a brand. The definitions inspired by Farquhar's notion emphasize that consumer-based brand equity is identified as the value which enhances the product's worth. For example, Srivastava and Shocker (1991) explained that brand equity signifies the additional value given by a brand to a mere product of the firm. Similarly, Lassar *et al.* (1995, p.13) define it as “the enhancement in the perceived utility and desirability a brand name confers on a product". A more comprehensive definition in this respect states that "the brand has an economic function, the value of a brand (brand equity) derives from its capacity to generate an exclusive, positive and prominent meaning in the minds of a large number of consumers" (Kapferer, 1997, p.25).

Further explanation is included in this notion by mentioning competitors as a reference point. Such as, Boo *et al.* (2009, p.220) explained that brand equity is "the overall utility that customers place in a brand compared to its competitors". Though Farquhar's (1989) conceptualisation of brand equity is not only from the perspective of consumers but also from firm and trade, there is no agreement in the literature as to whether brand equity refers to the value of the brand itself or the value of the brand name (Ishaq and Di Maria, 2020). Hence, Farquhar's (1989) conceptualisation of brand equity is general and abstract.

The principle conceptualizations considered in brand equity literature emerge from the studies of Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). Aaker (1991, p.15) defined brand equity as "a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm's customers". The assets (brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, brand loyalty, and other proprietary assets) are represented as the source of long-term competitive advantage because they reflect the value of the brand and are not easily duplicated (Ruan *et al.*, 2020). Several researchers have accepted Aaker (1991) conceptualisation by recognising its multi-dimensional nature and considering it to be directly related to other marketing concepts (Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995; Foroudi *et al.*, 2018; Jung and Sung, 2008). In an attempt to further broaden the Aaker (1991) conceptualisation of brand equity, Park and Srinivasan (1994) defined brand equity as the residual of the difference between overall consumer's brand preference and the preference made based on multiple attributes of the brand over other brands. They elaborated that brand associations aid brand equity through attribute-based assistance (brand building activities shape consumers' preference over other brands) and non-attribute-based assistance (overall brand preference over other brands). A similar perspective was followed by Lassar *et al.* (1995), who concluded that there are five necessary ingredients to be included while defining brand equity: i) consumer perceptions ii) global value of a brand which emanates from iii) brand name iv) to be always viewed in relation to competition and v) positive impact of brand equity on the financial health of a brand. Despite its prevalent acceptance, Aaker (1991) conceptualisation of brand equity ignores the consumer mental processes that signify strong brand equity.

Brand equity is also defined from a cognitive psychology perspective as Keller (1993, p.8) defined it as "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand". The definition poses that there will be a difference in consumers' reactions (due to variations in brand knowledge) towards marketing activities of a brand compared to an unnamed or unknown brand. Recent scholars who follow Keller's (1993) conceptualization endorse that consumers' brand knowledge and responses are the main components of brand equity (Alvarado-Karste and Guzmán, 2020; Biedenbach *et al.*, 2019; Heitmann *et al.*, 2020). To summarise, Keller (1993) conceptualisation of brand equity highlights the significance of brand knowledge in the long-run success of a brand.

Some marketing scholars conceptualized brand equity based on Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) frameworks. For example, Yoo and Donthu (2001, p.1)"define brand equity as the difference between consumers' responses to a focal brand and an unbranded product when both have the same level of marketing stimuli, and product attributes". A key aspect of Yoo and Donthu (2001) conceptualisation of brand equity explains that the different responses towards a brand may be credited towards the privilege of having a brand name. Similarly, Vázquez *et al.* (2002) illustrate that brand equity is the overall utility, including both: functional utilities (which fulfil practical needs) and symbolic utilities (emotional evaluation) a consumer attaches with a brand during consumption. On another occasion, Brady *et al.* (2008) stressed that consumers' perceptions are not limited to the mere familiarity of the brand but having cognitions of the superiority of the brand over other brands explains brand equity. However, only positive cognitions will help the brand be considered superior over other brands. This view is also supported by Broyles *et al.* (2009), who highlighted that positive interactions of consumers with the brand develop certain perceptions and attachments, which assist in developing a value of the brand, which is considered brand equity.

Another viewpoint conceptualises brand equity as the power of the brand through which a brand enjoys dominance. Mahajan *et al.* (1994, p.222) define brand equity as “The power that a brand may command in a market by means of its name, symbol or logo”. The power of the brand also results in improving the financial health of the firms. For example, more recently, Ishaq and Di Maria (2020) suggest that brand equity is the power and reputation in the minds of the consumers, which impacts the brand's financial performance. Chatzipanagiotou *et al.* (2016) denote the ‘power’ as the brand's strength, which is indicated by the customer’s repurchase intentions and overall preference.

Given the definitions discussed above, different conceptualisations hold distinct expositions of brand equity. Three main groups of definitions can be categorized based on three critical aspects found in the definitions. First aspect roots in the information economics perspective that brand equity is the added value given to a product (Aaker, 1991; Boo *et al.*, 2009; Choi and Seo, 2019; Farquhar, 1989). The second aspect comes from the roots of cognitive psychology, that consumer-based brand equity is the differential effect due to the difference in brand knowledge (Biedenbach *et al.*, 2019; Keller, 1993). The third aspect describes brand equity as the brand's overall strength, which brings several benefits, like customer retention and charging price premiums (Ishaq and Di Maria, 2020; Mahajan *et al.*, 1994).

A comprehensive definition is found in the study by Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010, p.248). The definition included elements from both economic utility and cognitive psychology perspectives. They stated that CBBE is “a set of perceptions, attitudes, knowledge, and behaviours on the part of consumers that results in increased utility and allows a brand to earn greater volume or greater margins than it could without the brand name”. Strong brands have high CBBE as they typically have a high recognition and recall, clear and well-established brand associations, and strong brand differentiation (Wang and Ding, 2017; Wolter *et al.*, 2016). Similarly, strong brands evoke strong emotional reactions in customers (Alvarez and Fournier, 2016) and enjoy high acceptance by the consumers (Wang and Ding, 2017; Wymer and Casidy, 2019). This is because brands with high CBBE result in a more positive attitude and behaviours (Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2019). According to Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010), brands with high CBBE affect consumer choices as they tend to be more acceptable to consumers. Furthermore, consumers are more willing to forgive these brands in case of service failures; thus, they are less affected by negative incidents (Brady *et al.*, 2008).

Overall, there seems to be some evidence to indicate that Christodoulides and de Chernatony (2010) conceptualisation of CBBE is exhaustive, comprehensive, and widely recognised.

2.5.3 Brand equity measurement

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in measuring brand equity using different perspectives and contexts (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016). Investigating different brand equity measures is a continuing concern within the marketing domain as brand equity has become part of a set of marketing performance indicators (Ambler, 2003; Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010). Owing to this, Keller and Lehmann (2006) identified the measurement of brand equity as an important research topic. Though measuring brand equity is a challenging task (Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015), recently scholars have examined the several approaches to CBBE's measurement, including direct, indirect, and practitioner approaches (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2016; Malhotra *et al.*, 1996).

The direct approach attempts to gauge CBBE by examining the actual impact of brand knowledge on customer preferences (Park and Srinivasan, 1994), utilities (Erdem and Swait, 1998), or response to different marketing stimuli (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016). On the other hand, the indirect approach operationalises CBBE through potential sources of CBBE in the form of demonstrable dimensions of CBBE (Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020) and by identifying and tracking customers' brand knowledge structure (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016). Specifically, the indirect approach operationalises CBBE as a multifaceted and multidimensional construct that is measured through multiple dimensions (Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020).

2.5.3.1 Direct approaches

The direct approach to measure CBBE mainly consists of unidimensional measures which assess CBBE based on various attributes constituting its meaning (Filieri *et al.*, 2019). Thus, scholars following the direct approach use a multiattribute framework to measure CBBE (Jourdan, 2002; Park and Srinivasan, 1994; Srinivasan, 1979). For instance, Srinivasan (1979) assesses CBBE by comparing actual choice preferences and consumer preferences measured through conjoint analysis. However, this method is limited by its ability to provide only segment-level estimates of brand equity that do not reveal brand value sources (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016). Similarly, Park and Srinivasan (1994) used a survey-based method for capturing CBBE in a product category. They divide brand equity measures into attribute-based and non-attribute-based components. However, they do not specify the constituents of the non-attribute-based part of CBBE for deeper understanding and insight. Park and Srinivasan (1994) measure of CBBE was improved by Jourdan (2002), who established the construct validity of this measure and used an experimental design to unravel the role of the error component in the measurement of CBBE. Though Jourdan (2002) approach has some advantages over earlier direct measures of CBBE, the complexity of experimental design makes it impractical and difficult to use.

Several other studies have attempted to measure CBBE using a direct approach through the information economics paradigm. For example, they are considering the total utility of brand (Swait *et al.*, 1993), customer surveys and financial measures (Shankar *et al.*, 2008), or by assessing the additional profit gained by a product which is branded in comparison to a non-branded product (Ferjani *et al.*, 2009). Leuthesser *et al.* (1995) used the methods of 'partialling out' and 'double centering' to measure CBBE by controlling consumers biased personal evaluations of a brand on several attributes. Though Leuthesser *et al.* (1995) direct approach to assessing CBBE controls consumers' predispositions, it does not guide the underlying dimensions of CBBE, is complex, and assesses CBBE on the aggregate level rather than at the dimension level. Similarly, (Kamakura and Russell (1993) employ a segment-wise logit model to examine consumers' actual purchase behaviour by using real purchase data from supermarket checkout counters to estimate Brand Value. This measurement is also limited because it only assesses CBBE at an aggregate level using available scanner data.

2.5.3.2 Indirect approaches

Indirect approaches to the measurement of CBBE take an overall picture of the brand and assess CBBE through multiple dimensions and/or behavioural outcomes (Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015). Most authors that have adopted the indirect approach have developed scales to capture CBBE at different levels and in different contexts (Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; de Chernatony *et al.*, 2004; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Lassar *et al.*, 1995; Nath and Bawa, 2011; Vázquez *et al.*, 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2001). Adopting an indirect approach stems from the fact that it operationalises CBBE through its demonstrable facets and offers more guidance to practitioners (Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010; Veloutsou *et al.*, 2020), and works better for diagnosing brand health (Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2016).

Much of the current studies that use the indirect approach follow Aaker (1991) operationalisation of CBBE, which identifies brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand association, and perceived quality as key facets of CBBE (Buil *et al.*, 2008; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015; Marques *et al.*, 2020; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Washburn and Plank, 2002). Traditionally, it has been argued that Aaker (1991) CBBE dimensions give the idea that the better the brand knowledge in consumers' memory, the favourable will be the consumer behaviour towards the brand, which will lead to higher brand equity. Following this premise, brand awareness which is the consumers' ability to recognise and recall a brand, represents the key dimension of CBBE (Marques *et al.*, 2020). On the other hand, the brand association dimension of CBBE constitutes the way people think about a brand abstractly (Vogel *et al.*, 2019). Similarly, the perceived quality dimension of CBBE reflects consumers' evaluations of the product's features and performance (Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Muniz *et al.*, 2019). Finally, the brand loyalty dimension of CBBE manifests consumers' attachment to and intention to repurchase the same brand (Liu and Jiang, 2020; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019). Though Aaker (1991) dimensions of CBBE have been subsequently operationalised by different scholars (Nath and Bawa, 2011; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Yoo and Donthu, 2001) in different contexts (de Chernatony *et al.*, 2004), they are not void of criticism (Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015).

The literature suggests modifications in the structure of CBBE with regards to its dimensions. For example, Lassar *et al.* (1995) used survey data and proposed five dimensions of CBBE, including performance, value, social image, trustworthiness and commitment. However, the operationalisation of CBBE does not include loyalty as a dimension which is a behavioural facet of CBBE. On the other hand, Vázquez *et al.* (2002) developed a scale of CBBE that consists of four basic dimensions, including product functional utility, product symbolic utility, brand name functional utility and brand name symbolic utility. This operationalisation is further improved by Kocak *et al.* (2007) using a sample of Turkish consumers. They modified the scale and reduced the number of items from 22 to 16 as appropriate for a different cultural setting.

Some scholars have attempted to formulate CBBE measurement with respect to the specific context. To illustrate, de Chernatony *et al.* (2004) developed a CBBE scale using 600 consumers of financial services brands and identified satisfaction, loyalty and reputation as dimensions of CBBE. Later, Christodoulides *et al.* (2006) measure CBBE in an online context and investigate the ways that the Internet has enabled consumers to become co-creators of brand value. Boo *et al.* (2009) mentioned that evaluating a tourist brand is a complex phenomenon; hence they put forward a model of CBBE suitable for tourist destinations. They used destination brand awareness, destination brand image, destination brand loyalty, destination brand quality and destination brand value to measure CBBE.

A broader perspective has been adopted by Yoo and Donthu (2001), who argue that CBBE can be measured with both the unidimensional (direct) measure and multidimensional measure. They developed a multi-dimensional measure of CBBE that draws on the theoretical dimensions of CBBE proposed by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). Yoo and Donthu (2001) CBBE scale consisted of dimensions, including brand awareness/associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. They further proposed a 4-item unidimensional measure of CBBE, which they termed as “overall brand equity”. Their scale has several advantages over the predecessors, such as a culturally valid scale applicable to various product categories, with greater parsimony and ease of administration.

Considering the fragmentation of dimensionality and measurement of CBBE, Veloutsou *et al.* (2013) suggested multiple measures to capture CBBE, which can be summed up in four broad categories, i) Consumers’ understanding of brand characteristics (Awareness, Associations, Strong and Distinct personality, Heritage) ii) consumers’ affective response towards the brand (Consumer-brand relationships, Brand identification, Trust) iii) Consumers’ brand evaluation (Reputation, Leadership, Quality, Uniqueness (or differentiation), Relevance) and iv) Consumers’ behaviour towards the brand (Willing to pay a price premium, Willingness to sacrifice, Word-of-mouth (WOM) recommendation, Brand usage, Acceptance of brand extensions). Furthermore, they indicated that while measuring CBBE, managers may pick and choose measures from each of the four categories according to their suitability because measuring CBBE through every dimension is impracticable. In the same vein, Chatzipanagiotou *et al.* (2016) asserted that CBBE is an evolving process rather than a static construct. In the pursuit of their claim, they used complexity and configural theory to decode the complexity of the CBBE process and summarised that this dynamic process consists of three blocks, namely, i) Brand building (Imagery aspects –Brand heritage, brand nostalgic, brand personality | Functional aspects – Perceived quality, brand competitive advantage, brand leadership) ii) Brand understanding (awareness, associations, reputation, and self-connection) and iii) Brand relationships (Brand trust, Brand intimacy, Brand Relevance, Brand partner Quality).

More recently, scholars acknowledge the need to develop new scales which are robust and not reliant on traditional approaches to measuring CBBE. For example, Baalbaki and Guzmán (2016) contributed to the literature with a new scale of CBBE, which constitutes brand preference, quality, sustainability and social influence. According to them, the set of 4 dimensions is more accurate and robust in measuring CBBE, and it assists the firms in comprehending consumers' perceptions towards the brand. Similarly, Filieri *et al.* (2019) developed a "culturally contextualized" scale to measure brand equity and found 'brand mianzi' as a new dimension along with awareness, perceived quality and brand loyalty. According to Filieri *et al.* (2019, p.381), brand mianzi "implies consciousness of glory and shame, and it represents the reputation of an individual's reputation and social position in others' eyes".They consider it as the second most important dimension after brand loyalty in the context of Chinese culture. Clearly, to date, scholars have little agreement with respect to specific dimensions while capturing CBBE. Table 2.12 presents a list of various dimensions which are considered to capture CBBE.

Table 2.12 Dimensions used in brand equity literature

Dimensions	**Studies**		
	Quantitative / Mixed method	**Developed Scale**	**Conceptual**
Administrative staff	Retamosa *et al.*, 2019		
Attachment		Lassar *et al.*, 1995	
Attribute-based brand equity	Park and Srinivasan, 1994		
Brand associations	Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995; Girard *et al.*, 2017; Jung and Sung, 2008; Marques *et al.*, 2020; Park and Srinivasan, 1994; Shekhar Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Vogel *et al.*, 2019; Washburn and Plank, 2002	Nath and Bawa, 2011; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Yoo and Donthu, 2001	Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1993
Brand Attitude	Im et *al.,* 2012		
Brand awareness	Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995; Davis *et al.*, 2009; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Im *et al.*, 2012; Jung and Sung, 2008; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2004; Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010; Lin and Chung, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2020, 2017; Marques *et al.*, 2020; Muniz *et al.*, 2019; Rios and Riquelme, 2008; Šerić *et al.*, 2017; Shekhar Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Vogel *et al.*, 2019; Washburn and Plank, 2002	Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Yoo and Donthu, 2001	Aaker, 1991; Berry, 2000; Keller, 1993
Brand familiarity	Rego *et al.*, 2009	Nath and Bawa, 2011	
Brand image	Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Davis *et al.*, 2009; Im *et al.*, 2012; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2004; Lin and Chung, 2019; Liu, Zhang, *et al.*, 2020; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Muniz *et al.*, 2019; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019; Vogel *et al.*, 2019		
Brand intangible value	Kamakura and Russell, 1993		
Brand Loyalty	Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Camarero *et al.*, 2012; Im *et al.*, 2012; Jung and Sung, 2008; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2004; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Lin and Chung, 2019; Liu, Zhang, *et al.*, 2020; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Muniz *et al.*, 2019; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019; Rios and Riquelme, 2008; Vogel *et al.*, 2019; Washburn and Plank, 2002	de Chernatony *et al.*, 2004; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Nath and Bawa, 2011; Yoo and Donthu, 2001	
Brand Meaning			Berry, 2000
Brand name utility	Kocak *et al.*, 2007	Vázquez *et al.*, 2002	

Dimensions	**Studies**		
	Quantitative / Mixed method	**Developed Scale**	**Conceptual**
Brand performance		Lassar *et al.*, 1995	
Brand personality	Buil *et al.*, 2008; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019		
Brand recognition	Camarero *et al.*, 2012		
Brand trust	Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019; Rios and Riquelme, 2008; Shekhar Kumar *et al.*, 2013	Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006	Blackston, 1992
Community	Retamosa *et al.*, 2019		
Differentiation,	Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010		
Emotional connection		Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006	
Facilities and equipment	Retamosa *et al.*, 2019		
Fulfilment		Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006	
Imagery	Broyles *et al.*, 2010		
Mianzi		Filieri *et al.*, 2019	
Non-attribute based brand equity	Park and Srinivasan, 1994		
Online experience		Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006	
Organisational associations	(Buil *et al.*, 2008)		
Perceived quality	Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Broyles *et al.*, 2010; Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995; Im *et al.*, 2012; Jung and Sung, 2008; Kamakura and Russell, 1993; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2004; Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Marques *et al.*, 2020; Muniz *et al.*, 2019; Rego *et al.*, 2009; Shekhar Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Vogel *et al.*, 2019; Washburn and Plank, 2002	Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Nath and Bawa, 2011; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Yoo and Donthu, 2001	Aaker, 1991
Perceived performance	Broyles *et al.*, 2010		
Perceived value / perceived value for the cost	Buil *et al.*, 2008; Camarero *et al.*, 2012; Rios and Riquelme, 2008	Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004	
Preference		Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016	
Product utility	Kocak *et al.*, 2007	Vázquez *et al.*, 2002	
Purchase consideration	Rego *et al.*, 2009		
Reputation		de Chernatony *et al.*, 2004	
Resonance	Broyles *et al.*, 2010		

Dimensions	Studies		
	Quantitative / Mixed method	Developed Scale	Conceptual
Responsive service nature		Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006	
Satisfaction		de Chernatony *et al.*, 2004	Blackston, 1992
Service quality	Gil-Saura *et al.*, 2017		
Shared values	Retamosa *et al.*, 2019		
Social image		Lassar *et al.*, 1995	
Social influence		Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016	
Study programme	Retamosa *et al.*, 2019		
Sustainability		Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016	
Teaching staff	Retamosa *et al.*, 2019		
Trustworthiness		Lassar *et al.*, 1995	
Uniqueness	Camarero *et al.*, 2012; Rego *et al.*, 2009	Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004	
Willingness to pay a price premium for a brand		Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004	

2.6 Gaps and research questions

2.6.1 Gap: 1 Dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process

The first gap stems from the confusion about the dimensions of CBBE. In the past two decades, several studies have sought to determine the dimensions that capture CBBE. These studies exposit several facets as dimensions of CBBE, such as brand awareness, loyalty, brand associations, brand image, perceived quality, and so forth (see Table 2.12). To date, there has been little agreement on the dimensionality of CBBE (Veloutsou *et al.*, 2013). The research related to different contexts and having different investigation objectives have measured CBBE with varying dimensions. This is because the dimensions of CBBE may vary with the context. However, previous research does not indicate a suitable set of dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate (the consumer assessment levels of dimensions, decline after a service failure, and improve after service recovery) within the service failure and recovery process. Though the early research has examined the effect of service failure on branding outcomes such as; brand image (Sajtos *et al.*, 2010), dissatisfaction (Hess, 2008; Suri *et al.*, 2019), brand trust (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016; Weun *et al.*, 2004) and brand loyalty (Cantor and Li, 2019; Kamble and Walvekar, 2019). Similarly, studies have examined the impact of service recovery on brand loyalty (Choi and Choi, 2014; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016), brand trust (Busser and Shulga, 2019; Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019; Tax *et al.*, 1998) and image (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). it has not investigated the effect of service recovery on the dimensions of CBBE that tend to fluctuate in the service failure and recovery process. Therefore, the evidence warrants developing a holistic model to investigate the impact of service failure and recovery on CBBE, including the dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process. The first research question generated from this research gap is:

RQ1: What are the dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate within the context of service failure and recovery?

2.6.2 Gap:2 Service recovery and post-recovery outcomes

Second, the analysis of extant literature reveals that limited efforts have been made in connecting service recovery and CBBE research. For example, investigators have examined the role of brand equity as a mediator (Harun *et al.*, 2019), as a driver of evaluations of service encounters (Brady *et al.*, 2008), and as a buffer in case of service failure (Hogreve *et al.*, 2019). Other studies have examined the moderating role of brand equity between service recovery and post-recovery outcomes, such as recovery satisfaction, behavioural outcomes (Huang, 2011), and outcome favourability (Hazée *et al.*, 2017). What is not yet clear is the impact of service recovery on brand equity, as no previous study has investigated CBBE as an outcome of service recovery. Brand equity is one of the key indicators of brand health (Aaker, 1991), which can help in attaining several benefits for a firm, such as; gaining price premiums from the customers, acquiring higher market share, securing cash flows and attaining competitive advantage (Agarwal and Rao, 1996; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015; Keller, 1993; Moise *et al.*, 2019; Rambocas *et al.*, 2018). Investigating the impact of service recovery on CBBE will allow firms in understanding the return on service recovery expenditures in terms of their positive impact on CBBE.

Within service recovery literature, the majority of the research focused on examining the impact of firm-recovery on post-recovery outcomes (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Smith *et al.*, 1999; You *et al.*, 2020), whereas customers' participation in service recovery has largely been ignored (Hazée *et al.*, 2017). While marketing scholars have been studying service recovery issues for the past three decades (Khamitov *et al.*, 2020), customers' participation in service recovery has emerged as a new research stream only recently. Though the research on customer participation in service recovery is growing, the current literature is dominated by two theoretical issues. Firstly, the findings regarding the effectiveness of customer participation are mixed (Dong *et al.*, 2008; Jin *et al.*, 2019; Kim and Baker, 2020a; Park and Ha, 2016). Secondly, much uncertainty still exists about the relationship of customers' participation in service recovery with CBBE, which restrains the marketers in involving customers in service recovery initiatives. The formulated research question to fill this gap is:

RQ2: What is the impact of service recovery (Firm recovery and Customer Participation in Service Recovery) on post-recovery outcomes?

2.6.3 Gap: 3 Mediating role of perceived justice

Third, perceived justice is increasingly recognised as a key mediatory between service recovery actions and their outcomes (Liao, 2007; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019). Individuals feeling that they are treated with respect, dignity, and sensitivity as a result of service recovery constitute perceived justice (Colquitt, 2001). These feelings act as a litmus test of successful service recovery (Waqas *et al.*, 2014). Although some research has been carried out on the mediating role of perceived justice (Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019), there is no examination of the intervening effect of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE.

Examining the mediating role of perceived justice is important as it underlies the determination of when service recovery improves evaluations (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). Extant research suggests that perceived justice is the most powerful predictor of satisfaction and other outcomes with service recovery (Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2019). When consumers receive a recovery, they view; the outcomes, recovery process, and interaction with employees as more just (Morgeson III *et al.*, 2020). If service firms can enhance the perceptions of justice, consumers would believe that the outcome of service recovery is fair (Harun *et al.*, 2019). The perception of fairness will further result in positive outcomes, including recovery satisfaction (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Smith *et al.*, 1999), customer trust (Busser and Shulga, 2019; Tax *et al.*, 1998), and customer loyalty (Choi and Choi, 2014; Etemad-Sajadi and Bohrer, 2019), corporate image (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015), word of mouth (Migacz *et al.*, 2018) and repurchase intentions (Bae *et al.*, 2020; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020). Despite the plethora of studies on the mediating role of perceived justice, little is known about the intervening role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE. Hence, the third research question of this thesis is as follows:

RQ3: What is the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE?

2.6.4 Gap:4 Moderating role of service failure severity

Although service failure severity is utilised as a critical influencing factor in the relationship between firm recovery and post-recovery outcomes (Choi and Choi, 2014; La and Choi, 2019; Magnini *et al.*, 2007; Weun *et al.*, 2004), very little evidence is found in relation to its utilisation as a moderating factor in the relationships between customer participation in service recovery and post-recovery outcomes (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012). Also, in conjunction with the fact that there is no single study available which has investigated the impact of service recovery on consumer-based brand equity, the moderating role of service failure severity stands missing by default.

The identification of the moderating role of service failure severity becomes imperative because varying levels of the intensity of the service failure severity may influence customer evaluation of the service recovery process (Choi and Choi, 2014). Also, service failure severity influences how the customers assess the service brand after receiving service recovery. For instance, a service failure with high severity is often responsible for customer dissatisfaction with the brand, even in the presence of service recovery (La and Choi, 2019). Therefore the role of service failure severity in service recovery frameworks is significant. This suggests the fourth research question of the study:

RQ4: What is the moderating role of service failure severity in the relationships of service recovery with post-recovery outcomes?

2.6.5 Gap:5 Service recovery Paradox

Studies of service failure and recovery show the importance of examining the phenomenon of service recovery paradox (Andreassen, 2001; Hocutt *et al.*, 2006; Michel and Meuter, 2008; Soares *et al.*, 2017). To illustrate, the service recovery paradox builds on the idea that a good service recovery will reap more benefits or positive outcomes than if the service failure had never occurred (Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017). The literature on the service recovery paradox reveals two critical issues. Firstly, the findings concerning the occurrence of the service recovery paradox are mixed, as illustrated in table 2.10. Secondly, studies have largely remained in finding out the occurrence of paradox concerning customer satisfaction (Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Michel and Meuter, 2008; Tax *et al.*, 1998). On a few occasions, the service recovery paradox has been investigated concerning Loyalty (Smith and Bolton, 2002; Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017), Image (Andreassen, 2001), repurchase intentions (Soares *et al.*, 2017; Voorhees *et al.*, 2006).

Systematic research into the existence of the service recovery paradox concerning dimensions of CBBE such as brand trust, brand reputation and so forth is still warranted. Thus, a lack of research on the service recovery paradox for brand-related outcomes warrants examining brand-related outcomes before a service failure and after service recovery. This will show if customers exhibit higher ratings of brand-related outcomes after a service failure is successfully rectified than before the failure occurred. This poses the fifth research question, which is:

RQ5: Which dimensions of CBBE produce service recovery paradox?

2.7 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the key topics of service failure, service recovery (including firm recovery and customer participation in service recovery), and brand equity, critical to the current thesis. It has discussed different typologies of service failure, which prompt the service firms to initiate service recovery.

Variation in service failure typologies warranted an in-depth review of the literature to identify the most appropriate and acceptable categorisation of service failure. Further, it was revealed that service firms take several recovery actions to address service failures. Among several service recovery actions, apology and compensation are considered the most common adopted service recovery strategies. The analysis revealed that service recovery literature had focused more on investigating firm recovery, whereas customer participation in service recovery is considerably a new avenue within service recovery literature and has mixed findings.

The literature review confirmed that findings related to the concept of service recovery paradox are best mixed and mostly utilised satisfaction as the subject of recovery paradox. Finally, service failure severity is considered as a key moderator within service recovery frameworks.

This chapter also presented that the concept of brand equity is well recognized among marketing researchers but still hold disagreements regarding its conceptualization and dimensions of Consumer-based brand equity. Also, it was revealed that few attempts are made in connecting service recovery and consumer-based brand equity. Finally, the literature analysis review helped the researcher identify research gaps, which then generated five main research questions to be addressed.

Chapter 3 Analytical Approach

3.1 Introduction

This chapter includes the overall plan of the methodology, which was adopted to collect primary data develop the conceptual framework and answer the formulated research questions. The chapter begins with the overarching system of beliefs (research paradigm) reflected in every aspect of the chosen methodology. The philosophical stance of the researcher is described and justified under the section of the research paradigm. Following the research paradigm, this chapter describes the overall research design of the current research, which delineates the required methods of primary data collection. In the end, the chapter summary is explained.

3.2 The Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is understood as a pattern, a set of standards, a framework, a worldview, philosophical stance by various authors. For example, Kuhn (1977) suggested that a research paradigm is a pattern that may include several concepts, variables and methodological approaches to investigate the solutions to a problem. According to Chalmers (1982, p.90), "the paradigm sets the standards for legitimate work within the science it governs". Similarly, Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.105) described it as "a basic system or worldview that guides the investigator". The worldview or framework constitutes shared beliefs and assumptions of conducting research held by the community of researchers.

In order to situate the current study within a research paradigm, it is pertinent to comprehend the composition of a research paradigm and its types. Guba and Lincoln (1994) explained that the nature of a research paradigm is well understood with the help of the investigator's answers, regarding; i) Ontology (the nature of reality, existence or being), ii) Epistemology (the relationship between the investigator and what can be investigated), iii) Axiology (role of ethical and aesthetic values) and iv) Methodology (the plan of investigation which a researcher believes can be investigated) of a research paradigm. Hence, the differentiation among research paradigms is based on the different nature of its elements.

Research pertinent to philosophy entails varying types of research paradigms such that there is no consensus on an agreed set (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Creswell and Creswell, 2018; Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Guba, 1990; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). For instance, Guba and Lincoln (1994) depicted four competing paradigms: Positivism, Post-positivism, Critical theory, and Constructivism. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) complemented the categorisation by presenting participatory research as a fifth research paradigm. Creswell and Creswell (2018) highlighted Positivism, Constructivism, transformative and pragmatism as significant. Although there is no agreement, management researchers primarily acknowledge four research paradigms, i) positivism, ii) post-positivism (critical realism), iii) interpretivism, and iv) pragmatism (Wahyuni, 2012). The difference among paradigms is usually identified with the help of different ontological and epistemological stances (Saunders *et al.*, 2019)

The current research project adopted a pragmatic worldview that originated from the work done in the late 19th century by Charles sanders pierce, William James and John Dewey. *Pragmatism "*arises out of actions, situations and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in post-positivism)" (Creswell and Creswell, 2018, p.11). Although pragmatism does not appreciate the traditional way of understanding the philosophical view through ontological and epistemological stances as other paradigms do (Morgan, 2014), researchers have outlined the paradigm by explaining its ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological stances. The ontological stance of the current study is that the reality is viewed as per the appropriate answers to the research questions (Wahyuni, 2012). The epistemological stance is that the legitimacy of the knowledge and appropriateness of theories are only considered upon successful actions (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). The axiological assumption of the current study is that values are not constant but tentative, which may develop as the result of experiences, and an ethical code of conduct is the one that is suitable for the community at large (Morgan, 2014). Considering that interpretation of reality can be made in different ways, a pragmatist may adopt a range of methods to provide practical solutions and may follow any appropriate method to answer the research questions (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).

The nature of this study and its research questions justify the suitability of the pragmatic philosophical stance. In line with pragmatism, the current research aims to contribute by providing practical solutions for the practice. The researcher believes the notion that reality is what works at the time, which contrasts the idea of duality that reality is independent of an individual's view and as well as it can be influenced (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). The researcher holds a flexible approach to find the answers to the research questions and does not bound the investigation with a single research method (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Similar to the notion that "The pragmatist researchers look to what and how to research based on the intended consequences where they want to go with it" (Creswell and Creswell, 2018, p.11), the research questions of this research project reflect that the study is not only limited to explore (how) new knowledge but also to reveal the objective (what) knowledge (Morgan, 2014)

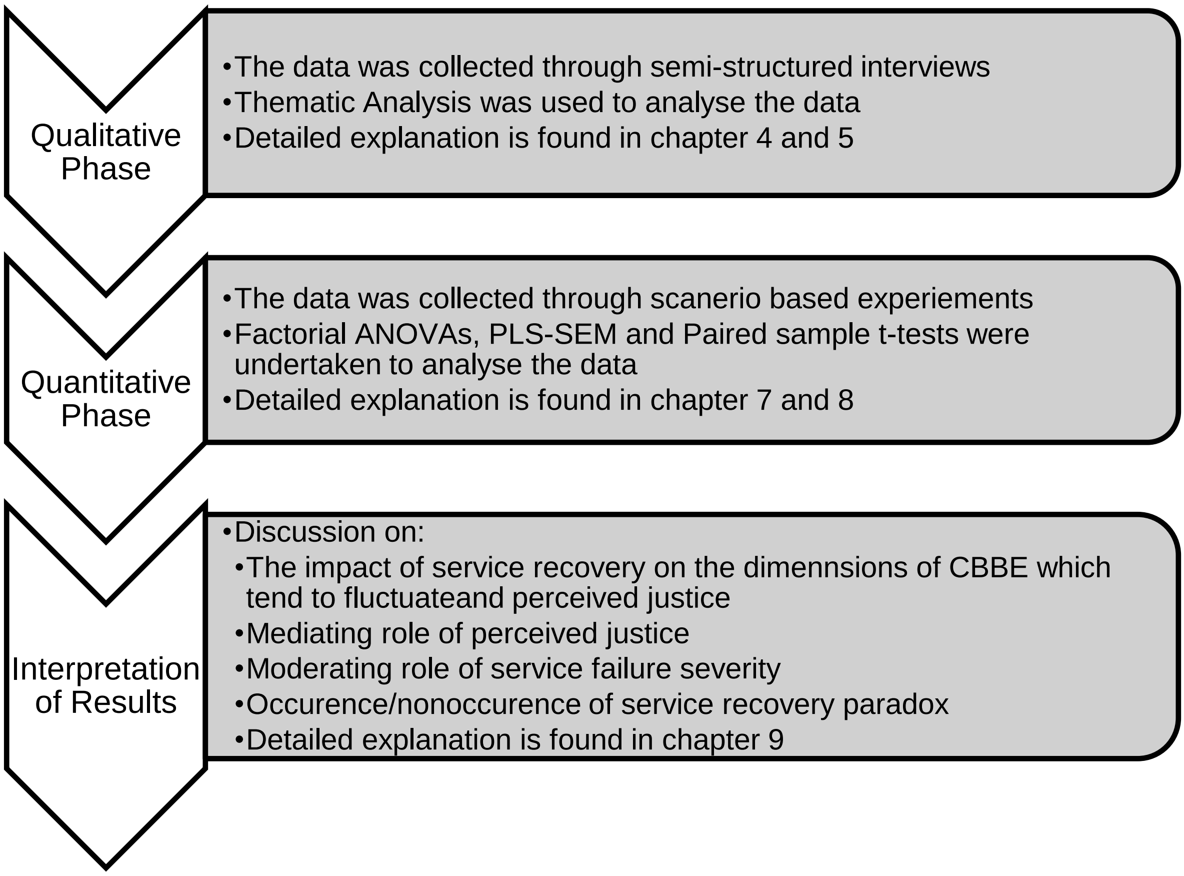
Aligned to pragmatism, this study's research questions seek to find a practical solution to the research problem with an approach of 'what works well' (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). The nature of research questions 2, 3, 4 and 5 was causal and aimed to reveal external knowledge independent of the researcher's conscious awareness (Hair, Bush, *et al.*, 2006). On the other hand, the first research question seeks to explore the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity, which tend to fluctuate within the service failure and recovery process. The exploratory aspect helped to uncover the consumers' assessment of different aspects of the brand, whereas explanatory research may produce more objective and generalisable results which may be suitable for the service managers (Edvardsson *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, to reach a concrete, practical solution, the notion of what works best seemed suitable, and a pragmatic research paradigm was chosen to answer the research questions.

3.3 Exploratory Sequential mixed-method research design

The current research project adopted a framework or a plan that delineates the methods, procedures, techniques and steps to gather the required information and provide a solution to the research questions (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Several factors can influence the choice of an appropriate research design, including the purpose of the research, the nature of research questions, and the investigator's philosophical stance (Blaikie and Priest, 2019; Zikmund and Carr, 2003). An exploratory sequential mixed-method research design was adopted in the current case because the researcher was not committed to any single reality and believed in whatever was appropriate to find answers to the research questions. Within the mixed methods research design, the researcher has the liberty to utilise quantitative and qualitative research to answer the research questions (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).

Quantitative and qualitative research is combined in various ways within the mixed-method design. Exploratory sequential mixed methods design seemed suitable for current research, which initiated a qualitative phase and is then followed by a quantitative phase (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). It is useful, to begin with, a qualitative phase when it is required to gain an insight into the issue and understand the phenomenon of which the researcher is unsure (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).   Given that there is little agreement on the types and nature of service failure, and not a single study was found in the literature which identified the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity which tend to fluctuate within a service failure and recovery process, it was ideal to begin with, exploratory research. Qualitative research assisted the researcher in building a conceptual framework that delineated the causal relationships among constructs by developing hypotheses. Quantitative research was followed to test the causal relationships and to generalise the findings to a larger sample of the population (Bell *et al.*, 2018). Thus, a sequence was followed to elaborate qualitative research findings via implementing a quantitative phase (Creswell *et al.*, 2007). The illustration of exploratory sequential mixed method design is in figure 3.1

Figure 3.1 Graphical Representation of Research Design



Adapted from : (Creswell and Creswell, 2018)

The exploratory sequential mixed methods design was undertaken for the current study because it produces robust results compared to a single method (Davis, 2000). As a first step, the qualitative investigation assisted in the identification of variables relationships and the development of a the conceptual model (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). In the second step, data was collected to test the proposed relationships through quantitative examination. The idea of collecting different kinds of data allowed the researcher to interpret and verify the findings from two different procedures. Therefore, the accuracy of the findings of a single phenomenon improved with the execution of mixed methods (Skourtis *et al.*, 2019).

3.3.1 Qualitative research design

A qualitative research design incorporates the purpose of the research, methods of collecting the data from individuals or groups, analysing and presenting the interpretative analysis in a meaningful way. Qualitative research adopts a naturalistic approach since the aim is to explore, understand and gain insight into the research problem by building trust and encouraging participation (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). A collection of empirical material, including observations, personal experiences, stories, pictures, and words, enriches the researcher's understanding (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Qualitative research design may utilise a single or more than one of the following techniques such as In-depth interviews, semi-structured interviews, focus groups, observation method, ethnography, netnography etc., to collect empirical material (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Finally, the qualitative research design contains various analytical methods to analyse the collected data and prepare a meaningful report (Bell *et al.*, 2018). The main analytical techniques include; Content Analysis (Krippendorff, 2018), Discourse analysis (Phillips and Hardy, 2002), Grounded theory method Glaser and (Charmaz, 2006; Glaser and Strauss, 1967), Narrative analysis (Riessman, 1993), Thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006), and or Template analysis (King, 1998).

An extensive range of qualitative research designs is available in the literature, but the current qualitative study adopted Phenomenology (Creswell *et al.*, 2007). Phenomenology is a clear and straight description of the lived experience(s); consequently, it reflects the conscious mind and attempts to avoid subconscious prejudices while investigating social behaviours (Goulding, 2005). Phenomenology is useful in understanding the real-life experiences of individuals and the effects of these experiences (Sokolowski, 2000). Experience is understood here as a phenomenon that may be a state of feeling or when an individual undergoes a process (Moustakas, 1994). Therefore, phenomenology seemed a suitable qualitative design because the researcher was interested in exploring consumers' experiences who went through a service failure and recovery process(es).

Phenomenology is usually considered as a similar research design to Narrative research, yet both are different in many aspects (Klenke, 2008). The choice of phenomenology over narrative research as a qualitative research design is due to three reasons. Firstly, narrative research aims to explore the real-life experience of one or a very small group of individuals. In contrast, phenomenology is designed to interpret the life experiences of several induvial (Creswell and Poth, 2016). To appropriately answer the research questions, it is necessary to identify specific information such as the critical type of service failure, the service industry that is vulnerable to service failures, and common service recovery responses from the service companies. It seemed suitable to explore this information from several individuals rather than from a single individual. Secondly, the research focus of the narrative inquiry is to explore the ‘life’ of an individual through the narratives (Andrews *et al.*, 2013) whereas, phenomenology intends to grasp the ‘essence’ of the experiences of several individuals. It is aligned with the objectives of the qualitative phase to understand the phenomenon of service recovery and how it affects the service brand. Finally, phenomenology seemed an appropriate research design because it comprehensively reports how the phenomenon was experienced, what consequences it has brought and explores the common characterises of several experiences rather than just telling the stories and their consequences around an individual’s life (Creswell and Poth, 2016).

3.3.1.1 Purpose and objectives of qualitative research

The qualitative phase was designed to fulfil the exploratory purpose of this research project. An exploratory study is valuable in gaining an in-depth insight into the research problem by understanding the actual perspectives (Bell *et al.*, 2018). The flexibility of asking open questions allowed the researcher to explore the actual service failure and recovery process within the service industry. It has also helped the researcher in clarifying the consumers’ assessment of a service brand by identifying the vulnerable dimensions of consumer-based brand equity. Although the purpose of the qualitative phase was not intended to provide conclusive findings, it informed the quantitative phase to map out the causal relationships to be tested in a wide-scale survey (Creswell and Creswell, 2018; Hair, Bush, *et al.*, 2006). More specifically, the objectives of the qualitative phase were to understand and explore:

1: the nature of the service failure and recovery process:

This objective has allowed the researcher to explore the critical service failures happening in the service industries, the intensity of service failures which is critical, actual service recovery responses from service firms, desired service recovery responses from the service firms and the service industry, which is deemed as critical in relation to service failure and recovery process.

2: the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery

This objective was aimed to recognise the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity which fluctuate during service failure and recovery such that the consumer assessment levels for these dimensions decline after service failure and escalate after service recovery.

3: inform the quantitative phase

Finally, this objective was to develop a conceptual framework to illustrate and test the causal relationships among different constructs (service recovery, perceived justice, service failure severity, consumer-based brand equity and its dimensions) in the quantitative phase. Moreover, to assist in developing reality-based scenarios to be utilised in performing experiments in the quantitative phase.

3.3.2 Quantitative research design

Quantitative research designs seek to test objective theories by investigating the relationships among different variables (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Unlike qualitative research, a considerably large amount of data is collected, the variables are measured numerically and finally, data analysis is done through statistical software (Bell *et al.*, 2018). The researcher may utilise single or multiple methods for data collection depending on the requirements of the study (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). The variables are measured on instruments so that the data may be collected into numbers and then analysed in a meaningful manner by applying statistical procedures.

The current study has adopted an experimental research design from the three main quantitative research designs, descriptive, correlational, and experimental (Stangor, 2014). A descriptive research design seeks to explain the current state of the variables. Similarly, a correlational design does not explain the causal relationships but simply identifies the association of variables. On the other hand, experimental designs manipulate one or more independent variables, investigate the impact on one or more dependant variables and prove causation rather than just identifying the patterns in the data (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Further, in marketing research the causation is probabilistic. (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Causal relationships can only be identified by adopting experimental research designs (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). This project entailed causal research questions. For example, research questions 2, 3, 4 and 5 are related to investigating the cause and effect relationship. As the research hypotheses of this study aimed to test the causal relationships, the experimental research design was preferred over other research designs.

Service failure and recovery literature have extensively incorporated experimental designs to infer cause and effect relationships among variables (Bae *et al.*, 2020; Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015; Hocutt *et al.*, 2006; Ma and Zhong, 2021; Radu *et al.*, 2020; Smith and Bolton, 1998). According to Vaerenbergh *et al.* (2019), service recovery literature has relied heavily on experimental designs (55.7% of studies). This became evident when the reviewed literature for the current research project showed that the majority (75% of studies) had utilised experimental design. In contrast, the rest has relied upon conceptual investigations, surveys and other qualitative methods. Researchers' dependence on experimental design is due to its suitability in fulfilling the purpose of their studies by measuring customers' perceptions of a service firm after they experience service failure and recovery (Crisafulli and Singh, 2016).

3.3.2.1 Purpose and objectives of quantitative research

The quantitative phase was implemented to fulfil the explanatory purpose of this research project. In pursuit of achieving the purpose highly structured approach was followed as compared to the qualitative phase. Clearly defined hypotheses were developed with the help of the literature and qualitative findings to identify cause and effect relationships among variables. The testing of cause and effect relationships assisted in explaining the reasons and consequences of the real service failure and recovery experiences encountered by consumers. Specifically, the quantitative phase was implemented to achieve the following objectives:

(1): to test the causal relationships

This objective was established to investigate the causal link among service recovery, perceived justice, consumer-based brand equity and its dimensions which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process. Moreover, this objective assisted in confirming the vulnerable dimensions of consumer-based brand equity when consumers go through a service failure and recovery process. Hypotheses 1 to 7 are tested in chapter 8 to achieve this objective.

(2): to test the mediation

The objective assisted in explaining the mediating role of perceived justice between the causal relationship of service recovery, dimensions of consumer-based brand equity which tend to fluctuate and overall brand equity. Hypotheses 8 -13 are tested in chapter 8 to achieve this objective.

(3): to test the moderation

This objective was to test the the moderating role of service failure severity in the relationship between service recovery and post-recovery outcomes. Hypothesis 14 -20 are tested to achieve this objective.

(4). to test the occurrence of service recovery paradox

This objective was developed to detect the occurrence of service recovery paradox. The objective assisted in identifying whether the pre-failure recovery levels of the dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate, are higher than post-failure recovery levels. Hypotheses 21 -24 are tested in chapter 8 to achieve this objective.

(5). generalise the findings on a larger scale

This objective explains that the research project aimed to generalise the findings by utilising a more substantial sample representative of the population. The aim was to build on the qualitative findings and then produce a more accurate and generalised conclusion through a quantitative phase (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).

3.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the research paradigm and the overall design to be adopted by the research project. According to the nature of the research questions and the research project, the researcher views match with the pragmatic worldview. This research project has utilised a combination of qualitative and quantitative research by adopting an exploratory sequential mixed-methods design.

This chapter has delineated the explanation of various decisions regarding the qualitative part of the exploratory mixed-method design. Phenomenology is deemed an appropriate qualitative research design for the current research.

The purpose and objectives of the qualitative study are presented. The main objective of the qualitative study includes the identification of the dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process. Qualitative research will utilise semi-structured interviews as a data collection tool to explore the nature of service failure and recovery process and understand the consumers' assessment of the service brand. It will also help in developing the conceptual model to be tested in the quantitative phase.

Quantitative research will be followed to test the causal relationships and generalise the qualitative findings to a larger population sample. The data will be collected through scenario-based experiments and surveys. Scenarios used in the experiments will be developed based on qualitative findings. The following chapters present the Quantitative and Qualitative phases in more detail.

Chapter 4 Qualitative Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological approach, which was adopted for the first phase of exploratory mixed-method designs. This chapter explains how the primary data was collected and analysed. The procedure of recruiting and the characteristics of the study participants are also explained. Finally, the methods to ensure rigour and trustworthiness of the qualitative data are described before the chapter summary.

4.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Interpretative methods are appropriate to get an insight into the real experiences of consumers with the firms (Fournier, 1998) 8. A semi-structured interview technique was used to collect data in the qualitative phase. According to Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2015), semi-structured interviews are deemed a suitable technique for a research design that aims to obtain assistance in understanding the relationship of different variables and further develop a conceptual framework to guide the quantitative phase. Semi-structured interviews provide control to the interviewer to formulate questions and sequence the interviews to get relevant information (Bell *et al.*, 2018). Interviews can gather comprehensive explanations of the phenomenon in the form of feelings, emotions, reactions, and variant thought processes (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Particularly when the researcher is interested in gathering a range of service failure and recovery experiences to understand the phenomenon and its probable consequences on the service brand (Hedrick *et al.*, 2007).

4.2.1 Interview Guide

A semi-structured interview is assisted by a list of relevant questions known as an interview guide (Bell *et al.*, 2018). The interview guide for the current research was developed after a rigorous process. It took 5 weeks and 7 drafts before the final version of the interview guide is selected (see appendix A). The interview guide was finalised after incorporating valuable feedback of two academic marketing experts. Before finalizing the interview guide, it was pre-tested with four informants in order to make sure the flow and clarity of the questions. The guide was based on the literature review of service failure, service recovery, service failure and recovery process, customer participation in service recovery and consumer-based brand equity.

The questions in the interview guide assisted the interviewer in covering all the broad areas to fulfil the exploratory purpose of the research. The interview guide helped the interviewer to ensure that similar questions were asked from all the interviewees to maintain the focus of the inquiry (Jacob and Furgerson, 2012). However, the guide was not restricted only to the enlisted questions, but the interviewer also asked other relevant questions as and when required to maintain the flow of conversation (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Probing questions were also asked by the interviewer when clarification and more explanation were required. Although the sequence of questions was not identical for every interviewee, the interview guide was followed as a common structure for all in-depth semi-structured interviews. The structure of the interview guide is comprised of six main parts depicted in figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Structure of Semi-Structured interview guide

	Objectives
1. Warm up - Include warm-up questions	• to help in building rapport and to make the interviewer and interviewee comfortable
2. Service Experience - Questions related to the Informants' service failure and recovery experience	• to explore indepth informaton about the real service experiences • to identify the nature and criticality of service failures
3. Assesment of service brand - Questions related to how informants' assses the brand after service failure	• to identify the reactions of informants after service failure • to understand the informants' assesment of the brand after service failure
4. Firm's Response to service failure - Questions related to the response of the service firm after service failure	• to understand the service recovery mechanism adopted by the service firms
5. Assesment of service brand - Questions related to how informants' asses the brand after service recovery	• to identify the reactions of informants after service recovery • to understand the informants' assesment of the brand after service recovery
6. Closure - Questions related to if the informants have missed anything and demographics	• to reconfirm if the informants want to share any additional information • to record the demographic infromation

4.3 Recruitment of participants

The recruitment of participants was carried out through purposive and snowball sampling. Purposive sampling was chosen because the phenomenological design requires to collect data from the individuals who have lived the experience (Goulding, 2005). In the current case, the researcher was interested in the individuals who have gone through the service failure and recovery process. Therefore, purposive sampling helped the researcher to ensure that the selected individuals were relevant to the exploratory inquiry (Bell *et al.*, 2018). The following criteria was set for the participants to participate in the study:

a) all the participants must be 18 years or older

b) have been living in the U.K. for more than two years
c) have undergone a service failure and recovery process with a service firm in the past six months to avoid recall bias.
d) have at least consumed the service once from the service firm before they went through the service failure and recovery process.

The selected participants were then requested to assist the researcher in identifying additional individuals to be a part of the study. Using the existing participants to contact future subjects is known as snowball sampling (Bell *et al.*, 2018). Snowball sampling was utilised because it was challenging for the researcher to identify a unique set of individuals (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). This technique acquires referrals from referrals and increases the likelihood of obtaining the individuals who fulfil the above criteria (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

Purposive and snowball sampling poses a shortcoming of the representativeness of the population (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). The initial group of participants is most likely to refer very similar individuals to themselves, creating a bias. However, within the qualitative designs, generalizability is not as threatening as in quantitative designs (Bell *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, the current research aimed to provide preliminary insights from qualitative study and generalisable findings through quantitative study (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). Additionally, extra attention was given regarding informants' gender, age, occupation, and ethnicity to ensure diversity and further address the limitations of the snowball technique. Hence, the limitations of sampling techniques did not affect the objectives of the research project.

4.4 Procedure

The procedure of conducting interviews started with contacting potential interviewees. The researcher attained ethics approval from the University of Glasgow ethics committee before contacting the prospective individuals (application no. 400170225). Participants were contacted via email or through a letter. A complete introduction of the researcher, formal request to participate in the interview and additional documents were given to the individuals. Other documentation included a plain language statement and a consent form to be signed by individuals. A plain language statement clearly described the research project and the nature of participation in a simple language. A consent form was given to obtain an agreement of participation before the interview.

Interviews were conducted face-to-face and through a virtual medium. Skype was used as a virtual tool to overcome the geographical barrier and maximize recruitment (Deakin and Wakefield, 2014). Although skype interviews lack opportunities to build rapport, intimacy and trust through handshaking and offering drinks (Mirick and Wladkowski, 2019), it was appreciated by the participants (such as housewives and retired people) who wanted to participate from their comfort zone. Face-to-face interviews were conducted in a meeting room in the Adam Smith Business School, University of Glasgow. It was ensured that the audio recording device (for face-to-face interviews) and software (for skype interviews) is working properly before the start of the interview. In the case of face-to-face interviews, drink, tea or coffee was offered to each participant. The medium of language used in both forms of interviews was in English.

The interview started by introducing the nature and general purpose of the research. Interviewees were reminded of the audio recording of the interviews. A signed consent form was obtained from those interviewees who did not submit the form earlier. Participants were told that all the data would be kept confidential, and their identity will not be disclosed. The interviewer followed the structure of the interview guide; however, the order of the questions varied from participant to participant and according to the nature of their lived experiences. The interviews lasted for an average time of 47 minutes. It was ensured that guidelines from the University of Glasgow ethics committee were appropriately followed during the process.

The recordings of the interviews were securely kept in a password-protected computer at the University of Glasgow. The interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. The researcher did not hire any professional transcriber or use transcription software to ensure confidentiality and to build a closer connection with the data. Follow-up with 8 participants was done in order to clarify language issues in some parts of the interviews. The process of transcription was completed in 7 weeks, which also included follow-up interviews. The transcriptions of the interviews produced between 2170 to 11214 words each and 124406 words in total. A total of

1113 minutes of recording was obtained for all interviews, with an average of 46 minutes of each interview.

4.5 Characteristics of participants

A total of 24 interviews were conducted over a period of 15 weeks, and the process of data collection was stopped once the saturation was achieved (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). All participants were from the U.K., residing in the country for more than two years. The condition of more than two years was put to make sure that participants were aware of the customs, way of living and know what to expect from the environment (Marx, 2011). There was diversity among the participants regarding their gender, age, occupation and ethnicity. Fourteen of the interviewees were female, and 10 were male. The average age of the participants was 37 years, 39 for females and 35 for males. The age of the youngest participant was 19, whereas the age of the oldest participant was 80 years. The majority of the participants (17) belonged to the white-British ethnic group, while others belonged to white-Irish, white polish, Asian Pakistani and Asian Indian ethnic groups.

The participants shared 51 different incidents (average of 2 incidents per informant) of service failure and recovery with various service firms in total. The lowest number of experiences shared is one, and the highest is four by an individual. The majority (26) of the incidents were related to high contact companies where the consumers' interaction with the service firm is high. The participants shared incidents with 20 different service companies (airlines and restaurants were recorded as having frequent service failures), indicating that service failures are inevitable and might happen in various service companies. Core service failures were deemed as the most frequent among various types of service failures. The detailed characteristics of informants are mentioned in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Interviewees' characteristics

S.no	Pseudo Name	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Profession	Incidents	Service Industry	Words	Duration (Mins)
1	F1	56	Female	White-British	Full-time employed	1. Delay in core service	1: Gas Company	5974	46
2	M1	39	Male	White-British	Full-time employed	1. Delay in core service 2. Delay in core service	1: Airline Company 2: Car Insurance	7203	57
3	M2	67	Male	White-British	Retired	1. Unavailability of core service 2. Unavailability of core service	1: Retail Bank 2: Water Company	7288	65
4	F2	32	Female	White-British	Full-time employed	1: Other hindrances in core service 2: Delay in core service	1: Broadband Company 2: Hotel / Restaurant	5928	54
5	F3	24	Female	Asian-Indian	Part -time employed	1: Other hinderances in core service 2: Exception failure (Supplementary)	1: Restaurant 2: Online Retailer	4549	45
6	F4	33	Female	Asian-Pakistani	Home Maker	1: Delay in core service 2: Exception failure (Supplementary)	1: Broadband Company 2: Electric Company	3533	42
7	F5	28	Female	White-British	Researcher	1: Delay in core service 2: Delay in core service 3: Billing failure (Supplementary)	1: Train Company 2: Restaurant 3: Electric Company	6092	47
8	F6	23	Female	White-British	Researcher	1: Safekeeping failure (Supplementary) 2: Interactional failure	1: Taxi Company 2: Airline Company	2913	37
9	F7	25	Female	White-British	Researcher	1: Delay in Core Service	1: Restaurant	2266	24
10	F8	27	Female	White-British	Full-time employed	1: Exception failure (Supplementary) 2: Other hindrances in core service 3: Other hindrances in core service	1: Cinema 2: Letting Agency 3: Hotel	8246	63
11	M3	29	Male	White-British	Full-time employed	1: Safekeeping failure (Supplementary) 2: Other hindrances in core service	1: Post office 2: Online Retailer	3039	33
12	M4	30	Male	Black-British	Researcher	1: Billing failure (Supplementary) 2: Information failure (Supplementary)	1: Mobile Company 2: Airline Company	4278	42
13	M5	22	Male	Asian-Pakistani	Full-time employed	1: Delay in core service 2: Other hindrances in core service	1: Airline Company 2: Restaurant	2174	21
14	F9	32	Female	White-British	Researcher	1: Billing failure	1: Restaurant	4292	36
15	F10	80	Female	White-British	Retired	1: Unavailability of core service 2: Other hindrances in core service 3: Delay in core service	1: Airline Company 2: Lawyer services 3: Airline Company	7213	57

S.no	Pseudo Name	Age	Gender	Ethnicity	Profession	Incidents	Service Industry	Words	Duration (Mins)
16	F11	22	Female	White-British	Student	1: Exception Failure	1: Airline Company	6846	53
						2: Other hindrances in core service	2: Letting Agency		
						3: Billing failure (Supplementary)	3: Online Retailer		
17	M6	21	Male	White-British	Student	1: Interactional failure	1: Retail Bank	6394	41
						2: Other hindrances in core service	2: Letting Agency		
18	M7	33	Male	White-British	Full-time employed	1: Delay in core service	1: Restaurant	4006	39
19	M8	25	Male	White-British	Researcher	1: Interactional failure	1: Restaurant	4969	40
						2: Delay in core service	2: Airline Company		
						3: Billing failure	3: Mobile Company		
20	M9	43	Male	Asian-Pakistani	Part-time employed	1: Delay in core service	1: Airline Company	4040	37
21	F12	53	Female	White-Polish	Retired	1: Payment failure	1: Electric company	4812	58
						2: Order Taking failure	2: Online retailing		
						3: Unavailability of core service	3: City Council services		
22	F13	69	Female	White-Irish	Retired	1: Unavailability of core service	1: Broadband Company	11214	110
						2: Payment failure	2: Gas Company		
						3: Payment failure	3: Water Company		
						4: Unavailability of core service	4: Housing Association		
23	F14	31	Female	White-British	Entrepreneur	1: Unavailability of core service	1: Airline Company	4567	40
						2: Interactional failure	2: Broadband Company		
						3: Unavailability of core service	3: Restaurant		
24	M10	42	Male	White-British	Entrepreneur	1: Safekeeping failure (Supplementary)	1: Car Repair Workshop	2570	26
	Total							**124406**	**1113**

4.6 Data analysis approach

Thematic analysis was chosen as the technique to analyse the qualitative data. This method is extensively utilised by qualitative researchers in the social sciences (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Thematic analysis is considered a primary technique for qualitative researchers and is defined as “a method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.79). The researcher attempted to closely investigate the qualitative data sets to find patterns and themes which are helpful to answer the exploratory research questions (Guest *et al.*, 2011).

Thematic analysis was considered a suitable approach for analysing the qualitative data for various reasons. Firstly, the flexible nature of the thematic analysis is aligned with the pragmatic philosophical stance of this research project. Secondly, the thematic analysis contains a flexible nature related to samples, research questions, data collection procedures and interpretation (Clarke and Braun, 2017). For example, thematic analysis can provide meaningful analysis for small and large qualitative data sets (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Thirdly, although thematic analysis adopts a flexible approach, it follows a systematic pattern to analyse the data aligned to phenomenology, which also analyses qualitative data in systemic steps. Fourthly, compared to other analytical methods, thematic analysis is not restricted to a certain theoretical framework and is appropriate for various frameworks (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Finally, thematic analysis is useful in an exploratory study to interpret the lived experiences of individuals in a systematic yet flexible way (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).

In contrast to other qualitative data analysis techniques such as grounded theory, content analysis, discourse analysis, interpretative phenomenological analysis, thematic analysis is not appreciated as a technique that has an identifiable legacy or that is considered as a distinctive analysis method among a group of qualitative data analysis techniques (Bell *et al.*, 2018). However, a few differences between thematic analysis and other techniques highlight its distinctive position in the cluster of qualitative data analysis techniques. A key difference is that thematic analysis is a method rather than a methodology like grounded theory and other techniques (Guest *et al.*, 2011). Unlike grounded theory, the purpose of thematic analysis is not to develop a theory, but it can generate interpretations of the data through meaningful patterns which are conceptually informed (Nowell *et al.*, 2017). In comparison to interpretative phenomenology analysis (IPA), which focuses both on the patterns in the data and the characteristics of individuals (Eatough and Smith, 2008), the thematic analysis focuses only on the meaningful patterns of the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Similarly, thematic analysis is not interested in the in-depth analysis of the language as the case in discourse analysis (Johnstone, 2018); instead, it utilises language as constitutive of meaning (Clarke and Braun, 2017).

In terms of the analytical procedure, thematic analysis is similar to other qualitative analysis techniques in using themes and codes, but the process of identifying and reporting is different. For example, after familiarising with data, the researcher allocates shortcodes across the entire dataset in thematic analysis, whereas in IPA, brief commentaries (initial notes) are done on the data. Further, in thematic analysis, the researcher develops the themes after coding the entire data set (Guest *et al.*, 2011), whereas, in IPA, the researcher codes the data item and provides a theme at the same time (Smith and Shinebourne, 2012). In thematic analysis, the focus of identifying themes is not only by the frequency but themes may be nominated by the researcher's judgment (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In contrast, the focus of qualitative researchers is to count the occurrences of codes (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, the analysis outcome is more detailed and nuanced in the case of thematic analysis (Guest *et al.*, 2011), whereas a more descriptive interpretation of the qualitative data is provided in the content analysis (Vaismoradi *et al.*, 2013).

The six-phase approach by Braun and Clarke (2006) was adopted in conducting the thematic analysis. The interview transcripts were read and re-read several times to get closer to the data. The process of familiarizing with the data took one and a half weeks. The researcher made notes and highlighted points of interest during this phase. After this phase, the researcher started delineating codes to the chunks of the data, which seemed relevant to answer the research questions. In the third phase, the researcher clustered similar codes to present a meaningful pattern. Following the clustering, similar codes were converted into themes and subthemes. “A theme captures something important about the data about the research question and represent some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.82). The next step involved reviewing themes to see whether the themes are eligible for being a theme or to be merged into another theme. Similarly, some themes were converted into subthemes, and a few were discarded for not having enough data or seemed insignificant. In the fifth phase of thematic analysis, the researcher finalised the themes which seemed meaningful and were not overlapping with each other. Finally, a detailed report of the qualitative analysis was produced, including the vivid use of data extracts in support of the finalised themes.

The procedure included inductive and deductive approaches in coding and finalising the themes because "no theme can be entirely inductive or data-driven" (Joffe and Yardley, 2004, p.58). The researcher used the inductive approach to identify the vulnerable aspects of the service brand. On the other hand, the deductive approach was followed to code the service failure and recovery outcomes concerning fairness. Therefore, the analysis used a combination of deductive and inductive approaches because otherwise, it may become challenging for the scope of the analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2019).

4.7 Rigour and trustworthiness in the qualitative study

Qualitative data results are deemed valueless and present a fictitious story without rigour and trustworthiness (Morse *et al.*, 2002). Rigour in qualitative research is referred to as the quality of being accurate, vigilant, and detailed yet relevant, while trustworthiness is the quality of being truthful and authentic in the qualitative research process (Cypress, 2017). The challenges to highlight rigour and trustworthiness in qualitative research surpass the challenges faced in quantitative research (Guba, 1981). Unlike quantitative research, qualitative inquiry lack in producing concrete numbers, p values, and Cronbach alpha are to express the rigour and trustworthiness of its data (Morse *et al.*, 2002). Beyond this, rigour and trustworthiness enable the data and method to be independent so that coherent and believable conclusions may be drawn if the same data is analysed by other qualitative researchers (Mays and Pope, 1995).

The current study addressed rigour and trustworthiness by following the criteria developed by Guba (1981). The four aspects are credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability in qualitative inquiries (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The four aspect criteria are considered similar to validity (internal and external), reliability and objectivity in quantitative research (Morse, 2015). Although it is not clear to achieve maximum rigour by fulfilling all the aspects, at least two aspects should be met to achieve rigour and trustworthiness in a study (Creswell and Poth, 2016). Therefore, the criteria are “used as a set of guidelines rather than another orthodoxy” (Morse *et al.*, 2002, p.14).

The credibility of the study was enhanced by adopting a trustworthy and widely used semi-structured interviewing technique as a tool of data collection tool (Bell *et al.*, 2018). Further, the researcher arranged follow up interviews with the participants to ensure the accuracy of the transcription. Debriefing sessions with two marketing academics were held to prevent bias and assist the researcher in finding new patterns in the data (Morse, 2015). In order to seek validity, qualitative data collection was followed by quantitative data collection to support, strengthen and enhance the qualitative findings. Further, to obtain transferability or external validity, purposive sampling was used (Guba, 1981). A total of 124406 words were produced through the interview transcriptions, representing thick and rich qualitative data set to achieve transferability.

Confirmability and neutrality were attained by ensuring that the process of data collection and data analysis were not maligned with anticipation. Instead, both represented a pure reflection of the participant’s experiences (Barbour, 2001). The researcher took a one-week relaxation break to begin the qualitative phase with a neutral mindset (Morse, 2015). Moreover, much attention was given to the development of the interview guide, which took seven weeks, including seven extensive meetings with supervisors. The interview guide was finalised after revising seven drafts. During the whole process, it was ensured that the interview guide is free of leading questions and does not include any bias (Gioia *et al.*, 2013).

4.8 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has presented the method of qualitative data collection. The primary data collection was done with the help of 24 semi-structured interviews. The individuals were recruited by utilising purposive and snowball sampling techniques. The procedure of potential participants was initiated by contacting the potential interviewees. The interviews were undertaken face-to-face and via skype. 24 interviews were completed in 7 weeks which produced 124406 words in total. 51 incidents of service failure and recovery were recorded.

Thematic analysis was utilised to analyse the qualitative data. Finally, following the criteria presented by Guba (1981), the researcher ensured the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the qualitative results.

Chapter 5 Qualitative Analysis

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the qualitative study. The chapter is divided into two sections. In the first section, data related to 3 central themes are presented. Firstly, data related to the central theme of service recovery and its two emerged sub-themes (firm recovery and customer participation in service recovery) are presented. Then, Perceived Justice and its sub-themes are outlined. It is followed by 5 CBBE dimensions are reported, which may fluctuate during the service failure and recovery process. The second section of the chapter includes the findings related to Service failure Typologies, Service failure severity, failure attributions, and findings related to critical service context. A chapter summary is given at the end, which presents the key highlights of the chapter.

5.2 Theme 1: Service Recovery

Service recovery is considered as the remedy which customers receive for the service failure they experience with a service firm (Bahmani *et al.*, 2020). Service recovery is understood as the actions or efforts rendered by the firm in response to a service failure. When a service firm or its employees are solely responsible for resolving the service failure, it is termed firm recovery. Whereas, when customers participate with the service firm/firm's employees to resolve the service problem, it is known as customer participation in service recovery. In line with the literature, the qualitative analysis revealed that the service recovery process might also involve customers other than the sole efforts of the firm. The next section discusses the two forms of service recovery through which the firm attempts to resolve the service failure. Table 5.1 summarises the theme and subthemes.

5.2.1 Firm Recovery

Firm recovery emerged as a major sub-theme of service recovery in the data. Traditionally, the firms do not involve customers in the service recovery process and attempt to resolve the service failure itself (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020). All the informants proclaimed different ways the firm attempted to resolve their problem without the involvement of customers. The informants shared that the first response by firms to a service failure is an apology because it is considered as the most effective recovery strategy to allay the immediate customers' negative reactions after service failure (Azemi *et al.*, 2019). For example, a female informant who was annoyed with the noise of ongoing construction work beside her window of the room shared that

> *"he did apologise immediately as soon as he heard that you are very right that there is work going on" (F8iii, 27)*

Similarly, another informant who experienced a drainage issue just outside her home shared that she e-mailed the issue to two service firm representatives to resolve the problem. She said that:

> *"I got a response half an hour later from both, Apologising on mishandling apologising for everything" (F13iv, 69)*

Besides apology, informants shared their experiences where the firm handled the post-service failure situation by compensating them. Mostly, the informants suggested that firms gave monetary compensation to them for the loss they incurred in the service experience. The qualitative data revealed that customers received monetary compensation in money, a refund, or a discount. For example, an informant shared an experience with a broadband company where the speed of the internet was not as it was agreed with both parties. She said that upon realising the mistake, the company compensated her for her loss and told that:

> *"They gave me I think it was like a 100 pound or 50-pound goodwill gesture on my account, which was good." (F2i, 32)*

The informants also suggested that they got a refund of their money as compensation. An informant shared that she was overcharged by an electricity supplier about which she informed the firm, and they refunded her money. She said that:

> *"It was pretty quick, few days it took and it was sorted, and I got my full refund back" (F12ii, 53)*

On some occasions, the evidence of receiving a combination of an apology and compensation is observed in the qualitative data analysis. It was observed that firms offer apology and compensation as a combination to mitigate the negative consequences after a service failure. the informant experienced a problem with a utility provider, and as a result, he received monetary compensation with an apology. He shared that:

> *"I think eventually although it was very nice to get 50 pounds compensation and an apology you know" (M2ii, 67)*

The informants shared that firms also used other strategies such as explaining the problem and recovery process in detail, showing care, empathising and following up with them. For example, an informant (F12ii, 53) said that after a complete resolution of her problem of incorrect order delivery, the online retailer e-mailed to follow up on her. She proclaimed that the firm's representative reassured her that everything is fine and that she is satisfied or not. However, the qualitative analysis shows that service firms utilise apology and compensation as their main recovery strategies. The significance and frequent usage of apology and compensation are also observed in the literature (Ketron and Mai, 2020; Odoom *et al.*, 2019; Sharifi *et al.*, 2017).

5.2.2 Customer Participation in service recovery

Customer participation in service recovery is when customers are considered as active participants and are involved in taking actions in resolving a service failure (Balaji *et al.*, 2018). The qualitative data analysis reveals that when customers experience service failure, the service firms involve the customers in the service recovery process in different ways. It is observed through the qualitative analysis that customers participate in the recovery process by providing details about the unpleasant service incident experienced by the service provider. The provision of information by the customers is observed as the first step towards customer participation in resolving a problem. Information provision is essential to make the service provider aware of the problem (Cheung and To, 2016).

When asked about their role in resolving the problem, most informants mentioned that the initial step of their participation was by informing about the problem to the service provider. For instance, an informant (F5ii, 28), referring to an incident of delay in services at a restaurant, mentioned her role in resolving the problem by making the service employees aware of the situation:

> *"I just voiced that our food has not arrived and then it was a delay, going to the till, and telling what is not going right" (F5ii, 28).*

In addition, an in-depth analysis of the data also reveals that informants valued participation through information sharing by expressing its significance. For instance, one of the informants discussed his experience of a delayed local flight and mentioned the importance of sharing the information with the service employees to have a better result:

> *"they asked me to provide them the information, you know basic stuff like my flight number and a receipt from my ticket, and I think this sort of participation is helpful as a first step to have a better solution" (M1i, 39).*

The informants further revealed that they were actively engaged in the process of resolving the problem. The analysis confirmed the literature, which suggested that the involvement of customers enhances the efficiency of the process and results in favourable consumer evaluations (Dong *et al.*, 2008, 2016). For instance, an informant (F1, 56) who shared a negative experience with her Gas company highlighted the benefits of involvement in the process. She mentioned the merits in terms of having a quick resolution through engaging actively:

> *"I think it does help in resolving the problem quickly because if you are unhappy with something, you should really try and take measures to fix things yourself" (F1, 56)*

On another occasion, an informant (M1i, 39) considered his involvement of filling out a form on an Airline company website being efficient to reach a solution:

"I didn't mind being sent to the website and putting in the information myself that seemed efficient" (M1i, 39)

In addition to efficiency, informants also revealed that this way of participation helps them recognise that the journey towards resolution has initiated. For example, an interviewee (F2i, 32) who had a service failure with her Broadband company said that she got pacified when she was involved in the process and realised that things have started:

"I think generally speaking it's good that they do involve customer, it makes a customer think that something has started" (F2i, 32).

The qualitative data further reveals that firms also involve aggrieved customers in the service recovery process by providing them with an opportunity to choose the best alternative as a solution to the service failure which they have experienced. The involvement of customers at this level provides a degree of perceived control, empowers them, and gives a sense of responsibility to decide a solution that works best (Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014). For instance, while telling her experience of dining at a restaurant, one of the informants (F3i, 24) expressed the pleasure of being asked to choose the best possible option for her. She said that:

"I felt more satisfied and empowered because I had the option to actually pick again" (F3i, 24).

The data revealed that customers who did not participate in the recovery process were expecting to be involved. For instance, an informant said that he was expecting the Airline to involve him in the decision-making process, and as a result, he would have positively assessed the Airline company (M9, 43):

"It's like asking someone that yes we have made a mistake, and now we want to make it up by empowering you to decide what you want in return; obviously, I wouldn't have asked for too much, but this could have represented a better image of the company, I would have said that they are compassionate, kind and caring" (M9, 43)

In contrast, interviewees also expressed displeasure with being involved in the recovery process by providing information to the service employees. They considered it as a cost and an unsuitable way of solving the problem. It was evident from the extracted quotes that consumers felt discomfort when they participated in the service recovery process. For example, an interviewee (F5ii, 28) expressed her displeasure over costing her energy and time to inform about the service failure to the service provider:

> *"They should have realised it themselves that the table is not properly served and I think in this particular scenario It costed me since I had to leave my friends and go to the till it definitely affected the purpose of ours to relax and talk about different other things rather than chasing the employees" (F5ii, 28)*

The informants view participation as a time-consuming activity for them. Several informants disliked the idea of being involved in the process and considered it as a wastage of time (F5i, 28):

> *"I had to actively do something on my own and waste more of my time kind of doing that" (F5i, 28)*

Furthermore, in contrast to informants' views about the pacification of their negative emotions through involvement in the process, it was suggested that it develops frustration among consumers. The data evidence that the development of negative emotions is because consumers expect service providers to rectify their mistakes. An informant (M6i, 21) described his negative emotional development over his involvement in rectifying the problem:

> *"It was a little bit frustrating because it's after all they made a mistake and yet they were forcing me to rectify the situation when it really should have been them, and that really really irked me" (M6i, 21)*

The data analysis suggests a linkage between customer participation in service recovery and consumers' evaluation of recovery efforts. Customers prefer to participate in a service recovery process because it gives them a sense of empowerment and reduces the uncertainty of receiving a suitable outcome. On the other hand, the qualitative data shows that informants perceive their participation as time-consuming and sometimes, it generates negative emotions among informants. However, most informants showed that their participation is favourable if there is limited involvement in the process.

Table 5.1 Theme = 1 Summary of findings

Theme	Subtheme
Service Recovery	Firm Recovery
	Customer Participation in Service Recovery

5.3 Theme 2: Perceived Justice

Perceived justice refers to the consumers' evaluation of the fairness of service provider's recovery efforts based on three dimensions, i) Distributive Justice, ii) Interactional Justice, and iii) Procedural Justice (Chen and Kim, 2019). Literature related to Informational Justice as a fourth dimension is shallow (Chalmers, 2016; Colquitt, 2001; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016). The findings of qualitative data analysis supplement the significance of Informational Justice. Hence, the data analysis breaks down perceived justice into four sub-themes: i) Distributive Justice, ii) Interactional Justice, and iii) Procedural Justice, iv) Informational Justice. The findings are as follows:

5.3.1 Distributive Justice

One of the most prominent dimensions of perceived justice detected in the data was distributive justice. It refers to the evaluative judgments of the customers on the fairness of tangible assets or benefits received from the service firm after a service failure (del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009). Aligned with the extant literature, informants expressed their evaluations based on tangible assets received in the form of monetary compensation, refunds, discounts and replacement of tangible items/redo of service (Orsingher *et al.*, 2010; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019). In addition, informants evaluations of distributive justice also encompass the element of problem-solving, which is largely ignored in the extant literature. For instance, while mentioning recovery efforts of a Taxi company after an incident of the hacking online taxi app account, one informant (F6i, 23) acknowledged the fairness of recovery efforts after the problem was completely solved:

"The fair thing was that they solved the problem and is if they settled everything back to zero" (F6i, 23)

Another interviewee (M2i, 67) alluded to the significance of problem-solving and considered the response from the service provider unfair even after he was given monetary compensation, but his problem was not properly solved:

"They are very quick in giving you financial compensation, but it was no good, my objective wasn't achieved, and I don't think it solved my problem because I would have expected them to have enough stationary at their disposal so that every need of the customer is met" (M2i, 67)

In addition, the most prominent aspect on which consumers evaluated the recovery efforts of being fair or unfair was monetary compensation. A variety of perspectives were shared related to the reception of money, free services, discounts and refunds. Out of many, one of the informants evaluated the fairness of recovery efforts by an airline company after a delayed flight. He mentioned that :

"So I had to stay in that country, but luckily the airline provided a hotel for me for free" (M4ii, 30)

Informants also evaluated the recovery efforts in terms of the tangible assets received by the firm. For instance, in case of a retail bank services failure, an interviewee evaluated the recovery efforts as fair when he was given an amount of money:

"…they just gave like a goodwill gesture deposited like an extra 25 pounds in the account and just like apologised" (M6i, 21)

In addition, evaluations of consumers related to distributive justice also encompassed the replacement of the tangible item or redo of service. For example, when an informant's food was replaced with fresh food:

"I spoke with the manager and told them the issues, and then manager brought out fresher food warm food, and we were not charged for the meal" (M5ii, 22)

In this regard, distributive justice consists of monetary compensation and includes aspects of problem-solving and replacement or redo of service. The analysis also revealed that it might result in consumer delight and further positive emotions after reception of the mentioned benefits.

5.3.2 Procedural Justice

Informants mentioned the aspects of convenience, consistency, flexibility, and quick procedures while evaluating the firm's recovery efforts, which aligns with the literature related to procedural justice (Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009). The sub-theme of procedural justice refers to the firm's fairness of procedures and policies after a service failure. In addition, new insights emerged as informants frequently alluded to the evaluations based on follow-up and reassurance provided by the service providers, which has a dearth of literature. For instance, one of the interviewees expected the follow-up from the company to ensure the safety of future use of the mobile application:

"By assurance, I mean they should have made me feel more at ease to use [company name app] again that it is safe and what possible approaches or ways could I use if this happens again and guarantees the safety of my e-mail account" (F6i, 23)

Similarly, another informant valued the follow-up by the company and noted it as a fair response:

"They took down the information, and they went, and I think they did a little bit of follow up which was fair" (M1i, 39)

Furthermore, the data has evidenced that the most significant element of consumers' judgement of the procedures and policies of the service firm in the recovery process is the timeliness of the response. For instance, one of the informants said that an electric company overcharged her; however, the response was quick enough to be considered as fair:

> *"I contact them one day, and I got a reply back on the next day, so it was a quick procedure and pretty fair enough" (F12i, 53)*

In contrast, informants viewed the delay of the response as a negative evaluation of procedural justice. One of the interviewees mentioned:

> *"For the fact we have to wait for ages to actually get to see someone, I had to wait by 25 minutes before I was eventually met with someone" (M6i, 21)*

The convenience of the recovery process was another element highlighted by the informants. They valued the simple and easy steps involved in the recovery mechanisms of firms. One of the benefits of convenient procedures was conveyed by an informant who had a service failure with an Airline company. She mentioned:

> *"The procedure was easy; I e-mailed them immediately, they have the e-mail address on the customer website, which saved my time" (F6ii, 23)*

Contrary to that, informants mentioned negative evaluations of complex procedural mechanisms. Specifically, they have to go through several steps to resolve the problem incurred during the service experience. For instance, an interviewee mentioned her discomfort by explaining that :

> *"If you complain to the CEO, then you get a resolution, but why do I have to go that far? Why can't the channels in between resolve that?" (F2i, 32)*

Similarly, another informant expressed her anxiety over complicated procedures of an Airline company to recover a flight delay failure. She mentioned:

> *"…and they kept moving us from one place to another, and we were just running around like a headless chicken from here to there, just trying to find out help" (F14i, 31)*.

The data suggest that quick resolution to the service problem is a prime element considered by the consumers who have experienced service failure. However, other factors such as convenient procedural mechanisms and one window solutions are also considered by consumers while evaluating service recovery efforts. Another important finding of the data reveals that consumers also evaluate procedural justice based on follow-up by the service firm. It was evident from the data that service firms had followed up the informants in only two incidents out of 51. Other informants reported that they were expecting the firms to follow up on them to reassure them that the problem was completely resolved.

5.3.3 Interactional Justice

The interactional evaluation became apparent through the informants' statements regarding the behaviour and interaction of the service employees during the service recovery process. A major aspect of this evaluation is recognised as to whether the service providers give a verbal or written apology. This was evident with the repetitive usage of the words such as 'apology', 'apologised' and 'sorry' by the informants. Furthermore, politeness and courteousness are also detected as aspects of interactional justice. In contrast, negative evaluation of the interaction was identified with the keywords 'rude' 'impolite' 'non-professional' 'aggressive'.

The data confirms the literature that apology, politeness and courteousness are important elements of interactional justice (Chen and Kim, 2019; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 1999). An unanticipated insight emerged when informants evaluated the interaction of employees based on their acceptance of mistake or the contrary, blaming it on the consumers. For example, an informant negatively evaluated the interaction with the restaurant when they tried to blame him for their fault:

> *"They started to blame me, and I even gave them a bigger dose and then they backed off." (M8i, 25)*

In contrast to negative evaluations on blaming the consumers for the service failure, informants positively evaluated the interaction based on the acceptance of mistakes by the service providers. They considered the gesture of acceptance of mistake as fair:

> *"As a company, they are fair; they admitted that the fault existed, they admitted that the fault was out of their hands" (F13i, 69)*

In addition to the new insights, 'apology' was registered as the most common element of interactional evaluation by the informants. It was observed from the data analysis that apology is considered as foremost and indispensable aspect by the informants to be present during the interaction with the service employees:

> *"I think first of all they would have said 'we are really really sorry oh my goodness how that happened?' immediately that would have been the first thing" (F9, 32)*

Another informant considered the interaction as fair because she got an apology from the service provider for overcharging her in her electricity bill:

> *"They didn't tell me that they increased my price and when I contacted them about it, they apologised, they did apologise, which is fair enough" (F12i, 53)*

In addition to apology and acceptance of mistake, informants seemed to evaluate the interaction on the aspects of how attentive the service employee was in listening to them (F3i, 24; M4i, 30; M1i, 39) and how polite/impolite the service employees while interacting with the informants (F11i, 22; M6ii, 21; M10, 42). In this regard, qualitative research findings highlight the significance of several touchpoints of interaction that are considered sensitive to the consumers while they are evaluating the interactional aspect of the response of the service firm.

5.3.4 Informational Justice

Another dimension of justice that transpired during the qualitative data collection is labelled as informational justice. This was registered when the informants suggested their evaluation on the basis of the amount of explanation they received from the service providers. It was observed from the data that informants are evaluating the response based on the 'adequacy' of information, accuracy, relevancy, and truthfulness of the information provided by the service employees. Extant literature has treated the aspect of explanation within the dimension of interactional justice

(Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Lin *et al.*, 2011; Migacz *et al.*, 2018). However, Colquitt (2001), Gohary *et al.* (2016) and Chalmers, (2016) are few exceptions who have mentioned explanation as an element of a separate dimension of perceived justice.

The findings of the data are in line with the latter group of studies that acknowledged the separate recognition of informational justice. The data analysis supplements the scarce literature related to informational justice. Informants evaluated the aspect of information or explanation independently of the interaction they had with service employees. For instance, (M5ii, 22) evaluated the interaction with the service employees as fair but evaluated the firm negatively on not providing the explanation:

> *"I didn't mind the interaction I had with them; it was professional; however, there was a lack of information regarding why it had happened" (M5ii, 22)*

Similarly, several informants were found to expect the cause of failure to be part of the information while evaluating the response by service providers. This reflects that service consumers do not always evaluate informational fairness on the information of the solution they are going to receive but also interested in evaluating the information related to the cause of the failure (Chalmers, 2016). To affirm this, the statement of (M2ii, 67) also mentions the significance of receiving information regarding the cause of failure:

> *"If you are not informed that why is it happened, then you make such speculations which are I think not good for the service company" (M2ii, 67)*

In addition, the informants evaluate the recovery efforts in terms of accuracy and relevance of the information. For example, (F11i, 22). wanted to reschedule the flight but was unable to do that online and, in response, was given irrelevant information, which caused more trouble for her. She mentioned that:

> *"I just hoped that they would explain it better and apply it more to my problem because I don't know if they obviously expect people to go into the chat rooms having not thought everything" (F11i, 22)*

During the recovery process, honesty and truthfulness were also considered by informants as the significant factors while evaluating the response of service providers. Informants seemed to notice the authenticity of the information provided by the service providers, specifically, when the service employees are explaining the cause of the failure:

> *“Just provide us a reasonable excuse you know that’s all but a genuine one” (M8ii, 25)*

The analysis pinpoints that service consumers evaluate the informational aspect of interaction separately from other modalities of interactions. Informational justice contrasts with interactional justice because the latter focuses on the interpersonal elements, whereas; the former is found to relate solely with the informational element (Chalmers, 2016; Sindhav *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, in addition to the adequacy of the information, informants seemed to evaluate the explanation based on its accuracy, authenticity, relevance and cause of failure.

Table 5.2 Theme – 2 Summary of findings

Theme	**Subtheme**
Perceived Justice	Distributive Jusitce
	Procedural Justice
	Interactional Justice
	Informational Jusitce

5.4 Theme 3: Dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate

One of the main objectives of the qualitative study is to detect the aspects of the brand which tend to fluctuate during the service failure and recovery process, specifically the aspects of the brand which may be considered as outcomes of service recovery in the shape of CBBE dimensions. Several aspects of the brand contribute to the measurement of CBBE in the shape of its dimensions. CBBE literature is enriched with more than forty-five different dimensions through which CBBE can be measured; however, till now, there is no consensus on the agreed set of dimensions to be considered while measuring CBBE (Aaker, 1991; Algharabat *et al.*, 2020; Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Christodoulides and de Chernatony, 2010; Keller, 1993). A few of the CBBE dimensions are treated as outcomes of service recovery independent of being a CBBE Dimension such as Perceived quality

(Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007), Brand Trust (Lopes and da Silva, 2015) and Brand Image (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, CBBE has never been investigated as an outcome within service recovery literature.

In pursuit of exploring the relationships and detecting the brand aspects that tend to fluctuate, informants were allowed to elaborate on their assessment of the service brand. Informants were asked to assess the service brand at two different stages within their service failure and recovery stories, i) Post-failure assessment: assessment of service brand immediately after service failure /before service recovery and ii) Post recovery assessment: assessment of service brand after service recovery. This allowed the researcher to divide the extracted quotes related to aspects of brand into two distinct categories, post-failure assessment and post-recovery assessment. Therefore, in pursuit of the objectives of the current study, only those aspects of the brand are considered which are affected at both stages of informants' assessments, post-failure and post-recovery assessments. It was further observed from the data analysis that post-failure assessments of consumers have a negative valence, whereas post-recovery assessments demonstrated both directions, positive and negative assessment of a service brand. Within the CBBE dimensions theme, five distinct sub-themes emerged i) Perceived Quality ii) Perceived value iii) Brand Reputation iv) Brand Trust and v) Brand Loyalty.

5.4.1 Perceived Quality

Interviewees further reported their perceptions towards the quality of the service brand after a service failure and then their assessments after the service failure was recovered. The significance of perceived service quality is well documented in the literature. However, very little literature has entertained brand perceived quality within service failure and recovery literature (Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007). The emergence of this sub-theme supplements the scarce literature. Investigating perceived quality is essential for service managers because of its role as a key source of value and satisfaction (Darley and Luethge, 2019).

Post failure assessments

Informants' assessment of brand after a service failure showed that brand perceived quality is harmed. Statements from interviewees were collated into sub-theme of brand perceived quality with the help of repeat usage of keywords such as; ‘(in)competency’ ‘(lack of) quality,‘(poor) performance’, and (non)professionalism etc. For instance, a 33-year-old homemaker living in London was upset because her name was added to the electricity bill, causing her further problems. She perceived the electric company as incompetent:

> *"They were very incompetent, I think so there is not enough training of their employees because they were not able to add a name into an account, which is very simple" (F4ii, 33)*

In addition to competence, informants showed their reservations towards the service brand via questioning the professionalism of the service employees. After having a severe delay in flight (M5i, 22) was agitated and alluded to negative remarks on the professionalism of the Airline Company. He mentioned:

> *"I felt that the service was poor because we were not told why the flight was delayed, and I felt that it was very unprofessional that the flight was delayed" (M5i, 22)*

Post recovery assessments

Qualitative data analysis reveals that informants showed positive assessments towards brand perceived quality after the service brand made ample efforts to resolve their problems. One of the informants (F12ii, 53) positively assesses the quality of the service brand after she was refunded and followed up by the online retailer. She suggested:

> *"They e-mailed again to me to reassure that everything is fine and whether I have got the refund and also asked for the feedback that how they dealt with the matter, so you know this tells you the good quality of the service provider" (F12ii, 53)*

In addition, informants were also seemed to have enhanced perceptions of brand quality when their problem was handled quickly. (M4ii, 30) seemed to have an elated perception of brand quality after receiving a speedy recovery by his Airline preceding a flight delay. He said that:

> *"Again, the momentum to which they swiftly resolved the issue was very impressive for me" (M4ii, 30)*

In contrast to having positive perceptions of perceived brand quality, interviewees showed negative perceptions after unsatisfactory service recovery efforts. After a flight delay, one of the informants was charged over a call to the helpline. He said that:

> *"…perception of quality went several levels down, now I don't expect much from budget airlines, this is why they are called budget airlines" (M1i, 39)*

The evidence collected from qualitative data analysis shows that service consumers tend to have negative perceptions of brand quality after they experience a service failure. Specifically, service consumers downgraded the quality of the brand when service failure reflected signs of misrepresentation, incompetence, and unprofessionalism. Similarly, the same was observed in the case of inappropriate service recovery efforts. However, an appropriate service recovery effort showed that consumers perceived the quality positively.

5.4.2 Perceived Value

The qualitative data revealed that consumers 'perceived value' fluctuate in the service failure and recovery process. Perceived value is usually cosidered as the "value for money or tradeoff between expected benefits and cost" (Dall'Olmo Riley *et al.*, 2015, p.887). Consumers perceive that the costs (monetary, time and effort) they incurred to consume the service does not result in the expected benefits after a service failure. However, after service recovery, the informants shared favourable views towards perceived value. In the literature, perceived value is understood as the value for money consumers receive after they incur the cost, mostly in monetary terms (Pandža Bajs, 2015; Wiedmann *et al.*, 2018).

Post failure assessments

A negative impact on 'Perceived value' was observed initially, with the informants were price sensitive, especially in the case of students, medium and low-income informants. If an economic loss is experienced due to the service failure, the informants shared negative opinions about their perceived value towards the service brand. For example, a university who was also a part-time employee experienced a service failure at a restaurant. She was served burnt food for her lunch. She said that:

> *"I am a student, and every penny is of utmost importance that's why I chose the seller because it was a value for money purchase, but then I mean I could see my money wasted in that way" (F3ii, 24)*

Another informant who paid more to get a high-speed internet ended up getting a standard internet speed. She shared that:

> *"I probably still would have been paying for the less speed, a total loss on value for money, I would say" (F2i, 32)*

The data evidenced that full-time employed consumers are also value hunters, and when they do not get the value for money or lose it due to a service failure, they loudly share it. During the interviews, an airline consumer shared that he usually consumer budget airlines for travelling. However, a severe delay in his flight made him think differently:

> *"Yea, I always hunt for value, but I wasn't expecting much from their service on board, I also didn't expect them to be exact on timings, but I didn't expect that long delay as well, so surely I paid more than what I lost" (M1i, 39)*

Post recovery assessments

An appropriate response from the service firms after a service failure results in favourable customer opinions about the service brand (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). The qualitative study explored that when customers receive service recovery, they consider it worth their costs. For example, an informant who was overcharged by the mobile company was responded with suitable actions. The company solved the problem, apologised and returned the overcharged amount. He said that:

" So they told me that the bill for the following month would be minus for what would be overcharged me for the previous month. So that was worth of what costed me" (M4i, 30)

Similarly, an interviewee who was a regular cinema-goer shared that after she had an interactional failure with the firm, the manager compensated her with what she perceived as a value for the cost she paid. She shared that:

"I find that a good reward for the irritation I went through, it was very positive because I hadn't asked for any gesture of goodwill or anything like that, I just wanted her to apologise (laughing) for blaming her customer" (F8i, 27)

The service managers who are unable to provide an adequate level of service face challenges in the form of negative consequences for their brands. A fifty-six-year-old school teacher was not even satisfied with the service recovery of the firm and still perceived that she gained less than what she costed to consume the service:

"its quite a high insurance policy that we have for these things, and the reason that we take that out is, so that if something goes wrong, then it gets fixed quickly, but here I think we paid much more than what we got in return" (F1, 56)

5.4.3 Brand Reputation

Brand reputation refers to the aggregate of consumers perceptions of a brand developed over time after having multiple interactions with the brand (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009; Walker, 2010). This sub-theme emerged when informants discussed the effect service failure and service recovery had on their overall perception of the firm. In literature, the absence of brand reputation as an outcome of service failure and recovery is surprising because the effect on brand reputation was frequently evidenced throughout the interviews.

Post-failure assessments

It was revealed that brand reputation is downgraded after a service failure. One of the informants explained her experience with the online retailer regarding an error in the bill. She mentioned:

"My overall perception about them decreased a bit yeah because it just it became an ordeal to have to try and exchange" (F11iii, 22)

A few of the informants even used a 1-10 scale to elaborate their responses related to how their overall estimation of the company has dropped due to the service failure. For instance, (M4i, 30) mentioned an incident with his mobile phone company and alluded to how he estimated the reputation of the service brand:

"I would say that they must have dropped their reputation to 4 out of 10 because as a well-established company which had been operating in the UK for many years, I expected better from them but they performed opposite to their reputation" (M4i, 30)

Another informant (M7, 33) elaborated the reasons for the dilution of the service brand reputation. He experienced a severe delay in serving the food at a restaurant and proclaimed that:

"They might be thinking that they can do whatever they want to do and people will come eventually because of the taste of the food, but I think this is wrong and kind of blackmailing, they might not be losing customers initially, but they are certainly losing their reputation and they might not survive for long" (M7, 33)

Post-recovery Evaluations

After service recovery, it was observed through the interviews that informants frequently mentioned the effects on their overall perceptions of the service brand. It seemed that those informants who received a suitable response from the firm against the service failure rated the brand's reputation as high. (M8iii, 25) rated his mobile phone operator very high because the billing issue was resolved according to what he desired. He mentioned:

"My overall perception towards the company was that they were an excellent company! Just the fact that they have excellent customer service, putting the

customer at first, giving the customer the options of providing the solutions that's the important thing providing solutions and no blame games" (M8iii, 25)

Similarly, (F13i, 69) was very impressed with the honesty and adequacy of the information followed up with compensation provided by her broadband company. She alluded that:

"They kept me informed that was important. And they did what they had to do, so that was a happy bonding and then gave me three months free services and also saying we are sorry, that put my overall estimation of that company right up" (F13, 69)

Contrary to having a positive influence on the overall estimation of the service brand, brand reputation was seemed to decline when service firms couldn't do well in responding to a service failure. Specifically when the service providers are not honest with the aggrieved consumers. For example, after the delay in resolution to the problem and then misrepresentation by her Gas company employees, (F1, 56) got upset and mentioned:

"They are misrepresenting themselves, and due to that, they have gone more down in my estimation" (F1, 56)

Hence, the possibility of fluctuation concerning the overall perceptions of the service consumers seemed to be present within the service failure and recovery process. It is also well noted that in addition to the suitable resolution of the problem, the service providers' honesty and adequacy play an important role in improving the reputation of the service brand and vice versa.

5.4.4 Brand Trust

One of the most prominent aspects of the brand, which seemed to fluctuate during service failure and service recovery, is brand trust. After experiencing a service failure, there is a probability of trust deficit development which may affect the brand's strength in weakening the relationship (Li *et al.*, 2017). On the contrary, when consumers can interact with service providers during service recovery, the probability of restoring trust increases (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016). Similar findings are revealed when interviewees indicated how their trust in the service brand was affected, specifically after a service failure, when they viewed the incident as a breach of the promises made by the service providers to have an error-free service. (M7, 33) considered the delay of service at a restaurant as a breach of promise:

> *"I think that trust on the restaurant is shaken because promise had been broken by them in terms of quality service that was the speediness of their service, secondly their inability of communicating to the customers" (M7, 33)*

Similarly, informants showed a breach of trust when their financial aspect appeared to be at stake due to the service failure. One of the interviewees (F6i, 23) experienced a service mishap in the shape of her online taxi app account hacking. She regarded this incident as a high severity incident and alluded to her mistrust of the taxi company for the future:

> *"I do not trust [company name] anymore with my personal information, I think trust is the main thing here which has cracked my relationship with [company name], I don't trust them anymore!" (F6i, 23)*

Post-recovery assessments

Trust is developed over time after consistent satisfactory service performances by service providers (Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). However, within service failure and recovery scenarios, it was observed during the interviews that brand trust may be recovered with effective service recovery. This finding complements the previous literature findings related to the positive effects of service recovery on brand trust (Kim, Jung-Eun Yoo, *et al.*, 2012; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). Recovery of brand trust was evident through informants' statements who regarded the effective recovery to regain their confidence in the service brand. For instance, one of the interviewees mentioned:

> *"But after they got active and made things better then again I had confidence that you know they will make sure that that is very unlikely to happen again" (M2ii, 67)*

Another informant who was deprived of effective service recovery from her broadband company after experiencing a slow service proclaimed that she would have regained trust in the service brand as a result of effective resolution to her problem:

> *"if they would have done it proactively, then faith on them would have regained, but because I had to ask for it, so nothing regained, but even they damaged it more instead of availing the chance " (F2i, 32)*

Brand trust can further dilute due to ineffective service responses by the service firms (Joireman *et al.*, 2013). This is evidenced through the statements of informants. For example, after an overcharging incident at a restaurant, mishandling of the situation resulted in the decline of brand trust of an informant. She mentioned that:

> *"My trustworthiness on the firm just went down because if the manager someone with responsibility cannot handle this professionally then what are you doing there? Just don't go there" (F7, 25)*

In summary, brand trust is vulnerable in service failure and recovery situations. Trust in the service brand is prone to breach either from the service failure itself or the tendency to get harmed due to inappropriate handling of the service recovery process. Unsuitable recovery efforts may include the inappropriate communication or improper behaviour of service employees. It was also noted that service brands might avail themselves of a second chance to regain the trust of service consumers. For example, it was shown through the interviews that informants frequently mentioned the restoration of their trust in service providers after experiencing excellent service recovery efforts.

5.4.5 Brand Loyalty

Brand loyalty is one of the major dimensions of CBBE, which is negatively affected after a service failure and evidences positive implications after service recovery is initiated. Previous literature has abundantly addressed brand loyalty as an outcome of service recovery (Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; La and Choi, 2019; Liat *et al.*, 2017). Brand loyalty is crucial for service firms because it costs six to fifteen times more to attract a potential customer in comparison to retaining an existing customer (Liat *et al.*, 2017). In case of service failure situations, the most affected facet of the brand is ‘loyalty with the brand’. It is evident from the interviews that informants seemed to detach with the brand in the shape of reduction in the usage, thinking about leaving the service firm, considering switching to other alternatives or, in worse scenarios discontinuing the relationship with the brand.

Post-failure assessments

Negative effects towards service brands were recorded related to loyalty, specifically when service recovery was absent. When asked about how the service failure has affected their relationship with the brand, most interviewees mentioned their infrequent use of the service since then or intentions of not using the service in the future. For instance, one of the informants who was served with a burnt burger at a restaurant proclaimed that:

"I saw that burger, and then I was like I will probably not come again" (F3i, 24)

Similarly, another informant, who was hosting many guests from London, experienced a delay of services in a restaurant. She detailed the discussion she was having with her friends while she was waiting for the food:

> *"While we were waiting for the food, we were saying that we wouldn't be going back again to this café" (F5ii, 28)*

In addition, to the discontinuation of the relationship, informants said that there was a clear reduction in their consumption of service from the service provider. (M8i, 25) who was a regular customer of a restaurant, reduced going there after experiencing rude behaviour of a service employee. He mentioned:

> *"I started going there less, I have had been once but not as frequent as I used to, which is I am worried that what’s the point that these guys have just gone insane" (M8i, 25)*

The loyalty of informants was affected due to service failure as signs of switching the existing brand were shown through their statements. In case of delay in repairing the fridge freezer, (F1, 56) indicated her indecisiveness over staying with the gas company. As she recalled and stated:

> *"…when we had that incident with the fridge freezer, I was not so sure that we would keep the insurance with these electrical goods, maybe just go to have a look into some other companies" (F1, 56)*

Post-recovery assessments

Positive statements related to the loyalty of informants to the brands were recorded during the interviews after they received the desired response from service providers. Informants showed their intent of staying with the company, the main reason being the excellent response to failure by the service providers. This reflected that brand loyalty towards the service brand is affected by service recovery (La and Choi 2019). Although (F6ii, 23) experienced rude behaviour from a staff member of her Airline, she preferred to continue her relationship with the brand because she admired the firm's response to the incident. She alluded that:

> *"I will still go with the [company name] to travel with because they at least know how to win back their customers" (F6ii, 23)*

Another informant expressed her joy over getting reimbursed for the service failure and mentioned staying with her broadband company:

> *"My broadband company reimbursed me for three months, and I was quite happy, and I stayed with them, it was [company name] by the way" (F13i, 69)*

On the other hand, the service firms which failed to recover the problems faced by the informants seemed to incur the cost of losing them as consumers. Another informant expressed displeasure on the poor response by her broadband company.

> *"All of these factors were basically pushed me to discontinue, and probably because of these reasons, I say it was a severe failure" (F4i, 33)*

Qualitative data analysis showed the fluctuation of brand loyalty during service failure and recovery. Informants seemed to discontinue or reduce their consumption of services after a service failure. It reflected that after a service failure, brand loyalty is vulnerable and subject to dilution (Bejou and Palmer, 1998; Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2013). The data analysis is in accordance with the literature, which suggests that service recovery can safeguard the loyalty of consumers towards brands (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Liat *et al.*, 2017). On the contrary, findings are also aligned with the previous literature in confirming the negative effects of poor service recovery performance (Joireman *et al.*, 2013).

Table 5.3 Theme – 3 Summary of Findings

Theme	**Subtheme**
Dimmensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate	Perceived Quality
	Perceived Value
	Brand Reputation
	Brand Trust
	Brand Loyalty

5.5 Theme 4: Service failure severity

The magnitude of service failure plays a critical role when service consumers are figuring out the loss, they incur due to a service failure. “Service failure severity refers to a customer’s perception of the intensity of a service problem” (Radu *et al.*, 2019, p.3). The theme of service failure severity assists the researcher in achieving the first objective of the qualitative study. The goal is to understand the nature of the service failures occurring in the service industry. During the interviews, informants rated the severity of service failure at three different levels, Low, medium, and high. The majority (76%) of the informants rated the severity of the failure as high. The reason is that high in severity failures have a greater impact on the mind (Xu *et al.*, 2019), hence remain lucid in the minds of service consumers. Informants rated the failure as high because of several reasons. For example, One of the most frequent reasons for rating the failure high was the economic loss incurred by the informants due to the failure. For instance, (F3ii, 24) considered that the service failure she experienced was of high severity because it costed her financially:

> *“It was quite high because it was important for me to return that bag and get the cost back which I incurred, and as a student, every penny is of utmost importance (F3ii, 24)*

Similar to (F3ii, 24), another informant (M4i, 30) considered the service failure experienced with his mobile phone company as highly severe because it disturbed his budget

“It was obviously crucial though for me economically because that affects my budget per month” (M4i, 30)

In addition to economic loss, informants rated their failure high in severity because of their time and energy costs. (F14i, 31) suggested the value of time for her to reach her holiday destination. However, the flight delay resulted in increasing her time and energy cost. Views from (F4ii, 33) further added that the intensity of the failure was high not only because it costed her in terms of time and energy but also affected other important tasks. In her case, she wanted her name to be added to an electricity bill to apply for a Visa. But delay in the process resulted in the delay of her visa. She mentioned:

“Well, this was very taxing. I mean mind taxing and cost of my energy, and otherwise, also it cost a long delay and other things that I was supposed to do so I think it was a severe failure in front of my eyes” (F4ii, 33)

Reasons for low and medium severity failures were either low economic loss, less time and energy cost, or when the service failure is not attributed to the firm. For instance (F11ii, 22) perceived a low magnitude of the failure because she attributed the responsibility towards herself:

“This time, I think the radiator leaked because I think I didn’t follow the technician’s advice, so I won’t rate it a high severity failure [laughing]” (F11ii,22)

The severity of service failure was also rated as medium by a few informants. A female informant who was not happy with the cinema because her access to watch 3D movies was restricted because the cinema did not send her a new card. She rated this incident as a medium severity failure and stated that:

"I won’t rate it high it was neither a less severe nor a high severity failure " (F8i, 27)

The qualitative data analysis related to service failure severity suggested that majority consumers consider the intensity of service failure at two levels, high and low. However, a few informants considered the failure incidents as having medium severity. Therefore, it was concluded that the intensity of the failure perceived by consumers may be at three levels.

Table 5.4 Theme – 4 Summary of the findings

Themes	Sub-themes
Failure Severity	High level severity
	Medium level severity
	Low level severity

5.6 Theme 5: Failure attribution

The data collected through the semi-structured interviews evidenced the significance of failure attribution while customers evaluate the service recovery effort of the firm. Previous literature has given ample importance to the concept of failure attribution while investigating service failure and recovery (see Bambauer-Sachse and Mangold, 2011; Dong *et al.*, 2008; Matikiti *et al.*, 2019; Nikbin *et al.*, 2015). Failure attribution is referred to as "an individual's effort to allocate some responsibility for a given event" (Nikbin *et al.*, 2015, p 608). The qualitative data analysis showed that 50 out of 51 service failure incidents were attributed to the service firm. This confirms the previous findings, which claimed that consumers tend to attribute the failure towards firms to maintain their self-esteem (Huang, 2008; Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2013). Informants seemed to show displeasure after feeling that the failure is attributed to themselves. An informant was unhappy with the restaurant staff; she mentioned:

> *"first of all, I was really crossed because they were making me pay when they missed my order and made me feel like it was my fault" (F9, 32)*

Previous literature has treated failure attribution as a moderating factor between service recovery efforts and evaluations by the service consumers. Specifically, studies related to customer participation in service recovery has documented its significant moderating role (see Dong *et al.*, 2008, 2016; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012). The influence of failure attribution is critical between service recovery and consumers evaluations of the recovery efforts because it results in different consequences. Interview data showed that when the service failure is attributed to the consumer, one of the interviewees labelled the service failure as less severe and had positive evaluations of the service recovery efforts of the firm. She alluded that:

> *"This time, I think the radiator leaked because I think I didn't follow the technician's advice, so I won't rate it a high severity failure [laughing]" (F11ii,22)*

Table 5.5 Theme – 5 Summary of finings

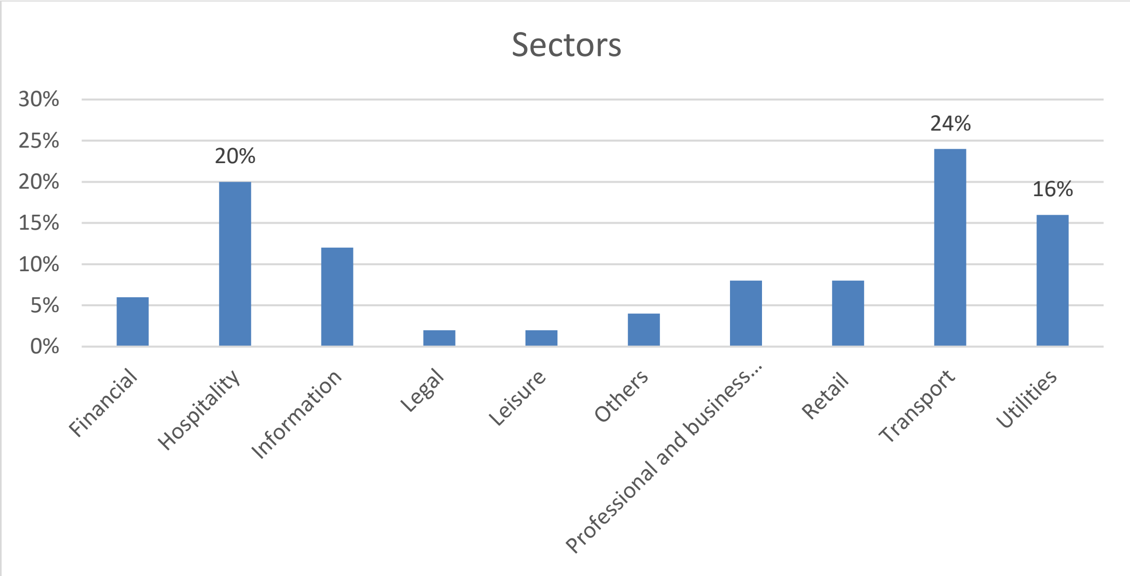
Theme	**Subthemes**
Failure Attribution	Attributed to the Firm
	Attributed to the Customer

5.7 Findings related to the context

Interviewees shared multiple incidents of service failure and recovery during the interviews. The researcher divided the incidents into ten different service sectors. Although the literature suggests that service failures are more common in an online setting (East *et al.*, 2012), the current study findings suggest otherwise. .It was evident through the analysis that most of the incidents fall into the Transport and Hospitality service sector, 24% and 20% respectively. According to different service industries, the researcher further divided the incidents to have a deeper insight and identify the specific critical industries within the broad service sectors. In total, 20 different service firms were mentioned in 51 incidents. It is found that the maximum number of reported incidents are from Airline companies (Transport) (20%) and Restaurants (Hospitality) (18%).

Figure 5.1 Firm-wise depiction of incidents

Figure 5.2 Sector-wise depiction of incidents



5.8 Findings related to service failure typologies

In order to detect the critical service failure typology, the researcher divided the reported service failures into different service failure typologies. Previous literature hinges on three different views of service failure typologies (Bitner *et al.*, 1990; Keaveney, 1995; Smith *et al.*, 1999). However, the major drawbacks of extant typologies are that they are too general and lack precision. Traces of confusion are found in literature where the same example of service failure is treated in different types of failures (Forbes, 2008; Migacz *et al.*, 2018; Tsai and Su, 2009). The qualitative data revealed numerous types of service failures experienced by the informants. Therefore, to overcome this problem, service failures were distributed among three main types, i) Core service failures, ii) Supplementary service failures, and iii) Interactional failures, which are more comprehensive and clearer. Further classification and description of these types with examples are as follows in Table 5.1.

The classification of reported service failures according to the above-mentioned service failure typologies showed that the majority of informants had experienced Core service failures (59%). It was further analysed through the qualitative data that within the Core Service failures type, 'delay in core service' frequently appeared (47%) as a subtype of Core service failure. It seems from the data that informants view 'delay of core service' as a critical service failure type and require an immediate and suitable response to recover their loss.

Further investigation of qualitative data revealed that the Core service failure sub-type ‘delay in core service’ is frequent in the Airline industry (43%) and restaurant industry (29%). This finding complements Adams, (2018) report, which suggested that the UK remained second-worst in flight delays. In this regard, qualitative findings related to services context and service failure typologies suggest that Core service failures, specifically delay in core service, is most frequent among the reported incidents. Furthermore, Airline companies and restaurants are more susceptible to produce a delay in core service in the shape of flight delays and delay in serving food. Service consumers expect an immediate and satisfactory response from the firms in this regard.

Table 5.6 Service failure Typologies

Core service failures: all the failures related to the main service for which the customer is consuming the services				
Sub-type of Failure	**Explanation**	**Extracted Example from data**	**Informant**	**Firm**
Unavailability of core service	Core service was not delivered to the consumer	Banker's draft was unavailable at a branch of retail bank	M2i, 67	Retail Bank
		Internet connection was unavailable	F13i, 69	Broadband Company
Delay in core service	The delivery of core service is delayed, and the consumer has to wait longer than the expected	Air flight was delayed by 8 hours	M7, 33	Airline company
		Food was served late	F5ii, 28	Restaurant
Other hindrance(s) in core service	Delivery or quality of core service is affected by any hindrance (other than delay and bad interaction)	The room at a hotel was not clean	F8, 27	Hotel
		Heating of the house was not working	M5ii, 22	Letting Agency
Supplementary Service failures: All the failures related to services that are secondary and help the consumer to consume core service				
Information failures	Incorrect information provided by the service provider	Misinformation regarding luggage collection for a connecting flight	M4ii, 30	Airline Company
Order taking failures	The service provider takes incorrect order	Incorrect order was taken, and as a result, incorrect order delivered	F12ii, 56	Online retailer
Billing failures	Incorrect billing by the service provider	Overcharged the informant with an extra mobile phone bill	M8iii, 25	Mobile phone company
		Overcharged by an online retailer	F11iii, 22	Online Retailer
Payment failures	Failures related to the payment process of a service	Bill payment method was not working	F13iii, 69	Water company
		Direct debit problem with the electric company	F12i, 53	Electric Company
Safekeeping failures	Failures related to the possessions of service customers	The car speedometer was damaged during the repair	M10, 42	Car repair workshop
		Mobile taxi application login was hacked	F6i, 23	Taxi Company
Exceptions failures	Failures related to all exceptions provided outside normal delivery of services	Additional name on the electricity bill was taking long	F4i, 33	Electricity Company
		Problem with the return of the product	F3ii, 24	Online retailer
Interactional Failures: All the failures related to the interaction of service employee(s) with Consumer(s)				
Interactional failures	Referred as inappropriate interaction of service employee(s) with the consumer(s) including rude, ignorant, and impolite interaction	Member of Airline staff interacted rudely with the informant	F6ii, 23	Airline Company
		The frontline staff was rude	M6i, 21	Retail Bank

5.10 Summary

Results from the qualitative study are presented in this chapter. The study's findings are based on 24 semi-structured interviews with service consumers who experienced a service failure and recovery situation. 51 different incidents of service failure and recovery associated with different service sectors and firms are reported by the informants.

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section explored the role of service recovery, evaluations of service consumers, and dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate. This section identified that service firms involve customers in service recovery process by discussing them the solution of the problem, asking them to fill out forms for reimbursement and by providing them with the options of the compensation. It was further identified that customers evaluate the service recovery on the basis of the levels of fairness they have received. Finally, this section has presented that perceived quality, perceived value, brand reputation, brand trust and brand loyalty are the facets of the brand which tend to fluctuate in 'service failure and recovery process'.

The second section consists of information regarding Critical service context, critical type of service failure, the role of failure attribution and service failure severity. The informants frequently report incidents related to airline (20%) and restaurant (18%) industries. Several types of service failure are identified which have distinct characteristics. Among the types, core service failure (59%) is identified as the most common service failure type. The majority (47%) of the reported incidents contain 'delay of core service' as a type of service failure. 76% of service failure experiences by interviewees are considered highly severe. Within the category of core service failures, 'delay in core service.'

Chapter 6 Conceptual Framework and Research Hypothesis

6.1 Introduction

The chapter includes the conceptual model and research hypotheses developed with the assistance of literature review (see Chapter 2) and qualitative data analysis (see Chapter 4). Firstly, the overall logic of the conceptual model is presented, which includes the core concepts of the model. The overall logic includes the process of the development of a conceptual framework with the help of two bodies of literature and the results of the qualitative study. It is then followed by a graphical representation of the relationships. Next, the development of relevant hypotheses is discussed. Finally, a chapter summary is present at the end of this chapter.

6.2 Overall logic

In pursuit of addressing the research questions 2,3, 4 and 5 (see section 2.6 in chapter 2), the proposed conceptual model is developed. The model assists the researcher to formulate and test the hypothesis. The hypotheses are related to service recovery, service failure severity, perceived justice and Consumer-based brand equity (CBBE).

The starting *point of the current study's conceptual model is 'service recovery', which is defined as the reaction to service failures to mitigate the customers' negative responses* (Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019). Service recovery is always followed by a service failure and the current study defines service failure as the mismatch of customers' expectations and service performance (Bell and Zemke, 1987). Service firms address the challenge of service failures by employing effective service recovery. The current conceptual model recognises two main forms of service recovery which are exercised by the firms to mitigate the negative consequences of service failures. Firstly, firm recovery which is defined as *the response to a service failure that the service firm entirely provides to solve the problem* (Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Dong *et al.*, 2008). Secondly, Customer participation in service recovery is known as the *ability of the customer(s) and service provider(s) to design or tailor the features of the service recovery* (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012).

Service-Dominant Logic (Lusch and Vargo, 2006; Vargo and Lusch, 2004) suggests that integration of customers' and firms' resources (knowledge and skills) assist in value maximisation. When customers participate in service recovery', the value maximisation results in further benefits for both customers and firms (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Dong *et al.*, 2008, 2016). Firms may exercise any of the two forms to tackle the service failure situation (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012); however, the effectiveness of the service recovery depends on the consumer assessment/evaluation of service recovery (Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019).

The second block of the conceptual model discusses the cognitive evaluation of customers about the service recovery. According to the justice theory (Rawls, 1971), consumers engage themselves in a cognitive evaluation process to identify whether the service recovery efforts are just or unjust (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Migacz *et al.*, 2018). The current research utilises perceived justice to identify the effectiveness of service recovery. Perceived justice is defined as *the degree of fairness that customers perceive from the service firm concerning the service recovery process*. The existing literature usually considers three dimensions of perceived justice which are Distributive justice, Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice. The current conceptual framework includes the fourth dimension Informational Justice which is largely overlooked (see table 2.9). Informational justice as a separate dimension is critical in comprehending the cognitive evaluation of service consumers, especially when they assess the service firms on the basis of the explanation it has provided to them (Colquitt, 2001). Further, the presence of perceived justice is crucial in influencing the brand-related outcomes (Chen and Kim, 2019; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Tax *et al.*, 1998). Therefore, the current study has utilised perceived justice as a mediator between service recovery

The third block of the conceptual model consists of the CBBE dimensions, which tend to fluctuate during service failure and recovery process. The construct of overall brand equity is also present in the fourth block to test service recovery's influence on CBBE other than the dimensions, which tend to fluctuate. In this study, the term 'fluctuate' is understood as when the consumer assessment about the CBBE dimensions declines after a service failure; however, they improve after service recovery. The literature has overlooked investigating CBBE as an outcome of service recovery, which is a powerful indicator of the brand's strength (Veloutsou *et* *al.*, 2020). Specifically, the dimensions of CBBE are still unknown, which tend to fluctuate in a service failure and recovery process. The inclusion and selection of dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate, are influenced by the two bodies of literature (service and branding) and the findings of the qualitative studies (see table 6.1). The identified dimensions which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process are Perceived Quality, Perceived Value, Brand Reputation, Brand trust and Brand Loyalty.

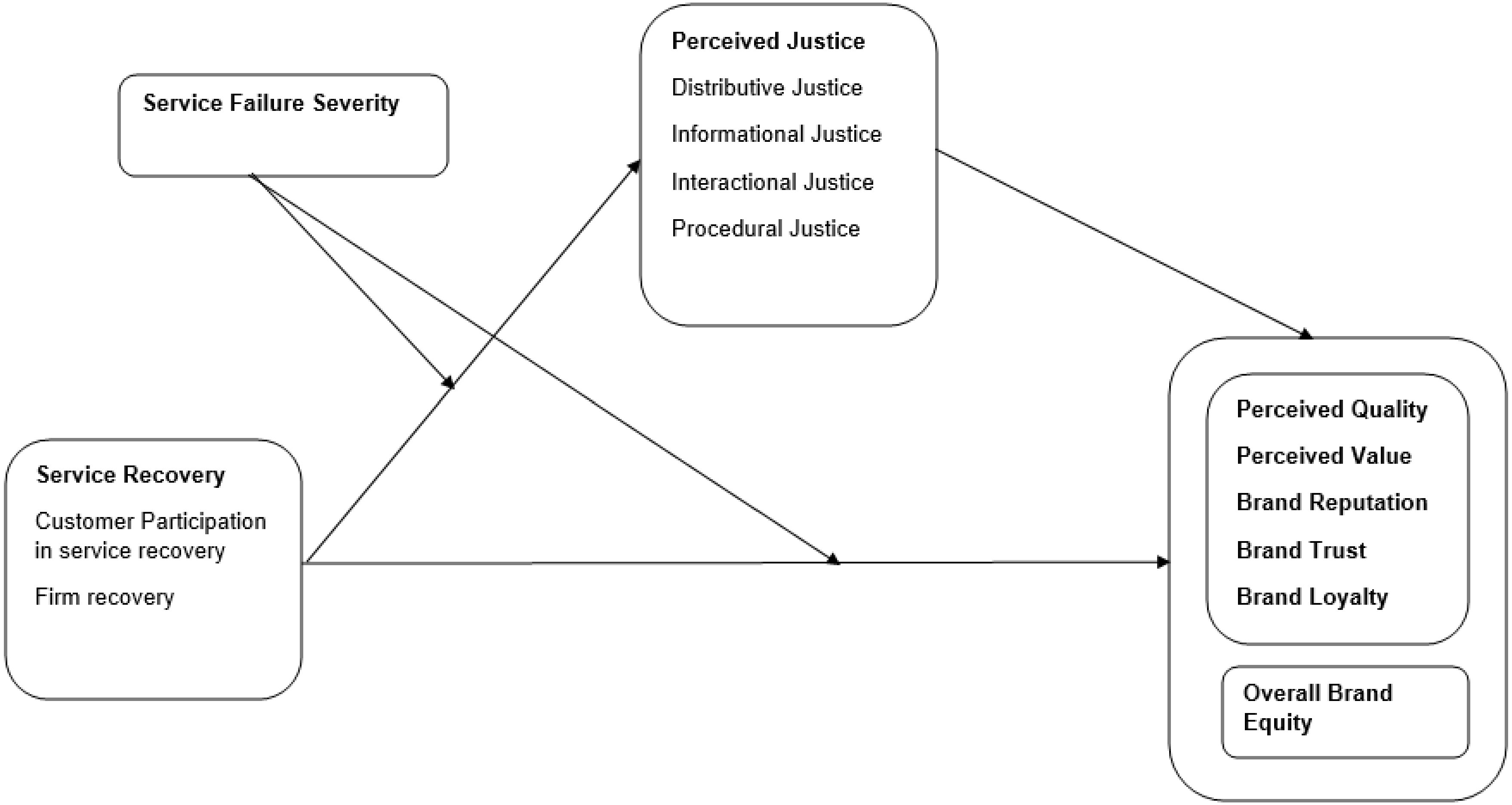
Finally, the fourth block contains service failure severity which is the magnitude or intensity of the service failure perceived by the customers. Service failure severity is usually explained through its two levels, high severity and low severity failure (Choi and Choi, 2014). Previous literature has documented that service failure severity plays a key role in influencing the relationships of service recovery with branding outcomes (Liao, 2007; Matikiti *et al.*, 2019; Smith *et al.*, 1999). The effect of effective service recovery may diminish with the presence of high severity (Barakat *et al.*, 2015).

Table 6.1 Identification of the Dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate

Potential dimensions of CBBE	**Branding Literature**	**Service failure literature** ***(Negative influence of service failure on the dimensions)***	**Service recovery literature** ***(Positive influence of service recovery on the dimensions)***	**Qualitative phase results**
Perceived Quality	Aaker, 1991; Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Broyles *et al.*, 2010; Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Im *et al.*, 2012; Jung and Sung, 2008; Kamakura and Russell, 1993; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Malhotra *et al.*, 2004; Marques *et al.*, 2020; Muniz *et al.*, 2019; Nath and Bawa, 2011; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Rego *et al.*, 2009; Vogel *et al.*, 2019; Washburn and Plank, 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2001	-	Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007; Lopes and da Silva, 2015	Interviewee F1, F4, F8, M5, F12, M1, M2, M4
Perceived Value	Buil *et al.*, 2008; Camarero *et al.*, 2012; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004; Rios and Riquelme, 2008	Sajtos *et al.*, 2010	Petnji Yaya *et al.*, 2015	Interviewee F3, F2, M1, M4, F8, F1, F6
Brand Reputation	de Chernatony *et al.*, 2004	-	-	Interviewee F11, M4, M7, M8, F13, F1, F3, M2
Brand Trust	Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Blackston, 1992; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006; Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019; Rios and Riquelme, 2008	Arnott *et al.*, 2007; Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Basso and Pizzutti, 2016; Sajtos *et al.*, 2010; Weun *et al.*, 2004	Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019; Pacheco *et al.*, 2019; Santos Cristiane and Basso, 2012; Tax *et al.*, 1998; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Wen and Geng-qing Chi, 2013	Interviewee M7, F6, M2, F2, F7, F3, M1, M8, F11

Potential dimensions of CBBE	**Branding Literature**	**Service failure literature** ***(Negative influence of service failure on the dimensions)***	**Service recovery literature** ***(Positive influence of service recovery on the dimensions)***	**Qualitative phase results**
Brand Loyalty	Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Camarero *et al.*, 2012; de Chernatony *et al.*, 2004; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Im *et al.*, 2012; Jung and Sung, 2008; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2004; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Lin and Chung, 2019; Muniz *et al.*, 2019; Nath and Bawa, 2011; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019; Rios and Riquelme, 2008; Vogel *et al.*, 2019; Washburn and Plank, 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2001)	Bejou and Palmer, 1998; Cantor and Li, 2019; Kamble and Walvekar, 2019; Mattila *et al.*, 2014; Sajtos *et al.*, 2010; Weun *et al.*, 2004	Casidy and Shin, 2015; Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Choi and La, 2013; Choi and Choi, 2014b; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Jones and Farquhar, 2007; Joosten *et al.*, 2017; Karatepe, 2006; Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Matikiti *et al.*, 2019; Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019	Interviewee F3, F5, M8, F1, F6, F13, F4, F11, F14, M4, M2
Brand awareness	Aaker, 1991; Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Berry, 2000; Brunetti *et al.*, 2019; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Cobb-Walgren *et al.*, 1995; Davis *et al.*, 2009; Filieri *et al.*, 2019; Im *et al.*, 2012; Jung and Sung, 2008; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Keller, 1993; Kim and Kim, 2004; Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Lin and Chung, 2019; Marques *et al.*, 2020; Muniz *et al.*, 2019; Pappu *et al.*, 2005; Rios and Riquelme, 2008; Šerić *et al.*, 2017; Vogel *et al.*, 2019; Washburn and Plank, 2002; Yoo and Donthu, 2001	-	-	-
Brand personality	Buil *et al.*, 2008; Retamosa *et al.*, 2019	-	-	-
Preference	Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016	-	-	-
Sustainability	Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016	-	-	-
Uniqueness	Camarero *et al.*, 2012; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004; Rego *et al.*, 2009	-	-	Interviewee F5, M2, M7, F9 (Only post-failure)

Figure 6.1 Conceptual Framework



6.3 Research Hypotheses

6.3.1 Service recovery and Perceived Justice

Perceived justice is referred to as the customers' cognitive evaluation of service recovery process. Current research has utilised perceived justice as a single global construct (second-order construct) (Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Liao, 2007; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012) according to the requirement and scope of the study. The dimensions which constitute perceived justice are distributive justice, informational justice, interactional justice and procedural justice. Distributive justice is conceptualised as the perceived fairness of the final outcome of service recovery received by the consumers against the loss experienced due to the service failure (Chen and Kim, 2019; Gelbrich and Roschk, 2011). Informational justice is conceptualized as perceived fairness of the authenticity, relevancy and completeness of the information received by the consumers from service employees during the service recovery process against the loss after a service failure (Bradley and Sparks, 2009). Interactional justice is defined as the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment which consumers receive from the service employees during the service recovery process after the loss experienced due to the service failure (Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Karam *et al.*, 2019). Finally, procedural justice is conceptualised as consumers' perceived fairness of the appropriateness, flexibility, adequacy and timeliness of the methods adopted in the service recovery process by the service firm after they experienced the loss due to the service failure" (Chen and Kim, 2019; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2010).

Findings from the literature (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Jung and Seock, 2017; Liao, 2007; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Tax *et al.*, 1998) and qualitative analysis indicates that CPSR and FR play an important role in enhancing the customer fairness evaluations. However, this relationship is influenced by service failure severity (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Sreejesh *et al.*, 2019). Customers who take effort and time to file a complaint in case of a service failure expect the service recovery in the form of correcting a mistake, which further develops perceptions of justice and fairness (McColl-Kennedy *et al.*, 2003). According to service recovery literature, initiatives taken by the service provider to recover from service failure associate with the four dimensions of perceived justice

(Jin *et al.*, 2019; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). For example, Mostafa *et al.* (2015) investigated a positive relationship between firm initiated service recovery strategies (apology, compensation, problem-solving, speed of response, Follow-up, explanation, courtesy) and perceived justice dimensions. Similarly, Jung and Seock (2017) supported that firm recovery leads to enhancing justice perceptions. They eluded that apology and compensation act as effective firm recovery strategies to impact perceived justice. Therefore, based on both the findings from the interviews and the extant literature, it can be hypothesized that:

H1: Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived justice

6.3.2 Service recovery and Overall brand equity

The current study conceptualises overall brand equity as the brand's overall strength, which is primarily indicated by its overall prestige, dominance, admiration, and personal liking by the consumers (Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2019). Overall brand equity is influenced by effective service provision (White et al., 2013). In case of service failures, service provision is incomplete unless the aggrieved customers are provided with effective service recovery. A service failure experience can generate detrimental effects for the brand (Hwang et al., 2020) such that the brand equity may dilute as a result (Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015; Beverland *et al.*, 2010; Ward and Ostrom, 2006). In such cases, it is important to initiate service recovery as it safeguards the brand-customer relationship (Chen and Tussyadiah, 2021) and may help in maintaining brand equity (Harun *et al.*, 2019; Lassar *et al.*, 1995; Singhal *et al.*, 2013). Ringberg et al. (2007) also supported this assertion, suggesting that positive experiences build goodwill, thus mitigating the effect of a poor service experience on the brand. According to Harun *et al.* (2019), effective service recovery can create positive perceptions in the consumers' minds, which in return create a sense in consumers that the service provider cares about them, thereby creating a strong bond with customers. In other words, an appropriate recovery strategy (Harrison-Walker, 2019b) may result in creating brand equity where customers act as the promoter and conduct self-motivated campaigns promoting the service brand (Singhal *et al.*, 2013). Thus, whenever customers are provided with effective service recovery, it will positively impact the overall brand equity of the brand.

Hazée *et al.* (2017) assert that when customers are involved in service recovery, consumers perceive that they received the most favourable solution for the service failure, which influences satisfaction with service recovery and thus benefiting the firms with low levels of brand equity. According to González-Mansilla *et al.* (2019), customer participation can influence brand equity for service brands. Because when customers are involved, they perceived higher psychological value (Franke *et al.*, 2010) and feelings of ownership of the brand (Fuchs *et al.*,2010). Therefore, based on the findings from the interviews and the existing literature, it can be hypothesised that:

H2: Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences overall brand equity

6.3.3 Service recovery and Perceived quality

Perceived quality is defined as "the consumer's judgment about a product's overall excellence or superiority against other brands" (Zeithaml, 1988, p.3). Customers perceived quality is the result of the difference between the expected quality before purchase or consumption of service and the actual quality experienced during or after consuming the service (Swaid and Wigand, 2012). Customers buying behaviour is dependent on several factors, and perceived quality is one of the most critical among these factors (Dettori *et al.*, 2020). Due to the intangible nature of services (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1993), perceived quality plays a critical role in consumers' buying decisions (Assaker *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, investigation of perceived quality is essential for service managers because of its role as a key source of value and satisfaction (Oliver, 1999).

Previous studies have reported a relationship between service recovery actions and service quality perceptions. For example, early research by Kloppenborg and Gourdin (1992) found evidence that service recovery in the context of the airline industry plays an important role in service quality evaluations. Similarly, Boshoff (1997) has demonstrated that outcomes of service recovery include improved service quality perceptions. In the same vein, Gil *et al.* (2006) show that the quality of service perceived by customers will increase if the customer is loyal and/or if the customer experiences a recovery encounter during the visit. Aurier and Siadou-Martin, (2007) have investigated the impact of service recovery on perceived quality and found a positive relationship. However, Lopes and Silva (2015) found an insignificant relationship between service recovery and perceived quality. Evidence also suggests that involving customers in the co-creation of services influence perceived quality of service (Söderlund and Sagfossen, 2017). Specifically, Grott *et al.* (2019) suggested that customers enjoy the co-creation of service activities, resulting in high-quality service perceptions. Therefore, drawing from both the findings from the qualitative research and the existing service recovery literature, it can be hypothesised that:

H3: Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived quality

6.3.4 Service recovery and Perceived value

Extant service marketing literature recognises perceived value as a key concept that captures overall evaluation of customers regarding what they received and what they have costed in a service experience (Bae *et al.*, 2020; Dall'Olmo Riley *et al.*, 2015; Helkkula and Kelleher, 2010; Loureiro *et al.*, 2019). This research project defines perceived value as the benefit which customers perceive against the costs, they incur of the whole service experience. Although the service firm can create and communicate service value to customers, the customers can interpret the value based on the perception of dynamic situational value creation processes, which is specific (Helkkula and Kelleher, 2010). Customer perceived value is linked with the service attributes (Levy, 2014) and how customers give meaning to their experiences with the service (Bae *et al.*, 2020; Brown, 2006). According to Helkkula and Kelleher (2010), positive service experiences and perceived positive value are connected, whereas negative service experiences are linked to the negative perceived value of service.

In the context of service failure and recovery, when service recovery is undertaken in the form of compensation, it will lead to more favourable evaluations as customers perceive that they have immediately received the value from the compensation (Hoffman *et al.*, 1995). In the same vein, Yaya *et al.* (2015) found that service recovery was positively related to perceived value. This assertion is similar to Boshoff (2005), who showed that a successful service recovery results in improved perceptions of the service firm's competence and eventually to perceived value. In customer participation. Prebensen and Xie (2017) found that co-creation leads to enhanced perceived value. The qualitative findings support the literature findings, especially in the case with the price-sensitive informants. Their opinions related to the perceived value were positive after receiving service recovery. Hence, based on the findings of qualitative research and literature review, it can be hypothesised that:

H4: Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived value

6.3.5 Service recovery and Brand reputation

Brand reputation is known as "an aggregate and compressed set of public judgments about the brand" (Veloutsou and Delgado-Ballester, 2018, p.257). A strong brand reputation is essential for the brand's success and is earned over time by the firm (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009). Brand reputation has remained the reason for consumers' service choice, positive attitudes, repurchase intentions and building trust (Hess, 2008). This is because brand reputation is developed due to consistent, credible actions of the firm towards its consumers (Sengupta *et al.*, 2015). The firm's reputation depends on how the service firm is handling its customers and how well it is taking care of them (La and Choi, 2019). Reputation is fragile and can be damaged by negative incidents(Chao and Cheng, 2019; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001). However, a good brand reputation can safeguard a firm in service failure situations and act as a shield or buffer to reduce the negative consequences after negative encounters (Sengupta *et al.*, 2015).

The focus of the investigation of brand reputation within the service recovery framework has been limited to act as a moderator (see Hess, 2008; Sengupta *et al.*, 2015). Hess (2008) found that brand reputation acted successfully in between the relationship of service failure severity and customer satisfaction, whereas Sengupta *et al.* (2015) investigated its moderating role between customer coping strategies and customer outcomes (satisfaction and negative word of mouth). Their investigation also supported the moderation role of brand reputation. Though there is little empirical evidence of service recovery actions' influence on brand reputation, it can be inferred from the closely related studies that service recovery will positively influence brand reputation. For example, Liat *et al.* (2017) showed that service recovery positively influences brand associations in the context of high contact services. In the same line, some scholars investigated that customer participation in service recovery enhances brand reputation. Specifically, Foroudi *et al.* (2019) found that students' participation positively impacted the university's brand reputation. Further, the qualitative analysis suggests that informants shared positive opinions about the brand's reputation after they explained their service recovery experience with the firm.Hence, based on the literature review and findings of semi-structured interviews, it can be hypothesised that:

H5: Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand reputation

6.3.6 Service recovery and Brand trust

The current study conceptualises brand trust as consumers' belief in the firm's reliability and integrity (Morgan and Hunt, 1994). Trust is the foundation of long-term relationships and is considered the most powerful tool available to the service firm in relationship marketing (Chao and Cheng, 2019; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008). Trust is denoted by the belief of customers that service provider actions are in favour of their interests (Wang and Chang, 2013). Further, it enables the customers to economize their service transactions by reducing their cognitive, emotional and social energy (Soares *et al.*, 2017). Trust is developed over time with the efforts of service providers in providing satisfaction to customers, which then enables them to perceive that the service provider is reliable and honest (Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). However, violation of trust can occur only after a single negative incident experienced by a customer, depending on the nature of the incident and situation (Wang and Chang, 2013). The violation of trust can lead to a breach of the customer relationship; therefore, as an immediate reaction, firms should imbed service recovery and restore customer trust (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016).

The literature and the findings from the qualitative phase of this study indicate that CPSR and FR play an important role in enhancing customer trust in the service provider. For example, Chao and Cheng (2019) investigated trust as the outcome of service recovery and found that service recovery results in customers' satisfaction with the recovery, which further enhances customers' trust in the firm. Similarly, Cantor and Li (2019) utilised trust as one of the dimensions of relationship quality and found a positive relationship between service recovery, recovery satisfaction and relationship quality (including trust). Basso and Pizzutti (2016) found that customer trust can be recovered after a double deviation scenario by utilising effective service recovery. On the other hand, the literature also suggests that customer participation in services helps service brands build and maintain trusting relationships between customers and service providers (Iglesias *et al.*, 2013; da Silveira *et al.*, 2013). In customer participation in service recovery, Busser and Shulga (2019) report a positive influence of customer participation in service recovery on brand trust. Thus, based on both the findings from the qualitative study and the extant literature, it can be hypothesised that:

H6: Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand trust

6.3.7 Service recovery and Brand loyalty

Brand loyalty is defined as A deeply held faithfulness to the brand in terms of overall support and to rebuy or re-patronise consistently in the future (Oliver, 1999). Brand loyalty has been regarded as one of the essential assets of services brands (Agag, 2019; Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019). In case of service failure, service firms take necessary actions to maintain customer loyalty by recovering from service failure (La and Choi, 2019). Conteiro et al. (2016) assert that service recovery initiatives contribute towards enhancing customer loyalty. Maintaining customer loyalty is crucial for firms because the expense of acquiring new customers exceeds in comparison to retaining existing customers (Dickinger and Bauernfeind, 2009). In the development of long-term relationships, firms tend to focus on loyal customers, which contribute to the firm's financial health (Reichheld, 2003). Moreover, loyal customers' probability of shedding negative behaviours is less in service failure situations because loyal customers tend to preserve the firm's personal relationship even in bad times (Kamble and Walvekar, 2019; Komunda and Osarenkhoe, 2012).

A plethora of service literature has investigated the relationship between service recovery and customer loyalty in different contexts (Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019; Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013; Chandrashekaran *et al.*, 2007; Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Joosten *et al.*, 2017; Kamble and Walvekar, 2019; Morgeson III *et al.*, 2020). The evidence from the literature suggests that both forms of loyalty (attitudinal and behavioural loyalty) are influenced by service recovery efforts (Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008). Researchers have investigated direct (Akinci *et al.*, 2010; Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019; Kamble and Walvekar, 2019; Morgeson III *et al.*, 2020) and indirect (Agag, 2019; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; La and Choi, 2019) effects of service recovery on customer loyalty. According to Barusman and Virgawenda (2019), service recovery has a significant positive relationship with brand loyalty. More recently, Morgeson III *et al.* (2020) suggested that the positive relationship between service recovery and loyalty is stronger in economies growing faster and having more competition. Loyalty has remained one of the major focuses for the researchers investigating within the context of high contact services such as; retail banking, restaurants, hotels and airlines (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Liat *et al.*, 2017; Nikbin, Iranmanesh, *et al.*, 2015). However, service recovery strategies have also positively influenced customer loyalty within the context of low contact services (Akinci *et al.*, 2010; Barusman and Virgawenda, 2019; Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013).

Existing literature on customer participation highlights the significance of allowing customers to participate in service processes for maintaining customer loyalty (Cossío-Silva *et al.*, 2016). These studies show that customers' skills and values can influence the overall value creation process (Saarijärvi *et al.*, 2013). If the service co-creation processes satisfy customers, they will increase their purchase frequency while reducing the search for competitive offerings (Yang *et al.,* 2014). Thus, the co-creation of services has positive implications for customer loyalty. As Busser and Shulga (2019) suggested, customer participation in service recovery has an essential role in value co-creation and positively influences brand loyalty. Based on the qualitative findings and literature, it can be hypothesized as:

H7: Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand loyalty

6.3.8 Mediating role of perceived justice

The literature evidence that perceived justice plays a central role in the service recovery frameworks. Firstly, perceived justice is utilised to examine the customers' cognitive evaluations about the service recovery process (Liao, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Tax *et al.*, 1998; Yao *et al.*, 2019). Secondly, perceived justice is understood as an appropriate phenomenon to explain further brand-related outcomes, for example, brand loyalty (Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Choi and Choi, 2014; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019), brand image (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015), brand reputation (Ziaullah *et al.*, 2017), brand trust ((Liu *et al.*, 2021; Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016), perceived quality (Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007), satisfaction (Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2008), repurchase intentions (Liao, 2007; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012), and word of mouth (Lee *et al.*, 2020; Migacz *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, extant research has treated perceived justice as a mediator in their frameworks (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Gelbrich *et al.*, 2015; Liao, 2007; Qin *et al.*, 2019; Roschk and Gelbrich, 2017; Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2008; Yao *et al.*, 2019).

Liao (2007) explained the mediating role of perceived justice in her service recovery framework. The results of her study showed that service recovery strategies influence customer satisfaction and then repurchase intentions through successful mediation of perceived justice. Similarly, Mostafa *et al.* (2015) posited a positive relationship between service recovery efforts and dimensions of perceived justice, which then enhances the firm's brand image. Varela-Neira *et al.* (2008) presented the justice dimensions as the mediator between customer emotions created by service failure and overall satisfaction. According to Roschk and Gelbrich (2017), perceived justice is a key mediator when examining the relationship between recovery and recovery satisfaction. Similar findings of perceived justice being a key mediator in the service recovery frameworks have been utilised in recent studies (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Qin *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, based on the literature findings the current study hypothesise that:

H8: Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and overall brand equity

H9: Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived quality

H10: Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived value

H11: Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand reputation

H12: Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand trust
H13: Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand loyalty

6.3.9 Moderating role of Service failure severity

Service failure severity is a crucial factor that affects the relationship between service recovery and its outcomes (Chao and Cheng, 2019). Consequently, service failure severity is either held constant (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Weun *et al.*, 2004) or utilised as a moderator (La and Choi, 2019; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012) among the relationships. Roggeveen *et al.* (2012) investigated the moderating role of service failure severity between customer participation in service recovery and perceived justice. They found that service recovery's effect on perceived justice differs due to the severity of the failure. The literature suggests that customers tend to have different levels of reactions depending on the magnitude of the service failure severity (Israeli, Lee and Bolden, 2019). Liao (2007) found that service recovery initiatives result in positive outcomes; however, these positive outcomes depended on service failure severity.

The influence of service recovery on brand equity may depend on service failure severity. According to Cantor and Li (2019), failure severity can change customer expectations and, consequently, modify customer’s evaluation of service recovery efforts. The more severe the service failure, the greater the customer’s perceived loss (Lin, 2011). Similarly, studies suggest that service failure severity can influence the evaluation of a service provider after a service failure and their future relationship with the service brand (Balaji and Sarkar, 2013). Service failure severity also negatively influences brand-related outcomes such as customer loyalty (Wang *et al.*, 2011), brand trust (Sengupta *et al.*, 2015), word of mouth (Chang *et al.*, 2015), and satisfaction (Weun *et al.*, 2004).

The severity of service failure is considered a critical factor in service recovery frameworks. For example, the relationship between service recovery and brand loyalty is influenced by service failure severity (La and Choi, 2019). Wang *et al.* (2011) found that the levels of brand loyalty may differ due to the levels of failure severity. Similarly, Cantor and Li (2019) suggest that failure severity negatively relates to brand loyalty. In this study, the researcher assumes that failure severity is a critical factor influencing the proposed relationships.

It is important to consider the influence of service failure severity while discussing the relationship between service recovery and branding outcomes. This is because past research has suggested that service failure severity should be taken into account when discussing service recovery to ensure the integrity of the study findings (Riaz and Khan, 2016). Extant service recovery literature suggests that service failure severity will be a key factor that will decide how customers evaluate the efforts of a service provider and how they asses the brand (Balaji and Sarkar, 2013; Lin *et al.*, 2011; Riaz and Khan, 2016). La and Choi (2019) assert that when the severity of service failure increases, customers are more critical of service recovery efforts, and thus service recovery efforts are more likely to impact customer perceptions. Therefore on the basis of the literature review findings, the following hypotheses relate to the moderating role of service failure severity

H14: The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived justice is moderated by service failure severity

H15: The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and overall brand equity is moderated by service failure severity

H16: The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived quality is moderated by service failure severity

H17: The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived value is moderated by service failure severity

H18: The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand reputation is moderated by service failure severity

H19: The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand trust is moderated by service failure severity

H20: The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand loyalty is moderated by service failure severity

6.3.10 Service Recovery Paradox

The phenomenon of service recovery paradox suggests that there will be a higher level of customer-related outcomes after a service failure and recovery than a situation where no service failure and recovery happened (Khamitov *et al.*, 2020). When customers believe that the service recovery efforts are effective, they show higher satisfaction ratings after a service failure and recovery than before a negative service encounter (De Matos *et al.*, 2009). Extant literature related to service recovery paradox has utilised ‘satisfaction’ as a focal measure to identify whether a paradox exists or not (Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Boshoff, 1997; Heidenreich *et al.*, 2015; McCollough, 2000; Ok *et al.*, 2007; Singhal *et al.*, 2013). Boshoff (1997) suggests that customers show higher ratings of post-recovery satisfaction as compared to pre-failure ratings when immediate monetary compensation is provided as a form of service recovery. Similarly, Azemi *et al.* (2019) found that immediate compensation and customer participation in service recovery leads to service recovery paradox. The literature also suggests that the service recovery paradox exists for several brand-related outcomes other than satisfaction, for example, brand image (Andreassen, 2001), word of mouth (Lin *et al.*, 2011; Maxham III, 2001), loyalty (Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi, 2016; Smith and Bolton, 1998; Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017) and repurchase intentions (Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi, 2016; Maxham III, 2001; Soares *et al.*, 2017; Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017).

The existence of paradox occurs if service recovery has a positive relationship with its outcomes. For example, Smith and Bolton (1998) suggest that the service recovery paradox exists in case of customer loyalty as customers who receive satisfactory service recovery after a service failure will demonstrate higher levels of satisfaction and enhanced re-patronage intentions that would not be achieved if there was no service failure and recovery. Similarly, Weitzl and Hutzinger (2017) found that service recovery can lead to more favourable reactions such as repurchase intention as compared to a situation when customers do not complain at all. Andreassen (2001) found that service firms will try to delight complaining customers by offering outstanding service recovery to improve the perceptions of the service firm beyond the pre-failure perceptions. Similarly, Gohary *et al.* (2016) claim that the service recovery paradox occurs when value is created for the customers in the service recovery process. More recently, Azemi *et al.* (2019) asserted that value creation is done by involving customers in the recovery process, which may lead to a recovery paradox.

The studies provide evidence that the existence of the service recovery paradox is specific under certain conditions. There are mainly six main conditions found in which there are chances of service recovery paradox to occur, i) service failure severity is low (Magnini *et al.*, 2007) ii) the failure is not attributed to the firm but to an external cause (Magnini *et al.*, 2007) iii) service failure is caused by customers themselves (Hocutt and Stone, 1998) iv) service recovery is provided immediately (Boshoff, 1997) v) service recovery is highly effective (Hocutt *et al.*, 2006) and vI) customers participate in service recovery (Azemi *et al.*, 2019; Heidenreich *et al.*, 2015). On the other hand, a few studies suggest that although an effective service recovery can mitigate the negative effects of a service failure, it can produce a service recovery paradox under any condition (Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; Lin *et al.*, 2011; Maxham III, 2001). Therefore, considering the findings from the literature, the study hypothesises that:

H21: If a firm exercises service recovery (customer participation in service recovery) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure evaluations.
H22: If a firm exercises service recovery (customer participation in service recovery) after a high severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure evaluations.
H23: If a firm exercises service recovery (firm recovery) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure evaluations.
H24: If a firm exercises service recovery (firm recovery) after a high severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b)

perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure evaluations.

Table 6.2 Summary of Hypotheses

Impact of Service recovery on post-recovery evaluations	
H1	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived justice
H2	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences overall brand equity
H3	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived quality
H4	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived value
H5	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand reputation
H6	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand trust
H7	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand loyalty
Mediating role of Perceived Justice	
H8	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a.Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and overall brand equity
H9	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived quality
H10	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived value
H11	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand reputation
H12	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand trust
H13	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand loyalty
Moderating role of Service Failure Severity	
H14	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived justice is moderated by service failure severity
H15	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and overall brand equity is moderated by service failure severity
H16	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived quality is moderated by service failure severity
H17	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived value is moderated by service failure severity
H18	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand reputation is moderated by service failure severity
H19	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand trust is moderated by service failure severity
H20	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand loyalty is moderated by service failure severity
Paradox	
H21	If a firm exercises service recovery (customer participation in service recovery) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.
H22	If a firm exercises service recovery (customer participation in service recovery) after a high severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.
H23	If a firm exercises service recovery (firm recovery) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.
H24	If a firm exercises service recovery (firm recovery) after a high severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.

6.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the conceptual model and research hypotheses developed from literature review and qualitative data analysis. At first, the chapter presented the overall logic of the conceptual model and the proposed relationships.

Next, a figure of the conceptual model represents the graphical representation of the relationships. It is then followed by three sets of hypotheses. Firstly, the research hypotheses related to the impact of service recovery (Customer participation in service recovery and Firm Recovery) on perceived justice and Consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) are presented. Secondly, the hypotheses related to the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE are presented.

Finally, the hypotheses to investigate the service recovery paradox with respect to the dimensions of CBBE are discussed. A total of 24 main hypotheses are generated, and their summary is given in table 6.2. The proposed hypotheses will be tested in chapter 8.

Chapter 7 Quantitative Methodology

7.1 Introduction

This chapter entails the steps involved in the second phase (Quantitative methodology) of the exploratory mixed-method design. The chapter describes the detailed characteristics of the experimental research design, which include the approach to the experimental manipulation and development of hypothetical scenarios. Further, the development of the questionnaire is described in two sections. Firstly, the process of reviewing and selecting the appropriate scales and definitions of the constructs is detailed, and then the structure of the questionnaire is depicted. The next part of the chapter includes the sampling approach, characteristics of the sample. Finally, data screening and approach to quantitative data analysis is explained.

7.2 Experimental research design

The quantitative phase of this research project has utilised two of the experimental designs suggested by Malhotra and Birks (2007) to test the hypothesis. According to them, experimental designs can be classified into pre-experimental, true Experimental, quasi-experimental and statistical designs. The classification is subdivided into further designs under the four main experimental designs. To test the hypotheses 21a -24e, the current study has implemented a one-group pretest-posttest design from pre-experimental designs and adopted factorial designs from statistical experimental designs to test the hypothesis from 1-7 and hypothesis 14-20. One group pretest-posttest experiment involved two stages of data collection to analyse the dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate. The factorial design was a 3 (service recovery: Customer participation in service recovery vs Firm recovery vs no recovery) x 2 (Service failure severity: high vs low) between-subject design.

Major features of the experimental design include manipulation, control and randomisation (Bell *et al.*, 2018). Manipulation occurs when the researcher purposefully change or alter the independent variables to explain the causal effect on dependant variables (Allen, 2017). The manipulation of independent variables is also termed as ‘treatment’. Service recovery and service failure severity were manipulated for the current research. Control in an experiment is designed to reduce the effect of other variables on the relationship between independent and dependant variables. One of the ways of controlling this effect is randomisation. Randomisation occurs when participants of the experiment are assigned to different treatment groups. The following sections contain more detail on manipulation, control and randomisation.

7.2.1 Approach to experimental manipulation

A pre-requisite of every experimental process is selecting and designing the manipulations so that the experimenter may investigate the changes in the dependent variable due to the independent variables (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The selection of experimental manipulation is based on the study's conceptual framework, developed after scrutinising the literature review and qualitative phase. The current experimental study aimed to manipulate service recovery and service failure severity to examine the change in the dependant variables.

Service recovery was manipulated at three different levels, i) Firm recovery: the remedy is solely provided by the firm without involving the customer(s) ii) Customer participation in service recovery: the remedy is co-created as a result of the joint efforts of a service provider and customer(s) iii) No service recovery: no remedy is provided for the unpleasant situation. On the other hand, service failure severity was conceptualised as the customer's perceived seriousness of the problem. Service failure severity was manipulated at two levels, i) high: the customer's perceived seriousness of the problem is high. ii) low: the level of customer's perceived seriousness of the problem is low.

Experimental research contains different approaches to manipulate independent variables such as designing task/role-playing activity, creating hypothetical text scenarios, audio recordings, visuals and using confederates (Allen, 2017). Current research has utilised hypothetical text scenarios to manipulate service recovery and service failure severity. The preference of hypothetical scenarios over other approaches was due to four main reasons. Firstly, this approach is extensively used in experimental research related to service failure and recovery and is considered most dependable (Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2019). Secondly, scenario-based experiments are easily manageable in depicting service failure and recovery scenarios considering limited resources in hand (Ha and Jang, 2009). Thirdly, the usage of scenarios eliminates the problems linked with ethical issues and managerial undesirability of imposing negative service failure incidents on customers (Abbasi, 2020). Finally, exposing respondents to hypothetical text scenarios can reduce memory bias that is present otherwise when respondents are asked to recall past incidents (Hwang and Mattila, 2020; Smith *et al.*, 1999). Hence, to design the manipulations for service recovery and service failure severity, the development of multiple hypothetical scenarios was considered as the initial step of the experimental process.

7.3 Development of Research Instruments

The data collection was carried out with the help of questionnaires (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Two questionnaires were developed because the study had two stages of data collection as mentioned in section 7.4. The questionnaire for the first stage of quantitative data collection included the measures of the dimensions of CBBE. In contrast, the questionnaire for the second stage of quantitative data collection was a scenario-based questionnaire which included hypothetical text scenarios along with the measurement items of the dimensions of CBBE, overall brand equity and perceived justice. The following sections explain the development of questionnaires along with the development of hypothetical scenarios.

7.3.1 Development of the questionnaires

A questionnaire is an organised framework that comprises several questions and scales to collect primary data from the respondents (Bell *et al.*, 2018). It is an appropriate tool to gather peoples' attitudes, behaviours and perceptions towards the subject of investigation (Punch, 2003). The questionnaire was an integral part of the current experimental research study. The questionnaire was utilised to gather people's perceptions towards a service brand before and after they were exposed to the experimental treatments. The questionnaire enabled the researcher to collect the data in a formalised and coherent manner to prepare it for suitable quantitative analysis (Malhotra, 2006). The development of an organised and purposeful questionnaire went through different stages, which are mentioned below. The following section explains the rationale for selecting the scales to measure the variables. The selected measures were then utilised to structure the questionnaires and for the data collection of stage 1 and stage 2. The structures of the questionnaires are explained in section 7.5.3.

7.3.1.1 Selection of measures

The conceptual framework of this research project was considered a referral point in developing the questionnaire (DeVellis, 2016). The process of questionnaire development began with carefully defining the constructs. It was made sure that definitions are relevant to the literature, clearly differentiate from the related constructs and include unambiguous terms (MacKenzie, 2003). The definitions included the conceptual themes of the constructs rather than just explaining the ingredients of the definition (Summers, 2019). Therefore, the constructs were not defined based on their antecedents and consequences.

After defining the constructs, the next step was to select appropriate measures from the relevant literature (Blaikie and Priest, 2019). Relevant literature was reviewed to select suitable scales for the measurement of constructs. The scales were adapted and adopted from the existing literature since the scope of the study was not to develop a new scale for any construct. The following rationale was used as a guideline in selecting and evaluating the scales:

a) all the significant elements of the definition are manifested in the chosen scale (MacKenzie, 2003)
b) multi-item scales were used because it was not intended to use a small sample size, not intended to have homogenous items, and not expected to have a small effect size (Diamantopoulos *et al.*, 2012).
c) a minimum of three or above item scale was chosen "to provide minimum coverage of constructs theoretical domain" (Hair *et al.*, 2014, p.608)
d) it was made sure that the items (questions) of the chosen scale: contain clear words, are specific, and are not double-barrelled (Bell *et al.*, 2018; MacKenzie, 2003; Weijters *et al.*, 2013).
e) the reliability and validity values of the chosen scales were above-accepted threshold values (Hair *et al.*, 2014)

Service recovery and branding literature were reviewed to adopt and or adapt appropriate scales that match the criteria mentioned above. Although existing research contains original scales for the constructs mentioned in the conceptual framework, it also contains scales that contain the items adopted and or adapted from two or more developed scales (Chao and Cheng, 2019; Foroudi *et al.*, 2018;

del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009). Hence, those scales represent a redeveloped form. Given this, the researcher has reviewed both the original and redeveloped scales utilised in service recovery and branding literature. The following sections explain the rationale of the selected scales.

Distributive justice

The measurement scales for distributive justice available in the literature were grouped into two different categories for a better understanding. The first category was termed as *compensation focused,* in which the scales focused on measuring distributive justice in terms of tangible compensation (payment, refund, discount). In contrast, the second category of scales attempted to measure distributive justice as an outcome of the service recovery and was termed as outcome-focused.

The scale of Smith *et al.* (1999) from the second category was chosen to measure distributive justice from this category because the scale is relevant to the chosen definition of the construct. The scale was adapted, and the reverse items were converted into straight statements to avoid reverse item bias (Netemeyer *et al.*, 2003; Weijters *et al.*, 2013).

Table 7.1 Scales of Distributive Justice

Distributive Justice:		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
11	***Compensation focused:*** Scales measuring distributive justice while considering it as fair compensation (payment)	(Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Blodgett *et al.*, 1997; Chen and Kim, 2019; Crisafulli and Singh, 2016; Gelbrich *et al.*, 2015; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Schoefer and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2008; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2010; Wang and Chang, 2013)
23	***Outcome focused:*** Scales measuring distributive justice while considering it as a fair outcome (accumulated response) after a service failure	(Bugg-Holloway *et al.*, 2009; Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013; Cheung and To, 2016; Choi and Choi, 2014; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016; Huang, 2011; Joosten *et al.*, 2017; Karatepe, 2006b; Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; Kim, Jung-Eun Yoo, *et al.*, 2012; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Martínez-Tur *et al.*, 2006; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Namkung and Jang, 2010; Ozkan-Tektas and Basgoze, 2017; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Roschk *et al.*, 2013; Santos Cristiane and Basso, 2012; Shin *et al.*, 2018; Sindhav *et al.*, 2006; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Tax *et al.*, 1998; Tsai *et al.*, 2014; Wirtz and McColl-Kennedy, 2010; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014)

Informational Justice

The literature which incorporates informational justice relies heavily on the scale given by Colquitt (2001a) for its measurement (Bradley and Sparks, 2009; Kim *et* *al.*, 2019; Liao and Rupp, 2005). The features of the scale attempt to measure the level of communication in terms of explanation and information provided by the service employee. Out of 19 reviewed scales, four scales did not adapt or adopt Colquitt (2001) measurement scale (see table 7.2).

Although the items of those scales also reflected on measuring informational justice based on the quality and quantity of explanation provided by service employees, the number of items in the scales were not enough to cover the theoretical domain of informational justice. Therefore, the current study adapted four items from Colquitt (2001) scale to measure informational justice. The scale is in accordance with the chosen definition of the construct, and items of the scale are comprehensive.

The items were converted to declarative statements from the statements ending with a question mark. One item which was measuring the aspect of 'timeliness' was dropped because 'timeliness' was considered as an aspect of procedural justice's theoretical domain.

Table 7.2 Scales of Informational Justice

Informational Justice:		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
15	***Scales adopting or adapting scale:*** Scales measuring informational Colquitt 2001 justice based on items related to information and explanation using Colquitt's scale	(Ambrose *et al.*, 2007; Colquitt, 2001; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Gupta and Kumar, 2013; Judge and Colquitt, 2004; Kernan and Hanges, 2002; Kim, 2009; Kim *et al.*, 2010; Liao, 2007; Loi *et al.*, 2009; Mattila, 2006; McQuilken *et al.*, 2017; Shin *et al.*, 2015; Sindhav *et al.*, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2009)
4	***Others:*** Scales not utilising the scale Colquitt 2001 also measuring informational justice based on items related to information and explanation but not using Colquitt's scale	(Bradley and Sparks, 2012, 2009; Liao and Rupp, 2005; Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2010b; Yang, Wang, *et al.*, 2019)

Interactional Justice

The measurement scales were grouped into three distinct categories before choosing an appropriate scale. The first category of scales focused on measuring interactional justice based on the personal treatment of the customer and termed as personal treatment.

The emphasis of the second category is to measure how the problem was treated. Finally, the third category of scales includes the items which aim to measure interactional justice based on a combination of problem and personal treatment. 4 items from Maxham III and Netemeyer (2002) were adapted to measure interactional justice for the current study. The scale was chosen because the items cover the theoretical domain, the reliability of the scale is high, and the validity is above the threshold value. The items were modified by replacing the word 'Firm name' with 'waiter'.

The scale seemed suitable because it aimed to measure interpersonal treatment aligned to the chosen definition. Moreover, the reliability and validity of the chosen scale was high (See table 7.3)

Table 7.3 Scales of Interactional Justice

Interactional Justice:		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
12	***Personal treatment:*** The scales focusing on measuring how the individual is treatment personally	(Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Blodgett *et al.*, 1997; Choi and Choi, 2014; Karatepe, 2006b; Martínez-Tur *et al.*, 2006; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Namkung and Jang, 2010; Ozkan-Tektas and Basgoze, 2017; Roschk and Kaiser, 2013; Sindhav *et al.*, 2006; Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2008; Wang and Chang, 2013)
17	***Problem Treatment:*** Scales focusing on measuring that how (in which manner) the problem was resolved	(Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013; Chen and Kim, 2019; Cheung and To, 2016; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016; Joosten *et al.*, 2017; Lin *et al.*, 2011; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Schoefer and Diamantopoulos, 2008; Shin *et al.*, 2018; Tax *et al.*, 1998; Tsai *et al.*, 2014; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2010; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014)
07	***Combined (Personal treatment + Problem treatment):*** Scales which include both items measuring interpersonal treatment and the manner in which the problem was treated	(Huang, 2011; Jung and Seock, 2017; Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Santos Cristiane and Basso, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Tsai *et al.*, 2014)

Procedural Justice

A review of the scales measuring procedural justice resulted in two distinct categories of scales based on inclusion and exclusion of the items related to 'promptness' of the response given by the service firm. The majority (26) scales included the items related to the timeliness of the response, whereas the rest of the reviewed scales (09) has not mentioned promptness as a key factor in measuring perceived justice.

Five items from Vázquez-Casielles *et al.* (2010) were chosen and modified to measure procedural justice. The scale is chosen because the scale includes the factor of promptness. Promptness is considered as a key factor when measuring procedural justice (del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009). Further, the scale includes the items to measure the appropriateness and adequacy of the service recovery procedure.

Finally, the items have clarity, and there are no double-barreled or reverse items in the scale. Further, the items reflect the theoretical domain of the construct. The modification included the replacement of the word “firm” with “restaurant” as per the suitability.

Table 7.4 Scales of Procedural Justice

Procedural Justice:		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
26	***Promptness of response:*** Prompt response is considered as a key measurement aspect to measure procedural justice	(Balaji *et al.*, 2018; Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Blodgett *et al.*, 1997; Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013; Cheung and To, 2016; Choi and Choi, 2014; Crisafulli and Singh, 2016; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Huang, 2011; Karatepe, 2006b; Lin *et al.*, 2011; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Namkung and Jang, 2010; Ozkan-Tektas and Basgoze, 2017; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Ro and Olson, 2014; Roschk and Kaiser, 2013; Santos Cristiane and Basso, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Tax *et al.*, 1998; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2010; Wang and Chang, 2013; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014)
9	***Promptness excluded:*** Promptness is not considered in measuring promptness	(Chen and Kim, 2019; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Joosten *et al.*, 2017; Jung and Seock, 2017; Martínez-Tur *et al.*, 2006; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Sindhav *et al.*, 2006; Tsai *et al.*, 2014; Varela-Neira *et al.*, 2008)

Perceived Quality

The scales measuring perceived quality were categorised into four different categories. The first category of scales focused only to measure the quality of the service or product. In contrast, the rest of the categories include items attempting to measure perceived quality based on multiple traits such as reliability, competence and performance.

The current study adapted four items from Netemeyer *et al.* (2004). The word ‘brand name’ was replaced with ‘restaurant’ to adjust it with the study. The scale was chosen because it is aligned with the chosen definition, and it covers the complete theoretical domain of perceived quality. Table 7.5 presents the categories of the scales with the contributors.

Table 7.5 Scales of Perceived Quality

Perceived Quality		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
8	**Quality**	(Anselmsson *et al.*, 2016; Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007; Broyles *et al.*, 2010; Chatzipanagiotou *et al.*, 2016; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015; Hsu, 2012; Nath and Bawa, 2011)
2	**Quality and Reliability** Scales measuring perceived quality based on the actual quality of the brand and on the reliability of the brand	(Ha *et al.*, 2010; Yoo and Donthu, 2001)
3	**Quality and Competence** Scales measuring perceived quality based on the actual quality of the brand and on its competence	(Camarero *et al.*, 2012; Jamilena *et al.*, 2017; Šerić *et al.*, 2017)
11	**Quality, reliability and performance** Scales measuring perceived quality based on the actual quality of the brand, on its performance or competence and the reliability of the brand	(Baalbaki and Guzmán, 2016; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Girard *et al.*, 2017; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kim and Kim, 2004; Kimpakorn and Tocquer, 2010; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004; Washburn and Plank, 2002; Yoo *et al.*, 2000)

Perceived Value

A total of 10 scales were reviewed to select a suitable measurement for perceived value. The first category of the scales focuses only on the benefits received against the monetary cost. However, during a service experience, consumers time, effort and energy are also costed (Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004).

The second and the third category of perceived value scales include the contributions from Dong *et al.* (2008) and Vázquez-Casielles *et al.* (2010), respectively. The items in the scale mentioned by Dong *et al.* (2008) reflects that the measurement of perceived value is based on the emotional benefits. Whereas, items in the sale from Vázquez-Casielles *et al.* (2010) measure the benefits of receiving the superior quality of excellent service received in return of the incurred cost.

Finally, the fourth category includes the items which comprehensively measure the benefits received against the price, time and effort costs. Scale mentioned by Netemeyer *et al.*(2004) was utilised because it reflects the chosen definition of perceived value and the scale has high reliability and validity. Table 7.6 presents the categories of the reviewed scales.

Table7.6 Scales of Perceived Value

Perceived Value		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
4	**Benefits against the monetary cost** Items of the scale focusing benefits received against the monetary cost	(Buil *et al.*, 2008; Girard *et al.*, 2017; Rios and Riquelme, 2008; Santos Cristiane and Basso, 2012)
1	**Emotional benefits** Items of the scale focusing on the emotional costs and benefits	(Dong *et al.*, 2008)
2	**Performance / Quality Received** Scale focusing on quality and performance benefits received against the cost incurred	(Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2010)
3	**Comprehensive** Scales including items that measure Perceived value comprehensively	(Agarwal and Teas, 2001; Li *et al.*, 2017; Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004)

Brand Reputation

A total of 7 different scales of brand reputation were reviewed. 3 item scale from Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou (2013) was adapted to measure brand reputation. Although the scale contained only three items, it was in line with the chosen definition and scale items captured the theoretical domain of brand reputation.

Other scales attempt to measure brand reputation based on the items related to reliability and performance of the brand, which overlapped with the measurement of brand trust and perceived quality. Scales from Walsh and Beatty (2007) and Walsh *et al.* (2009) were not considered because the scales cover a broad theoretical domain of brand reputation, which is not reflected in the chosen definition.

Table 7.7 Scales of Brand Reputation

Brand Reputation		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
1	***Focusing on Performance*** Scales measuring the reputation of the brand while focusing on the performance of the brand	(Heinberg *et al.*, 2018)
3	***Scales including Direct measurement items / Focused on reliability*** Scales are measuring reputation using direct terms such as “reputation” and or repute etc. Also, measuring reputation while focusing on the reliability of the brand	(Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001; Ozkan-Tektas and Basgoze, 2017; Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009)
1	***Scales including indirect measurement items*** Scales measuring reputation using indirect terms and ways	(Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou, 2013)
2	***Multiple aspects*** Scales measuring reputation using items related to multiple aspects such as:	(Walsh *et al.*, 2009; Walsh and Beatty, 2007)

Brand Trust

A total of 29 scales measuring brand trust were reviewed. In order to evaluate and select an appropriate scale, the scales were divided into two categories based on their scope. The first category included the scales, which measure brand trust on the basis of trustworthiness and or reliability of the brand whereas, the second category of scales measured trustworthiness, competence and performance of the brand.

Competence and performance of the brand are considered traits of perceived quality in the current research project; therefore, the scale of Doney and Cannon (1997) was adapted from the former category. Two items from the scale were dropped to adjust the scale with the theoretical domain of brand trust. The scale is widely used and comes from an elite journal.

Table 7.8 Scales of Brand Trust

Brand Trust		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
18	**Based on Trustworthiness** Scales measuring the reliability or trustworthiness of the brand solely	(Anselmsson *et al.*, 2016; Boenigk and Becker, 2016; Bugg-Holloway *et al.*, 2009; Bunker and Ball, 2008; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2006; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Doney and Cannon, 1997; Hur and Jang, 2016; Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; Kim, 2009; La and Choi, 2012; Lassar *et al.*, 1995; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Rios and Riquelme, 2008; Wang and Chang, 2013; Wang and Huff, 2007; Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017)
11	**Based on trustworthiness and competence** Scales measuring trustworthiness/competence	(Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Basso and Pizzutti, 2016; Clark *et al.*, 2009; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Grégoire and Fisher, 2008; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Lehmann *et al.*, 2008; Li *et al.*, 2017; Sajtos *et al.*, 2010; Santos Cristiane and Basso, 2012; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2010; Wang *et al.*, 2014)

Brand Loyalty

Four distinct categories of brand loyalty scales were identified in the literature. The items of the first category contain behavioural aspects of loyalty such as repurchase, revisiting and recommending the brand to others. The second category of scales included the items which emphasised measuring a higher level of commitment and attitudes of consumers towards brands. The third category of scales attempts to measure behavioural and attitudinal aspects under a single scale. The third category of brand loyalty scales is comprehensive because it attempts to measure both key elements of brand loyalty. Finally, the studies treating brand loyalty as a multidimensional construct have utilised separate scales of behavioural loyalty and attitudinal loyalty.

Four items from Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh (2006) were chosen to measure brand loyalty. The scale is comprehensive and cover the theoretical domain of brand loyalty. The scale includes the items which measures both attitudinal and behavioural aspects. Further, the reliability and validity of the scale was observed to be high. Table 7.9 delineates the explanation of the reviewed scales

Table7.9 Scales of Brand Loyalty

Brand Loyalty		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
11	***Behavioural Focused*** Scales focusing on the behavioural aspects of loyalty such as repurchase, revisiting and recommending the brand to others	(Barakat *et al.*, 2015; Boo *et al.*, 2009; Broyles *et al.*, 2009; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Jamilena *et al.*, 2017; Joosten *et al.*, 2017; Karatepe, 2006b; Kayaman and Arasli, 2007; Kim and Jang, 2014; Kim and Kim, 2004; Ling-Yee Li *et al.*, 2017; Nam *et al.*, 2011)
14	***Attitudinal Focused*** Scales focusing on measuring a higher level of commitment and attitudes towards brands	(Anselmsson *et al.*, 2016; Atilgan *et al.*, 2009; Buil *et al.*, 2008; Chaudhuri, 1995; Chih *et al.*, 2012; Christodoulides *et al.*, 2015; Guzmán and Davis, 2017; Ha *et al.*, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2017; Priluck and Wisenblit, 2009; Washburn and Plank, 2002; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019; Yoo *et al.*, 2000; Yoo and Donthu, 2001)
11	***Combination*** Scales which are measuring both, behavioural and attitudinal aspects under a single scale	(Bolton and Mattila, 2015; Choi and Choi, 2014; Fatma *et al.*, 2015; Im *et al.*, 2012; Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006; Komunda and Osarenkhoe, 2012; Kumar *et al.*, 2013; Menidjel *et al.*, 2017; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001; Nguyen *et al.*, 2015; Rios and Riquelme, 2008)
6	***Separate measurement Behavioural and attitudinal*** Separate measurement Behavioural and attitudinal in the same article	(Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2013; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Kozub *et al.*, 2014; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017)

Overall Brand Equity

The majority (18) of the literature has utilised the scale offered by Yoo *et al.* (2000) to measure overall brand equity. However, the scale was deemed unsuitable because of the following two reasons. Firstly, the items of the scale are too similar to those of the brand loyalty scale. Secondly, the scale does not reflect the aspects of the chosen definition of overall brand equity and does not cover the theoretical domain of overall brand equity.

Other scales focus on the aspects of awareness, quality or leadership in measuring overall brand equity. The current study has adapted the scale offered by Taylor *et al.* (2004). The items of the scale do not overlap with other constructs used in this study such as brand loyalty and perceived quality. Further, the scale is in line with the chosen definition of overall brand equity. One item from the scale was dropped because it measured performance, which is considered an aspect of perceived quality in the current study. Other items were modified slightly to adjust it with the present study.

Table 7.10 Scales of Overall Brand Equity

Overall brand equity		
Count	**Categories**	**Authors**
18	**Preference/Loyalty /** Yoo *et al.* (2000) Scales are adopting or adapting Yoo *et al.* (2000). The scales measuring Overall brand equity based on items similar to measure brand loyalty and preference	(Anselmsson *et al.*, 2016; Arnett *et al.*, 2003; Buil *et al.*, 2013; Delgado-Ballester and Munuera-Alemán, 2005; Dolbec and Chebat, 2013; Garanti and Kissi, 2019; Iglesias *et al.*, 2019; Jamilena *et al.*, 2017; Kao and Lin, 2016; Kumar *et al.*, 2018, 2013; Mohan *et al.*, 2017; Washburn and Plank, 2002; White *et al.*, 2013; Wong *et al.*, 2019; Yoo *et al.*, 2000; Yoo and Donthu, 2001; Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2013)
3	**Awareness /Quality/Leadership** Scales measuring Overall brand equity based on items related to awareness, quality and position	(Anees-ur-Rehman and Johnston, 2019; Baumgarth and Schmidt, 2010; Seggie *et al.*, 2006)
2	**Awareness** Scales measuring Overall brand equity based on items related to awareness	(Fatma *et al.*, 2015; Hsu, 2012)
2	**Loyalty/quality** Scales measuring Overall brand equity based on items related to loyalty and quality	(Brady *et al.*, 2008; Thaler *et al.*, 2018)
1	**Overall strength** The scale measuring Overall Brand equity based on the overall strength of the brand	(Taylor *et al.*, 2004)

Table 7.11 Summary of scales adapted from literature

Construct	Items	Source (Adapted from)	Reliability of the original scale		
			α	CR	AVE
Distributive Justice	The outcome I received was fair	Smith *et al.*, 1999	0.88 - .0.93	-	-
	I got what I deserved				
	In resolving the problem, the restaurant gave me what I needed				
	The outcome I received was right				
Informational Justice	The waiter was open in his communications with me	(Colquitt, 2001)	0.90	-	-
	The waiter explained the procedures thoroughly				
	The explanations of the waiter regarding the procedures were reasonable				
	The waiter seemed to tailor his communications to my specific needs				
	I was pleased with the manner the restaurant dealt with the problem				
Interactional Justice	In dealing with my problem, the waiter treated me in a courteous manner.	Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002	-	0.94	0.77
	During his effort to resolve my problem, the waiter showed a real interest in trying to be fair				
	The waiter got input from me before handling the problem				
	While attempting to fix my problem, the waiter considered my views				
Procedural Justice	I think my problem was resolved in the right way	Vázquez-Casielles, *et al.*, 2010	0.89	0.91	0.68
	I think the restaurant has appropriate policies and practices for dealing with problems				
	Despite the trouble caused by the problem, the restaurant was able to respond adequately				
	The restaurant proved flexible in solving the problem				
	The restaurant tried to solve the problem as quickly as possible				
Perceived Quality	Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is excellent	Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004	>0.75	-	>0.5
	This restaurant is superior to other similar restaurants				
	This restaurant consistently performs better than all other restaurants				
	I can always count on this restaurant for consistent performance				
Perceived Value	What I get from this restaurant is worth the cost	Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004	>0.75	-	>0.5
	All the things considered (price, time and effort), services of this restaurant are a good buy				
	Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is a good value for the money				
	When I use the services of this restaurant, I feel I am getting my money's worth				
	This restaurant is well known		0.73	-	-

Construct	Items	Source (Adapted from)	Reliability of the original scale		
			α	CR	AVE
Brand Reputation	It is one of the leading restaurants	Morgan-Thomas and Veloutsou, 2013			
	It is easily recognizable				
Brand Trust	The restaurant keeps promises it makes to customers	Doney and Cannon, 1997	0.94	-	-
	The restaurant is always honest with me				
	I believe the information that this restaurant provides me				
	When making important decisions, this restaurant considers my welfare as well as its own				
	This restaurant keeps my best interests in mind				
	This restaurant is Honest				
Brand Loyalty	I will continue to stay with this restaurant	Kau and Loh, 2006	0.79	-	-
	I would not change this restaurant service provider in future				
	In the near future, I intend to use more of the services provided by this restaurant				
	I consider myself to be a faithful customer of this restaurant				
Overall Brand Equity	This restaurant is superior to other restaurants	Taylor *et al.*, 2004	0.89	-	-
	The restaurant I am evaluating fits my personality				
	The restaurant I am evaluating is well regarded by my colleagues				
	I have positive personal feelings toward the restaurant I am evaluating				
	After consuming services from the restaurant, I am evaluating, I have grown fond of it				

7.3.2 Development of hypothetical text scenarios

A hypothetical scenario describes an event or sequence of events (Kim and Jang, 2014). A total of 6 hypothetical scenarios were used in this study, representing a 3 (service recovery type: Customer Participation in service recovery vs Firm recovery vs no recovery) x 2 (Service failure severity: high vs low) factorial design. The detailed scenarios are mentioned in Appendix D. In order to depict naturally occurring service failure and recovery episodes within the service industry, major assistance was taken from the qualitative phase to develop hypothetical scenarios. The nature and content of the hypothetical scenario were based on the information gathered from 51 incidents shared by the participants of the qualitative phase. The final versions of the scenarios were finalised after numerous revisions and nine meetings with the two marketing academics. Scenarios contain characteristic elements to shape a story in a way that may seem realistic. Carroll (2000) has mentioned three main characteristic elements, i) setting, ii) Actors or Agents and iii) the Plot.

i) The setting of the scenario

The scenario setting is the most important element because the following elements are selected according to the setting (Carroll, 2000). The current study considers setting as a service firm of a particular service industry. The literature suggested that most studies have utilised Airline (Etemad-Sajadi and Bohrer, 2019; Hogreve *et al.*, 2017; Hwang *et al.*, 2020; Sindhav *et al.*, 2006) and restaurant firms(Abbasi, 2020; Azab and Clark, 2017; Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015; Parsa *et al.*, 2021) as the study setting because of the high frequency and criticality of failures. The qualitative phase provided similar findings regarding the frequency and criticality of service failures in airline and restaurant firms.

The restaurant setting was preferred over the Airline setting because of the following reasons. Firstly, UK customers are automatically covered by the EU law against airline service failures (Citizensadvice, 2019); thus, it was difficult to record customer’s perceptions towards the service recovery provided by the airline companies. Secondly, consumer spending of 88 billion British pounds in restaurants in a single year (Statista, 2019). Thirdly, 83% of people eat out or buy food to take away at least once a month, and 43% do the same at least twice a week (Statista, 2019). These statistics show the significance of this sector, which captures a handsome share from the UK customers' pockets. Fourthly, even though there is a decent consumer expenditure on restaurants and higher visit frequency, more than 1400 restaurants were shut down in the single year of 2018 due to distancing from consumers expectations (Neate, 2019), which signals challenges in the restaurant industry. Finally, restaurants are considered as more applicable in-service recovery research because restaurants are more vulnerable to dissatisfying encounters than other services (Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015).

ii) Actors

The scenario building process considers actors as the imaginative characters depicted in the scenarios who perform certain activities to create a sequence of events (Lindorfer, 2016). The primary actor of the scenario is the person whose perceptions are subject to investigation; therefore reader of the scenario (respondents) was given the role of a restaurant customer. It is typical to include more than one actor in the scenario to develop a naturally looking scenario smoothly. Customers usually have encounters with front line employees who deliver a pleasurable and convenient service experience to the customers (Lucia-Palacios *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, a waiter was introduced as the second actor in the scenario, considered a frontline employee of a restaurant.

iii) Plot

A plot is a combination of "sequences of actions and events, things that actors do, things that happen to them, changes in the circumstances of the setting, and so forth" (Carroll, 2000, p.47). The four main components of the plot in the current scenario are service failure type, the intensity of service failure, failure attribution and nature of the service recovery. Delay in core service (a type of core service delay) was chosen as a service problem in the scenarios. Qualitative findings supported the choice of this service failure type. The majority of the respondents shared incidents where they experienced a delay in the core service and considered it critical. Therefore, a delay in serving food by the restaurant was mentioned in the scenario.

The intensity of service failure and failure attribution are considered two critical factors influencing the relationship between service recovery and customers' evaluation (Abbasi, 2020; Albrecht *et al.*, 2019). Since failure severity is also considered as a factor in the factorial design, it was introduced in the scenarios at two levels, high and low. After scrutiny of the qualitative findings, a 45 minutes delay from the normal serving time (15 minutes) was considered as a high failure severity, whereas a 10 minutes delay from the standard serving time (15minutes) was regarded as low failure severity. On the other hand, failure attribution also plays a vital role in evaluating the firm's response to service recovery. For example, the qualitative findings suggested that 50 out of 51 incidents mentioned that the service firm was solely responsible for the failure. Therefore, to maintain the naturality, failure was attributed to the restaurant by mentioning that the delay was because of the recent change in the food preparation method.

Finally, to conclude the scenario, service recovery was mentioned in the scenario. Service recovery was considered as a factor in the factorial design and aimed to manipulate at three levels, Customer Participation in service recovery, firm recovery and no recovery. Firm recovery may involve a single or a combination of strategies to respond to a service failure. Service recovery literature and qualitative findings suggested that apology and compensation are the most common strategies adopted by service firms((Fang *et al.*, 2013; Odoom *et al.*, 2019; Sharifi *et al.*, 2017; Smith *et al.*, 1999). 'Explanation' (service recovery strategy) was mentioned as an expected response strategy by the informants. Therefore, firm recovery scenarios mentioned that waiter apologised and explained the cause of the failure. Moreover, it was mentioned in the firm recovery scenarios that a complimentary dessert was given as compensation. On the other hand, 'customer participation in service recovery' scenarios mentioned that the customer was involved in the process of the service recovery process by providing information of the failure, discussing his / her requirements with the waiter, filling out a comment card and choosing compensation from two options given by the waiter. Finally, the 'no recovery' scenarios do not contain any such information that describes any service failure remedy.

7.3.2.1 Control via scenarios

The attractiveness of written scenarios is that the researcher can control extraneous factors by explaining the story in detail. Service recovery literature has mentioned that other than service failure severity (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019; Radu *et al.*, 2019; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012), failure attribution is one of the main extraneous factors which may influence the relationship of service recovery and customers' post-recovery outcomes (Abbasi, 2020; Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015; Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, failure attribution was controlled in the scenarios by explicitly mentioning that the failure is attributed to the restaurant. It was also mentioned in the scenario that the restaurant was not busy as it was a weekday so that the readers would not attribute it to external factors. The pre-consumption mood of the customers can also impact the relationships (Yang and Hanks, 2016). It was controlled in the scenario by mentioning that the customer had a long day at work and was feeling hungry (the reader of the scenario).

7.3.3 Structure of the questionnaires

7.3.3.1 Questionnaire for data collection stage 1

The first questionnaire initiated with a welcome note which mentioned: i) a brief about the survey, ii) introduction of the researcher, iii) the average completion time, iv) data protection policy and v) hyperlink for plain language statement (document containing detailed information about the research) to achieve a reasonable response rate (Dillman *et al.*, 2014). The statements related to participating, archiving the data and opting out of the survey were given at the bottom of this first part.

The following part of the questionnaire began by instructing the respondents to think of a middle-range restaurant where they usually visit and then type the restaurant's name. The instructions were the same for all the respondents. After mentioning the instructions, respondents' perceptions of the restaurant were recorded with the help of the chosen scales of overall brand equity and the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity. Four attention filter questions were included in the questionnaire to maintain the data quality (Smith *et al.*, 2016). The attention check questions were: 1) Obama was the first president of the USA, 2) The spellings of the word 'Prolific' starts with the letter 'Z' 3) Please select neither agree nor disagree for this statement 4) It is important that you pay attention to this study, please select 'Strongly Disagree'. The responses of all the items in this section were recorded on a widely used Likert response scale introduced by Likert (1932). The seven-point response option was utilised because it is considered suitable for the precision of measurement (Simms *et al.*, 2019).

The final part of the questionnaire was aimed to record the demographic information of the sample. The demographic information explicitly presents the profile of the respondent. This information is considered key data in a research project because the sample profile assists in evaluating the representation of the population (Bell *et al.*, 2018). The questions included in this section were about the age, gender, occupation, education, employment status, and ethnicity to record the explicit demographic information of the respondents (Hair, Bush, *et al.*, 2006). The question related to the 'length of the stay in the UK' was asked to ensure that the final set of the sample was residing in the UK for more than two years. Demographic information was collected at the end of the survey to engage respondents in the survey, build rapport and prevent unnecessary interruptions triggered by personal questions (Lavrakas, 2008). See Appendix C for a detailed version of the questionnaire.

7.3.3.2 Questionnaire for data collection stage 2

The second questionnaire was a scenario-based questionnaire. It consisted of four sections. The first section of the scenario-based questionnaire began with a welcome note. In this section, the respondents were briefed about the nature of the study. It was mentioned that this was the second part of the study. Further, the average completion time, data protection policy and hyperlink to the plain language statement were given. The options of giving consent or discontinuing the survey were given at the end of this section as per the guidelines of the University's ethics committee.

The second section of the scenario-based questionnaire consisted of six hypothetical scenarios. Each respondent was exposed to one of the six hypothetical scenarios randomly. The manipulations in the scenarios had a 3 X 2 combination, which made a total of six different scenarios. Table 7.12 represents the 3 x 2 combination. Respondents were randomly assigned to one of the six hypothetical scenarios to avoid selection bias and control for the lurking variables (Bulpitt, 1996; Cox, 2009). Before exposing to one of the scenarios, every respondent was shown a page of important points. The instructions were: to read the upcoming hypothetical scenario by considering themselves in the scenario, to consider the same restaurant in mind while reading the scenario which they entered in the first questionnaire. The restaurant name which they entered in the first questionnaire was reminded exclusively to each respondent. This was done through the piped text option available in Qualtrics.

Table 7.12 Factorial design

	Service Failure Severity (Low)	Service Failure Severity (High)
Service Recovery (Customer participation in service recovery)	**(1)**	**(2)**
Service Recovery (Firm recovery)	**(3)**	**(4)**
No Service Recovery	**(5)**	**(6)**

The last three sections of the questionnaire aimed to measure the assessment of the service brand and evaluate the service recovery efforts mentioned in the scenarios. For example, in the third section, respondents were asked to assess the brand considering that the incident mentioned in the scenario had happened with them in real. The assessment of the service restaurant was measured with the help of overall brand equity and dimensions of consumer-based brand equity scales. Finally, the fourth section recorded the evaluation of service recovery by measuring perceived justice. Perceived justice was measured with the help of its four dimensions, Distributive justice, Interactional Justice, Procedural Justice and Informational Justice (See Appendix D)

7.4 Pre-testing and pilot testing

7.4.1 Pre-test

A pre-test is a preliminary examination of the survey tool to ensure that the tool will perform as a valid and reliable instrument in the actual study (Converse and Presser, 1986). The participants were rewarded £0.40 for participating pre-test, which involved the manipulation checks. The actual average completion time of this questionnaire was recorded as 2 minutes, making an hourly rate of £9.

The purpose of pre-tests in the current study was twofold: Firstly, to undertake the ***manipulation checks*** for the included manipulations. Manipulation checks are necessary for experimental studies, and the exclusion of manipulation checks in an experimental study is considered a significant flaw in the methodology (Hauser *et al.*, 2018). Manipulation checks were undertaken to confirm that the respondents perceived the manipulations of service recovery (Customer participation in service recovery, Firm recovery and no recovery) and service failure severity (High severity and low severity) as intended.

The manipulation check items for service recovery were: i) I was given the opportunity to participate in the resolution process by choosing compensation type between options, ii) I participated in the resolution process by discussing my requirements in detail with the waiter, iii) I participated in the resolution process by filling out a comment card during the resolution process, iv) I did not participate in the resolution of the problem other than asking the waiter about the reason for the delay, v) The firm itself provided the compensation without my input, vi) The firm did not apologise for the delay in service, vii) The firm did not provide compensation for the delay of service. There were four manipulation check items for service failure severity adapted from Roschk and Kaiser (2013). The items are as follows: i) The occurred problem for you as a customer is significant, ii) The occurred problem for you as a customer causes a lot of inconvenience, iii) The occurred problem for you as a customer is serious, iv) The occurred problem for you as a customer is a major problem.

Secondly, pre-tests were conducted to check the ***realism*** of hypothetical scenarios. ***Realism checks*** in an experiment to ensure ecological validity (Kim *et al.*, 2012). The realism of the scenarios was measured with the items adapted from McColl-Kennedy *et al.* (2003), . i) The incident described in the scenario was likely to occur in real life, ii) The incident described in the scenario was likely to occur in real life.) on a 7-point Likert scale (1= extremely disagree -7 = extremely agree).

The process of pre-testing the instrument was iterative as recommended by (Converse and Presser, 1986). A total of three pre-tests were conducted with small samples to ensure that manipulations would work as intended and scenarios are closer to reality. The manipulations check for service failure severity did not work as expected in the first two attempts of the pre-tests. The results of an experimental study are considered misleading if the manipulation checks don’t work as expected (Hauser *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, corrective actions were undertaken after each pre-test until the results of manipulations came as expected. The corrective actions were taken after the consultation with three marketing academics. Table 7.13 details the process of pre-tests and the corrective actions.

Table 7.13 The process of Pre-tests and corrective actions

Pre-test	Results		Problems	Corrective action
	Realism Check	Manipulation check		
Pre-test Attempt-1 90	All scenarios were perceived to happen in reality. Mean values of all scenarios > 4 (exceeded mid-point)	**Service Failure Severity** *There was no statistical difference between service failure severity (low) and Service failure severity (High) Scenarios.* **All other manipulation checks worked as intended**	Service failure Severity Manipulation was unsuccessful in Scenarios with Low severity. Respondents perceived high severity failures in all scenarios	Manipulation Items for Service Failure Severity were revised Also Added a rating scale item to measure the severity
Pre-test Attempt-2 90	All scenarios were perceived to happen in reality. Mean values of all scenarios > 4 (exceeded mid-point)	**Service Failure Severity** *There was no statistical difference between service failure severity (low) and Service failure severity (High) Scenarios.* **All other manipulation checks worked as intended**	Service failure Severity Manipulation was unsuccessful in Scenarios with Low severity. Respondents perceived high severity failures in all scenarios	Revised the Scenarios. The type of service failure was changed. The problem in core service was replaced with a delay in core service. Because ***the problem of overcooked food was perceived as high severity failure in all scenarios, it was replaced with a Delay of serving time. Benchmark serving time was also mentioned).***
Pre-test Attempt -3 Actual 90	Mean values of all scenarios > 4. (exceeded mid-point)	**All manipulation checks worked as intended**	No problem occurred	No corrective action taken

7.4.2 Pilot test

The pilot tests are conducted before actual data collection to identify and eliminate potential issues in the data collection instrument (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). The success of the questions asked in the survey can only be evaluated with the help of piloting the survey (Bell and Waters, 2014). The pilot test was carried out in January 2020. The pilot study instrument was designed on Qualtrics, and a web link was generated to share with the potential participants. A convenient sample of participants was recruited via Prolific Academic (ProA), a crowdsourcing platform. According to the study's design, the data was collected in two stages with two different questionnaires. The participants were rewarded £0.40 for the first questionnaire and £1 for the scenario-based questionnaire.

The recommendations regarding the sample size for the pilot study vary in the literature. For example, Fink (2015) suggested that suitable sample size for a pilot study should not fall below 10. Similarly, Hill (1998) recommended that anything between 10 to 30 responses (as a final sample size for a pilot study) is deemed appropriate. Browne (1995) claimed that the sample size should be 30 or greater for a meaningful analysis. According to Johanson and Brooks (2010) good sample size is between 24 to 36. However, they mentioned that at least N=12 per group is recommended where more than one groups are under investigation. Therefore, to gain a meaningful statistical analysis, 120 participants were recruited. The analysis for the pilot study was done on a final sample of 108 (18 per group) because 10 participants did not participate in the second phase of the data collection, and 2 participants did not pass the filter questions.

The preliminary analysis included the reliability tests of the adapted scales. Along with the reliability analysis, the researcher was able to identify the total time spent on the questionnaires. The identification of the time spent in filling the questionnaires assisted the researcher to a) mention an approximate completion time for the actual survey, b) allocate a reasonable reward for the respondents for actual data collection. Since this study involved two stages of data collection from the same respondents, the retention rate was crucial (Teague *et al.*, 2018). The pilot study suggested that there is a retention rate of 90% for the sample.

7.5 Data Collection

In order to achieve the fourth objective of this study which was to identify the occurrence of the service recovery paradox for the dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate, the data collection was undertaken in two stages. The identification of the service recovery paradox was only possible if the data were collected at two different time intervals from the same respondents (see Gohary *et al.*, 2016; Ok *et al.*, 2007). For this purpose, a longitudinal design was deemed appropriate.

The first stage of the quantitative data collection was regarded as the pre-failure and recovery stage in which the respondents were not exposed to the 'service failure and recovery' scenarios. The objective of the first stage was to measure the baseline of the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process (without being manipulated). The questionnaire was launched in the pre-treatment stage, where respondents were not exposed to manipulated stimuli (Malhotra and Birks, 2007).

The second stage of the quantitative data collection was regarded as the post-recovery stage, which was undertaken to measure the post-failure and recovery ratings of dimensions of CBBE after respondents were exposed randomly to the manipulations. Further, it measured perceived justice and overall brand equity. Responses from the same respondents as of the first stage were recorded. The execution of data collection through two different questionnaires at two different time points was undertaken to eliminate the factor of respondent fatigue (Ben-Nun, 2008; Hochheimer *et al.*, 2016). The structure of the questionnaires is detailed in section 7.5.3.

7.5.1 Administration of the questionnaires

An ethical approval from the ethics committee was obtained before administering the questionnaires (application no. 400180275). The questionnaires were administered on Qualtrics, an online service to administer surveys, publish them online via a weblink, and store the responses for the quantitative analysis (Barnhoorn *et al.*, 2015). Qualtrics was chosen to administer the questionnaires because of four main reasons. Firstly, Qualtrics only required basic knowledge and expertise to administer online surveys. Secondly, the user-friendly nature of the service allowed the researcher to invest minimal effort and time to administer and publish the questionnaires (Molnar, 2019). Thirdly, and most importantly, Qualtrics is known for creating experiments that involve randomisation (Mutter *et al.*, 2020). In the survey flow option, the researcher utilised the ‘randomizer’ element to expose respondents to one of the six treatments randomly. Finally, Qualtrics creates a dedicated web link for the questionnaires, distributed electronically via email, social media or any other suitable crowdsourcing platform.

A crowdsourcing platform was utilised to recruit respondents for participation in the research study. Crowdsourcing platforms have become more common among academic researchers in recent years (Hogreve *et al.*, 2019; Palan and Schitter, 2018; Papen *et al.*, 2020). According to Wright and Goodman (2019), over 15000 peer-reviewed articles have utilised crowdsourcing platforms to recruit participants in the past ten years. These platforms allow researchers to recruit participants at any point in time against monetary compensation (Goodman and Paolacci, 2017). Several advantages of crowdsourcing platforms over other mediums is documented in the literature. For example, four major advantages over traditional recruitment methods are 1) more representative sample of the population than a student pool from universities (Paolacci and Chandler, 2014) 2) the recruitment of the sample is quicker (Buhrmester *et al.*, 2018), 3) recruitment of participants is cost-effective (Goodman and Paolacci, 2017), 4) the data collected through crowdsourcing platforms is of better quality and more reliable than traditional data collection mediums (Kees *et al.*, 2017).

Researchers utilise crowdsourcing platforms to recruit participants.The current research study has utilised Prolific Academic (ProA) to recruit participants. ProA is an online crowdsourcing platform that caters to academic researchers to recruit participants for their research against cash incentives (Palan and Schitter, 2018). ProA was preferred over other crowdsourcing platforms. Firstly, the pre-screening options in ProA allowed the researcher to only invite the participants with preferred demographic requirements, such as participants over the age of 18 and must be UK residents. The condition for participants to be residents of the UK was set because the qualitative study sample was from the UK, and a quantitative study was designed based on the findings of the qualitative study. The researcher also restricted the participants who already participated in the pre-tests or in the main study to enhance credibility (Goodman and Paolacci, 2017). Secondly, the data quality of ProA is considered better than CrowdFlower and not significantly different from MTurk (Peer *et al.*, 2017). In order to enhance the data quality, a pre-screened of participants having a 99% and above approval rate was enabled. Thirdly, ProA is better at recruiting participants from the UK because most ProA participants are from the UK (Goodman and Paolacci, 2017; Prolific, 2020a). Fourthly, the participants on ProA are more honest and naïve (Peer *et al.*, 2017). ProA does not contain the problem of super-worker, as is the case in MTurk, where 5% of the MTurk workers fill in 40% of the surveys (Prolific, 2020b; Robinson *et al.*, 2019). Finally, ProA is flexible in conducting studies with more than one data collection phase from the same sample of participants.

The execution of surveys started by launching the survey link provided by Qualtrics on the ProA platform. ProA demands the researchers to include a brief description of the study on the launching/invitation page. The description included the information related to the type of the study, estimated duration and payment. It was mentioned in the first questionnaire that the study comprised of two parts, and only those respondents would be invited for the second part who complete the first part successfully. It was mentioned that the study includes filters to ensure that questions are not answered randomly. The respondents were clarified with the terms of payment before they opted in for the survey. The data of the first phase was completed in two days. After the completion of the first stage, the responses were scrutinised to check the quality of the data. Firstly, the responses to the attention check questions were analysed to ensure that participants had paid attention while filling out the survey. The data of the respondents who answered the attention checks wrongly was excluded from the final analysis. Secondly, the data of the participants living in the UK for less than two years were excluded from the final analysis. The exclusion was done to ensure the quality of the data related to the population representation.

The second stage of the data collection was launched the next day after completing the first stage. Participants who completed the first phase were invited to participate in the second stage. The participants were briefed about the second stage before they opted in for the survey. A unique web survey link was generated for the respondents, which carried some of their responses (the restaurant name they entered) from the first stage. This was done to maintain the link between the two parts of the study through Qualtrics.

The surveys' participants were rewarded more than the enforced minimum hourly reward of 5.00 GBP set by ProA (Prolific, 2019a). Lower rewards decrease the attractiveness of the study, and respondents quit halfway or at the start (Horton *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand, overcompensation may diminish data quality by attracting scammers (Bohannon, 2011). The researcher attempted to set an optimal spot for the payment to maintain the data quality (Oppenlaender *et al.*, 2020). Different rate of rewards was set for the two phases of data collection. The first phase of the data collection took place in the first week of January 2020. The average completion time recorded was 3 minutes, and participants were rewarded £0.45. The second phase of the data collection was also carried out in the first week of January 2020. The average completion time was approximately 9 minutes, and respondents were paid £1.15. The studies having more than one data collection stage from the same respondents often face the problem of retention (Teague *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, the reward for the second stage of the study was considerably higher than the first phase (Capaldi and Patterson, 1987).

7.6 Sampling

Sampling is selecting a group of participants from a larger group of participants, which is commonly referred to as population (Bell *et al.*, 2018). The population is the full set of cases or elements grouped by some common characteristic (Hair, Bush, *et al.*, 2006). Investigating the research problem by utilising all the target population members is called the census (Hair, Bush, *et al.*, 2006). The population considered for the current study were all the restaurant-goers living in the UK. Therefore, it was impracticable for the researcher to do the census due to the budget and time constraints (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). On the other hand, the overall accuracy of the results is expected when sampling is utilised instead of the census (Barnett, 2002). Collecting data from a smaller group let the researchers screen the data in detail and perform pilot or pre-testing before the final analysis to increase the accuracy (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Hence, the current study has utilised a sample drawn from the population for the analysis.

Several methods of drawing a sample from the population are grouped under two primary techniques: probability and non-probability sampling (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). Probability sampling is a process of random selection where every individual or unit holds an equal and known chance of being selected (Bell *et al.*, 2018). On the other hand, non-probability sampling is based on non-random selection, where the chance of selection is not equal or known (Hair, Bush, *et al.*, 2006). The pre-requisite of probability sampling is a sampling frame, a complete list of all the individuals (cases) of the population from which the sample is drawn (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). However, an existing sampling frame is equipped with problems of inaccuracy, incompleteness, and dated information and creating a sampling frame requires cost and time (Edwards *et al.*, 2007). Considering the factors of time and cost, it was not possible for the researcher to gain the sampling frame of the population. Further, the conditions where census or attaining the sampling frame is difficult, a non-probability technique is suitable (Malhotra *et al.*, 1996). Therefore, a non-probability convenience sampling technique was utilised to draw the sample from the target population.

Several types of convenience samples (such as student samples, professional panels, online panels and crowdsourcing panels) are widely used in marketing research and considered appropriate (Kees *et al.*, 2017; Zikmund *et al.*, 2017). Convenience samples are easy to obtain and are less costly (except professional panel data) than obtaining other kinds of samples (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Although convenience samples (specifically student samples) are often criticised because these samples lack external validity, crowdsourcing panels overcome this problem by obtaining a diverse convenience sample (Kees *et al.*, 2017). There are over 100,000 participants available on ProA having diverse nationalities, age groups, ethnicities, employment statuses and education levels (Palan and Schitter, 2018; Prolific, 2019b) a). Further, the majority (61.52%) of the participants available on ProA are non-student. Therefore, the ProA crowdsourcing platform was considered appropriate to obtain a diverse convenience sample.

The determination of a suitable sample size for non-probability samples does not rely on specific formulas, as in the case with probability samples. The sample size is determined according to the resources in hand, or it relies on the institutive judgement of the researcher or rules of thumb proclaimed by researchers (Hair and

Lukas, 2014). Researchers have suggested different minimum sample sizes to get a meaningful statistical inference in the literature. For example, Gorsuch (1983) suggested that a minimum of 100 cases should be utilised while performing factor analysis. Similarly, Kline (2015) recommended that N be at least 100 to obtain meaningful results from statistical analysis. On the other hand, according to Comrey and Lee (1992), a sample size of 100 is poor, and a sample size of 1000 or more is considered excellent. Alternative notion selects sample size through the ratio of cases per item of the questionnaire. For instance, Everitt (1975) suggested a ratio of 10 cases per item of the questionnaire, whereas, according to Gorsuch 1983 sample size should be determined based on the ratio of 5 cases per item. The current study has adopted the approach of 5 cases per item and utilised a final sample of 322 responses for the analysis after data screening. The first stage of the data collection recorded 334responses. The same respondents were contacted in the second stage. However, 4% of the respondents did not responded the second stage. Therefore, 12 responses were excluded from the final sample size which is 322 respondents.

The demographic profile of the final sample is presented in table 7.14. The table includes information about age, gender, income, occupation, ethnicity, and the length of the stay of individuals in the UK.

Table 7.14 Sample Profile

Category	Stage -1 (n=334)		Stage -2 (n=322 (334-12))	
	Count	%	Count	%
Gender				
Male	117	34	113	35
Female	217	64	209	65
Age				
18-24	55	16	54	16
25-34	115	34	112	34
35-44	86	25	82	25
45-54	50	15	48	16
55-64	23	7	21	7
65-75	5	2	5	2
Ethnicity				
Asian / Asian British	30	9	28	9
Black / African / Caribbean / Black British	12	4	12	4
Mixed / multiple ethnic groups	8	2	8	2
Other ethnic group	3	1	3	1
White	281	83	271	84
Education				
High School,	60	18	59	18
Technical /Vocational Training	28	8	28	9
Professional Qualification /Diploma	40	12	36	11
Undergraduate	135	40	129	40
Postgraduate	68	20	67	21
Other	3	1	3	1
Occupation				
Student	39	12	38	12
Self-employed	26	8	26	8
Working part-time	62	18	58	18
Working full-time	156	47	151	47
Out for work but looking for a Job	18	5	18	6
Out for work but not looking for a Job	13	4	13	4
Retired	8	2	8	2
Other	12	4	10	3
Income				
Under £ 10000	32	9	32	10
£10,000 - £19,999	56	17	54	17
£20,000 - £29,999	62	18	62	19
£30,000 - £39,999	52	15	50	16
£40,000 - £49,999	43	13	40	12
£50,000 - £59,999	43	13	41	13
£60,000 or over	46	13	43	13
Stay in the UK				
2 to 5 years	3	1	3	1
5 to 10 years	11	3	11	3
More than 10 years	35	10	33	10
Since Birth	285	85	275	85

The characteristics of the final sample (Stage -2) illustrated in table 7.14 suggest that the majority of the respondents were female (65%). The dominant age group of the respondents in the sample was 25-34, which constituted 34% and is followed by the age group of 35-44, which represented 25% of the sample. As expected, the largest ethnic group was 'white' because the majority of the people living in the UK have a White ethnic background (Statista, 2020). Over 60% of the sample has a minimum of undergraduate-level education. Almost half (47%) of the participants were working full-time, and the second majority were working part-time (18%). 46% of the participants have an income of less than £40,000, whereas the rest are earning more than £40,000 annually. The majority (19%) of the participants were in the bracket of £20,000 - £29,999. As required and expected, most participants (86%) were residing in the UK since birth. The participants living in the UK for less than two years were screened out before the final analysis.

7.7 Data screening and Data quality

The examination of the data before any analysis is essential to obtain accurate results (Hair *et al.*, 2014). Data screening allows the researcher to ensure that the data is not erroneous, incomplete and unsuitable for quantitative analysis (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999). The researchers usually overlook data examination. The compromised effort and time are devoted to the analysis; however, the time and effort spent at this stage is an investment to gain accurate results. Therefore, this section involves the common issues related to data screening and data quality checks, examining the data for the erroneous entries, identifying missing data, identifying the outliers, issues related to the normality of the data, multicollinearity, assessment of common method variance and assessment of non-response bias.

The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) data file was downloaded from Qualtrics. The file was thoroughly examined to see if the data has any erroneous entries. The labelling of the variables was modified as per the convenience of the researcher. There was no missing data in the SPSS file because the Qualtrics survey design did not allow the respondents to continue unless they answered all the questions on a particular page (Qualtrics, 2020). The respondents were also briefed that only the fully completed questionnaires will be approved and rewarded. The participants who did not respond to the second questionnaire were screened out because paired sample t-test required the data from stages. 4 % of the participants did not fill in the second questionnaire.

The next step was to deal with the issue of outliers in the data. The presence of outliers in large quantities can distort the interpretations and cause inaccurate results (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). The presence of univariate (differences on one variable) and multivariate (differences on two or more than two variables) was examined before the analysis of the data (Hair *et al.*, 2014). The detection of univariate outliers was done by calculating and assessing the standardised Z-values. Hair *et al.* (2014) suggested that if the z -value exceeds ± 2.5, it should be treated as an outlier. On the other hand, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggested that values greater than 3.29 should be treated as outliers. According to the suggested ranges, very few univariate outliers were detected in the data, but most values fell under the recommended range, as indicated by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013). Additionally, box plots were utilised to detect univariate outliers and the analysis detected few outliers in the data. Multivariate outliers were addressed with the help of the Mahalanobis D^2 measure. Although this method provides an overall assessment, it assists the researcher to determine the multidimensional position of all the variables relative to a mean (Hair *et al.*, 2014). The recommended value for the observations to be called an outlier is below 0.001 significance level (Prykhodko *et al.*, 2018). The current data showed only 1 % of the observations, which were less than the threshold value. Hair *et al.* (2014) suggested that outliers must be kept in the data if they are in a very small number and represent the population. The utilisation of pre-screeners increased the probability that participants would represent the target population. Therefore, the researcher decided to keep the outliers in the data for the final analysis.

The third step in the data screening was to examine the normality of the collected data. Normality or Normal distribution of the data means that the values of the variables are clustered around a central value and make a symmetrical pattern, commonly known as a bell-shaped curve (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). Following Hair *et al.* (2014) recommendations, the assumption of normality was assessed by utilising skewness and kurtosis statistics. According to Fabrigar *et al.* (1999), the data is normally distributed if the values lie within the range of ± 2 for skewness and ± 7 for kurtosis. Appendix E shows that all the values lie within the recommended range; hence the data is normally distributed.

The fourth check was of the multicollinearity shown if there are high correlations among constructs (Grewal *et al.*, 2004). An assessment of squared multiple correlations was undertaken, showing that all the values of squared multiple correlations were lower than 1.0. Thus, multicollinearity was not an issue in the data. Variance inflation factor (VIF) can also help in detecting multicollinearity (Thompson *et al.*, 2017). VIF value exceeding 10 indicates the existence of multicollinearity in data (Lin, 2008; Miles, 2005). Similarly, multicollinearity can also be detected by examining the tolerance value (Thompson *et al.*, 2017). A tolerance value less than 0.1 indicates the existence of multicollinearity (Miles, 2005). In this study, VIF statistics and tolerance values were calculated using linear regression analysis with focal constructs as the independent variables and a random dependent variable. The result showed that the tolerance values were greater than 0.1. Similarly, VIFs were less than 10, which showed an absence of multicollinearity in the data (Lin, 2008).

The fifth step was the assessment of common method variance (CMV). Common method variance (CMV/ common method bias) has been extensively discussed in the literature (Bagozzi, Yi and Phillips, 1991; Hair, Black, *et al.*, 2006; Harman, 1976). This is because CMV can result in systematic measurement errors (Chang et al., 2010) and thus can have a negative influence on the findings of a study (Craighead et al., 2011). According to Fuller et al. (2016), it is important to control for the existence of CMV to ensure the validity of research findings.

In the current study, Podsakoff et al.'s (2003) measures of controlling CMV were followed to ensure the absence of CMV. Firstly, measured variables were worded in a way not to enhance socially desirable responses. Secondly, the online survey also assisted in reducing the social desirability bias. Thirdly, vague and ambiguous terms, double-barrelled items, and complicated words were avoided in the research instrument. Fourth, items were sequenced in a way not to imply causal relationships between different constructs. Fifth, all respondents were ensured anonymity by not collecting their personal information. Similarly, respondents were told that there were no wrong or right responses to the questions. Finally, items were not directing answers in a certain way by giving hidden cues to select an answer and were not ambiguous. CMV can inflate the internal consistency among the variables by enhancing the correlations (Chang et al., 2010). One way to assess the CMV is

Harman’s Single Factor Test (Malhotra et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2003). In this procedure, all the items are run through exploratory factor analysis by assuming that a single factor will emerge from an unrotated factor solution which will account for the majority of the variance (Malhotra et al., 2006). In this study, CMV was examined by running a single-factor exploratory factor analysis for all six conditions separately. Principal axis factoring was used to extract the unrotated factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The number of factors to be extracted was set to 1 (Malhotra et al., 2006). The result showed that CMV did not exist in all six conditions as the first factor accounted for a total variance of 39.22% for the first condition, 43.39% for the second condition, 34.32% for the third condition, 40.92% for the fourth condition, 37.40% for the fifth condition, and 36.89% for the sixth condition.

Another way CMV can be ruled out in the data is by ensuring the construct validity of the measures (Conway and Lance, 2010). In other words, achieving the satisfactory level of internal consistency of measures, factor loadings, convergent and discriminant validity can rule out substantial method effects (Feldt and Brennan, 1989; Messick, 1989). The result of the assessment of the measurement model shows that all criteria of construct validity were achieved, including factor loadings, internal consistency of measures, convergent validity, and discriminant validity, thus showing that CMV did not exist in this study (See Chapter 8 for details).

Finally, scholars must ensure the generalisability of the research (Mentzer, 2008). One way to ensure that the research sample represents the population of interest is the absence of non-response bias (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). Researchers must assess the non-response bias to show the robustness of the sampling procedure used in the study (Clottey and Grawe, 2014). Non-response bias results from the respondents who answer a survey being different from members of the population who did not answer, in a way relevant to the research (Dillman, 2007).

One way to examine the non-response bias is to compare the early and late respondents, assuming that the respondents who answered the survey later should represent the characteristics of non-respondents (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). However, studies have strongly criticised such assessment of non-response bias and have strongly warned against using this procedure. To illustrate, Curtin et al. (2005) assert that non-response bias results from a respondent refusal to answer the survey rather than the researcher's ability to reach the respondent. Similarly, Hulland et al. (2018) the comparison of early and late respondents would not provide relevant information that may allay the concerns related to non-response bias.

The identification of careless respondents is recommended with the help of employing strict methods such as including attention checks in the surveys (Abbey and Meloy, 2017; Van Dam *et al.*, 2010). The incorrect answers to the attention checks show that the respondent(s) is(are) not paying attention. The inclusion of these responses will increase the chances of systematic error and should be removed from the data set (Hulland *et al.*, 2018). Hence the same technique was utilised in this research project.

7.8 Approach to data analysis

Manipulation and realism check analysis was performed before performing the main data analysis on the data collected from the pre-test. Firstly, descriptive statistics were carried out for a realism check of six hypothetical scenarios. The threshold Mean value was set as 3.5 because the responses were recorded on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree -7 strongly disagree). Similarly, the means of manipulation items for every treatment group were calculated. The manipulation checks were considered successful if the mean values exceeded the threshold value of 3.5. Additionally, an independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were carried out to confirm the manipulation checks of service failure severity and service recovery, respectively. An independent sample t-test was performed for the manipulation check of service failure severity because it contained two independent levels (Low and High). A one-way ANOVA is conducted to examine the differences in the means between two or more groups (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Service recovery had three independent levels (Customer participation in service recovery, Firm recovery, no recovery); therefore, one-way ANOVA was deemed suitable to check the manipulation for service recovery.

Different data analysis approaches were undertaken for the main analysis of the current study. Firstly, Paired sample t-test was chosen to test the hypotheses 21 - 24. A Paired sample t-test is utilised to compare the mean differences of two sets of responses collected from the same set of respondents at different time intervals (Malhotra and Birks, 2007). According to Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch

(2000), paired sample t-test is most appropriate if the data is collected twice from the same group of respondents and is measured on an interval or ratio scale. In order to identify the vulnerability dimensions of CBBE due to a service failure recovery process, the data was collected twice (before and after the manipulations were exposed) from the same group of respondents.

Secondly, Factorial ANOVAs were undertaken to test the hypotheses 1 to 7 and Hypothesis 14-20. ANOVA is the Analysis of variance utilised when the investigation requires the mean difference of three or more groups (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). The current study requires investigating the difference between six different groups as described above in Table 7.12. ANOVA is appropriate when the study includes multiple independent variables, whereas factorial ANOVA is when at least two independent variables have more than one level (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). This research includes service recovery and service failure severity as two factors having more than one level. Factorial ANOVA is common in experimental studies. Specifically, the studies related to service recovery have used this technique extensively (Busser and Shulga, 2019; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Jin *et al.*, 2019). Considering the viability and usage in service recovery literature, Factorial ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses.

Finally, Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the relationships illustrated in figure 6.1 (see chapter 6). SEM is a well-known technique utilised in service and branding literature to examine the relationships of multiple independent and multiple dependant variables (Guzmán and Davis, 2017; Sarkar and Bhattacharjee, 2017; Shams *et al.*, 2020; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019). The current study aimed to test the relationships between multiple dependant and independent variables simultaneously, and SEM is considered suitable to perform the required nature of analysis (Menidjel *et al.*, 2017). Further, the mediation hypotheses 8-13, are carried out through SEM because it handles the complex mediation hypotheses in a single analysis (MacKinnon, 2008). Therefore, SEM was deemed appropriate to test the final set of hypotheses.

There are two types of SEM commonly used by social science researchers, Covariance-Based SEM (CB-SEM) and Partial-Least Square SEM (PLS-SEM) (Sarstedt *et al.*, 2016). The current study utilised PLS-SEM to test the hypotheses.

In social science research, CB-SEM is more prevalent than PLS-SEM, but the latter is considered as an alternative to the former in achieving the same objectives with some advantages (Rigdon *et al.*, 2017). According to Reinartz *et al.* (2009), if the sample size is small, PLS-SEM produces more accurate statistical analysis than CB-SEM. Similarly, Sarstedt *et al.* (2016) suggest that the bias is low in PLS-SEM when the sample size is small. On the other hand, some scholars criticise PLS-SEM for its accuracy and richness in rigour. For example, Goodhue *et al.* (2012) and Dijkstra and Henseler (2015) describe that PLS-SEM holds lesser statistical power and lower accuracy of results than CB-SEM regardless of the size of the sample under investigation. However, Hair *et al.* (2011) viewed these criticisms as unfortunate and short-sighted. According to Hair *et al.* (2016), PLS-SEM is a liberal technique that can provide more robust results of the structural model; whereas CB-SEM is a conservative technique that cannot provide robust estimations if the required assumptions (such as multivariate normality of data and minimum sample size) are not met.

Additionally, PLS-SEM is considered a preferred approach among marketing researchers in recent years (Bacile *et al.*, 2020; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Wiedmann *et al.*, 2018). Specifically, PLS-SEM is preferred over CB-SEM in studies that adopt experimental designs (Cantor and Li, 2019; Crisafulli and Singh, 2016; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Jerger and Wirtz, 2017). The reason for the preference is that experimental data does not usually meet CB-SEM assumptions (Hazée *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, the analysis of experimental data is more simplified in PLS-SEM than CB-SEM (Bagozzi, Yi and Singh, 1991). Therefore, PLS-SEM was preferred over CB-SEM, and SMART PLS 3.0 software was utilised for the current analysis (Ringle *et al.*, 2015).

The evaluation of PLS-SEM model analysis is recommended according to the procedures specifically designed for PLS-SEM (Shmueli *et al.*, 2016). The current study followed the guidelines provided by Hair *et al.* (2019) while using PLS-SEM. According to them, the evaluation of PLS-SEM model analysis goes through a two-stage process, i) measurement model assessment and ii) structural model assessment. The fulfilment of measurement model assessment criteria is a pre-requisite to structural model assessment (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, measurement model assessment was assessed before structural model assessment.

A three-step procedure was carried out for measurement model assessment. Factor loadings were calculated as the first step in measurement model assessment. After assessing factor loadings, the researcher examined internal consistency reliability by examining composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha (α). As the third step of measurement model assessment, construct validity was evaluated by examining convergent and discriminant validity proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Discriminant validity was also assessed using the heterotrait–monotrait correlations ratio (HTMT) (Hair *et al.*, 2019). The metric utilised for assessing convergent validity was average variance extract (AVE) for all the items involved in the model. Finally, discriminant validity was assessed to identify the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs in the model (Hair *et al.*, 2014).

Table 7.15 Summary of analysis techniques

Stage	Activity	Purpose	Analysis approach
Pre-tests	Manipulation Checks and Realism check	i) To test whether the manipulations are perceived as intended ii) to test whether the hypothetical scenarios are perceived as real by the respondents	Descriptive statistics Independent sample t-test One-way ANOVA
Main study Analysis	Hypothesis testing 1 to 7 and 14-20	To test the impact of service recovery on perceived justice, CBBE and its dimensions	Factorial ANOVA
	Hypothesis testing 8 to 13	Mediation analysis	PLS-SEM
	Hypothesis testing 21-24	The identification of service recovery paradox	Paired sample t-tests

The structural model was assessed after ensuring satisfactory results of the measurement model assessment. However, before applying the standard criteria for assessing the structural model, collinearity among the constructs was examined to ensure that regression results are free of bias (Shmueli *et al.*, 2019). The current research followed the three-step criteria to examine the structural model, which included "the coefficient of determination (R^2), the blindfolding-based cross-validated redundancy measure Q2 and the statistical significance and relevance of the path coefficients" as suggested by (Hair *et al.*, 2019, p.11). Finally, the model fit was not assessed because there is no suitable measure for the goodness of model fit in PLS-SEM (Hair *et al.*, 2011). PLS does not produce a covariance reproduced matrix as in the case with AMOS, hence fit indexes are not produced (Londoño *et al.*, 2016). A detailed analysis process with results is described in the next section of the thesis.

7.9 Summary

This chapter detailed the second phase, quantitative of the exploratory mixed-method design. The current study adopted one-group pretest-posttest design from pre-experimental designs and adopted factorial designs from statistical experimental designs. Two different questionnaires were developed, the first questionnaire was developed to measure dimensions of CBBE before the respondents were exposed to the experimental manipulations. The second questionnaire was a scenario-based questionnaire that measured post-recovery ratings of dimensions of CBBE, overall brand equity, and perceived justice.

The development of the questionnaires included the explanation of the selection of the measures with justification. The structure of the first questionnaire consists of three sections. The second questionnaire contains four sections. Hypothetical scenarios are presented before the constructs which are measured via chosen scales.

The data collection carried out at two different time points to achive the objective of identification of service recovery paradox and to reduce respondent fatigue. The questionnaires were designed on Qualtrics and hosted on ProA. A total of 322 was selected as a final sample after data screening. The characteristics of the sample are also presented in this chapter.

The latter part of the chapter explains the preparation of the data for the analysis. Data screening methods were implied to prepare the data for the analysis. Firstly, univariate and multivariate outliers were identified. Secondly, the normality of the data was assessed using skewness and kurtosis statistics. The final section of the chapter explained the methodology implied for the analysis of the quantitative data. Descriptive statistics, independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA were used for manipulation and realism checks. Whereas, Paired sample t-test, Factorial ANOVA and PLS-SEM techniques were utilised to test the hypotheses.

Chapter 8 Hypothesis Testing

8.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the pre-test and the results produced by the hypothesis testing. Firstly, the results of pre-tests which include findings of realism and manipulation checks, are described. It is followed by the assessment of the measurement model. Next, the hypothesis testing results are demonstrated in three different sections. The first section shows the hypotheses results, which are produced using factorial ANOVAs. The second section demonstrates the mediation hypothesis results generated with the help of PLS-SEM. The third section of hypothesis testing includes the results of hypotheses produced via paired sample t-tests related to investigating the occurrence of the service recovery paradox. Finally, a chapter summary concludes the chapter.

8.2 Pre-Test Results

Before commencing the main analysis, a series of pre-tests was undertaken to i) check the realism of the hypothetical scenarios and ii) check if the manipulations work as intended. The process of pre-testing was repetitive. There were three pre-tests taken before the actual data collection for the study. The results of the first two pre-tests were discouraging concerning the manipulation checks. Therefore, corrective actions were taken (see section 7.5.1, Chapter 7). In the third attempt, all the manipulation checks and realism checks worked as intended. The results are described below.

8.2.1 Realism checks

The factorial 3 x 2 design contains six hypothetical scenarios. Descriptive analysis was performed to check the realism of the six hypothetical scenarios. In this regard, the respondents answered two questions, “The incident described in the scenario was likely to occur in real life” and “The incident described in the scenario was likely to occur in real life”. The answers were recorded on a 7-point Likert scale (1= extremely disagree -7 = extremely agree). The respondents confirmed in all the six conditions that the hypothetical scenarios were highly realistic and such incidents might happen in real life (see table 8.1). The perceived realism was higher than the scale midpoint of 3.5. The differences among all the six conditions were not significant ($p>0.05$). Means and Standard deviations of six hypothetical scenarios/ conditions are detailed in table 8.1 below

Table 8.1 Summary of analysis techniques

Condition	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1: SR(CPSR) and Low Failure severity	15	5.50	1.366
2: SR (CPSR) and High Failure severity	15	5.16	1.338
3: SR(FR) and Low Failure severity	14	5.57	.821
4: SR(FR) and High Failure severity	15	5.40	.910
5: NR and Low Failure severity	16	5.74	.937
6: NR and High Failure severity	15	4.26	1.371
Total	**90**	5.26	1.229

Note: SR = Service Recovery, CPSR = Customer Participation in Service Recovery, FR= Firm Recovery, NR= No Recovery

8.2.2 Manipulation checks

The manipulations for service failure severity worked as intended. The participants in the high service failure severity believed that the severity of the service failure was high ($M_{High\ severity} = 4.72$ vs $M_{Low\ severity} = 3.24$; $t(94) = -5.728$, $p<0.05$). The manipulations for service recovery worked as intended. The participants in the 'customer participation in service recovery' condition believed that they participated in the service recovery process. The mean produced from the participants of 'Customer Participation in Service recovery' condition is significantly higher than the mean produced from the participants of 'Firm recovery' and 'No Recovery' condition ($M_{CPSR} = 6.15$, SD = 0.821 vs. $M_{FR} = 1.71$, SD = 1.338 vs. $M_{NR} = 0.648$, SD= 1.066 ; $F(2, 93) = 262.663$, $p < 0.05$). Similarly, the participants in the 'Firm Recovery' condition believed they were not involved in the recovery process, and the firm itself provided the recovery against the service failure. The mean produced from the participants of 'Firm Recovery' condition is significantly higher than the mean produced from the participants of 'Customer Participation in Service recovery' and 'No Recovery' conditions ($M_{CPSR} = 2.64$, SD = 1.333 vs. $M_{FR} = 6.28$, SD = 0.739 vs. $M_{NR} = 4.09$, SD= 0.609 ; $F(2, 93) = 116.057$, $p < 0.05$). Finally, the mean produced from the participants of the 'No Recovery' condition is significantly higher than the mean produced from the participants of 'Customer Participation in Service recovery' and 'Firm Recovery' conditions ($M_{CPSR} = 1.66$, SD = 0.987 vs $M_{FR} = 1.82$, SD = 0.996 vs $M_{NR} = 5.04$, SD= 1.806; $F(2, 93) = 67.251$, $p < 0.05$) because they believed that there was no service recovery provided for the service failure.

8.3 Assessment of Conceptual Relationships

This phase of the study was undertaken to analyse the data collected to examine the effect of Service recovery (CPSR and FR) on CBBE and its dimensions. Data analysis was initiated in three phases. The first phase relates to assessing construct validity and reliability, which was undertaken by examining the measurement model. In the second phase, the assessment of the causal relationship between Service recovery and post-recovery outcomes was undertaken. Finally, in the third phase structural model was examined to assess the mediating role of perceived justice between Service recovery and CBBE (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012; Lacobucci, 2009).

Before the commencement of data analysis, data were assessed for assumptions of multivariate analysis, including missing values, outliers, normality, and sample size. Data met all assumptions of multivariate data analysis (See section 7.9, Chapter 7)

8.3.1 Assessment of Measurement Model

This study followed Hair *et al.*'s (2019) criteria of assessing reflective measure model where an assessment of factor loadings was undertaken. It includes an examination of internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of constructs.

8.3.1.1 Factor Loadings

The first step to assess the measurement model is to examine the factor loadings of all measured variables. An initial examination of indicator loadings showed that one item of overall brand equity was less than the threshold value of 0.70 and thus was dropped from the subsequent data analysis. Table 8.2 shows that factor loadings of all measured variables were significant (t-statistics > 1.96) and greater than the threshold value of 0.70 and thus retained for further analysis. Hair *et al.* (2019) suggest that factor loadings should exceed the value of 0.708, which will indicate that the focal construct explains the variance of more than 50 percent in the indicator variable. Therefore, a factor loading of 0.70 or higher indicates that measured variables are strongly related to their specified latent variables, which also suggests a satisfactory achievement of construct validity (Hair *et al.*, 2013).

Table 8.2 Factor Loadings

Construct	Item	Loadings	T-value
Perceived Quality	PQ1 - Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is excellent.	0.912	79.844
	PQ2 - This restaurant is superior than other similar restaurants.	0.899	78.305
	PQ3 - This restaurant consistently performs better than all other restaurants.	0.915	71.997
	PQ4 - I can always count on this restaurant for consistent performance.	0.873	41.959
Perceived Value	PV1 - What I get from this restaurant is worth the cost.	0.926	84.634
	PV2 - All the things considered (price, time and effort), services of this restaurant are a good buy.	0.938	115.308
	PV3- Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is a good value for the money.	0.909	63.463
	PV4 - When I use services of this restaurant, I feel I am getting my money's worth.	0.936	87.801
Brand Reputation	BR1 - This restaurant is well known.	0.858	10.683
	BR2 - It is one of the leading restaurants.	0.757	20.352
	BR3 - It is easily recognizable.	0.911	10.612
Brand Trust	BT1 - This restaurant keeps promises it makes to customers.	0.866	45.306
	BT2 - This restaurant is always honest with me.	0.869	47.139
	BT3 - I believe the information that this restaurant provides me.	0.876	47.952
	BT4 - When making important decisions, this restaurant considers my welfare as well as its own.	0.836	39.593
	BT5 - This restaurant keeps my best interests in mind.	0.883	52.198
	BT6 - This restaurant is honest.	0.898	57.217
Brand Loyalty	BL1 - I will continue to stay with this restaurant.	0.926	100.705
	BL2 - I would not change this restaurant service provider in future.	0.881	34.916
	BL3 - In the near future, I intend to use more of the services provided by this restaurant.	0.841	43.718
	BL4 - I consider myself to be a faithful customer of this restaurant.	0.863	46.694
Overall brand equity	OBE1 - This restaurant is superior than other restaurants.	0.839	50.08
	OBE2 - The restaurant I am evaluating fits my personality.	0.8	29.065
	OBE3 - I have positive personal feelings toward the restaurant I am evaluating.	0.905	66.763
	OBE4 - After consuming services from the restaurant I am evaluating, I have grown fond of it.	0.919	87.997
Distributive Justice	DJ1- The outcome I received was fair.	0.946	145.106
	DJ2- I got what I deserved.	0.929	109.395
	DJ3- In resolving the problem, the restaurant gave me what I needed.	0.953	148.312
	DJ4- The outcome I received was right.	0.971	255.239
Informational Justice	InfJ1 - The waiter was open in his communications with me.	0.869	63.903
	InfJ2 - The waiter explained the procedures thoroughly.	0.884	42.528

Construct	Item	Loadings	T-value
	InfJ3 - The explanations of the waiter regarding the procedures were reasonable.	0.913	99.556
	InfJ4 - The waiter seemed to tailor his communications to my specific needs.	0.883	54.953
Interactional Justice	IntJ1 - In dealing with my problem, the waiter treated me in a courteous manner.	0.839	72.371
	IntJ2 - During his effort to resolve my problem, the waiter showed a real interest in trying to be fair.	0.899	118.145
	IntJ3 - The waiter got input from me before handling the problem.	0.799	15.707
	IntJ4 - While attempting to fix my problem, the waiter considered my views.	0.92	57.363
Procedural Justice	ProJ1 - I think my problem was resolved in the right way.	0.952	180.614
	ProJ2 - I think restaurant has appropriate policies and practices for dealing with problems.	0.933	111.774
	ProJ3 - Despite the trouble caused by the problem, the restaurant was able to respond adequately.	0.959	208.641
	ProJ4 - The restaurant proved flexible in solving the problem.	0.937	99.603
	ProJ5 - The restaurant tried to solve the problem as quickly as possible.	0.891	55.97
**Perceived Justice	Distributive Justice	0.934	131.156
	Informational Justice	0.901	76.191
	Interactional Justice	0.915	87.197
	Procedural Justice	0.965	258.765

8.3.1.2 Assessment of Internal Consistency Reliability

It is essential to ensure the reliability of the construct to establish the construct validity (Iacobucci and Duhachek, 2003). Reliability is “the degree to which measures are free from error and therefore yield consistent results" (Peter, 1979). In other words, reliability shows how consistent are multiple items of a construct with each other (Hair *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, construct validity is ensured after establishing reliability (Peterson, 1994). One of the key indicators of construct reliability is Cronbach’s alpha (Cronbach, 1951), a measure of internal consistency of multi-item constructs (Peterson, 1994). According to Churchill (1979), the first measure of the quality of a scale should be the coefficient alpha. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) assert that a construct should have a minimum of 0.90 Cronbach’s alpha value; however, an alpha value of 0.95 should be desirable. Cronbach’s alpha value of greater than 0.80 is deemed very good, and an alpha value in the range of 0.70 is considered acceptable; however, a Cronbach’s alpha below 0.60 is not acceptable and deemed poor (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). According to Saunders *et al.* (2016), a coefficient alpha value of 0.7 or above shows that all measured variables capture the same construct. On the other hand, a coefficient value of 0.6 or less shows unsatisfactory internal consistency of items (Malhotra and Birks, 2006). Therefore, a higher Cronbach’s alpha value would represent a better scale (Hair, Black, *et al.*, 2006). Table 8.3 shows the values of Cronbach’s alpha for all the multi-item constructs were greater than 0.7 which indicates that all of the constructs had an acceptable coefficient alpha value and thus satisfactory internal consistency reliability.

Composite reliability (CR) is another measure of the internal consistency of items (Hair *et al.*, 2016). A higher value of composite reliability will indicate a higher internal consistency of the items (Hair *et al.*, 2019). A composite reliability value in the range of 0.70 to 0.95 shows an acceptable level of internal consistency of measures (Hair *et al.*, 2016). Table 8.3 presents the composite reliability values for all constructs greater than 0.70, thus indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency of the measures.

Table 8.3 Reliability

	Cronbach's Alpha	**Composite Reliability**
Perceived Quality	0.922	0.945
Perceived Value	0.946	0.961
Brand Reputation	0.801	0.868
Brand Trust	0.937	0.95
Brand Loyalty	0.901	0.931
Overall Brand Equity	0.892	0.925
Distributive Justice	0.964	0.974
Informational Justice	0.91	0.937
Interactional Justice	0.888	0.921
Procedural Justice	0.964	0.972
Perceived Justice	0.947	0.962

8.3.1.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity is a key indicator of construct validity (Hair *et al.*, 2019). It measures the extent to which a construct converges to explain the variance in the items (Hair *et al.*, 2016). According to Steenkamp and Van Trijp (1991), convergent validity is the degree of the direct structural relationship between a latent construct and its items.

One way to evaluate convergent validity is by examining the average variance extracted (AVE) for all the observed variables measuring a latent construct (Hair *et al.*, 2019). A construct should achieve an AVE value of greater than 0.50, showing that a minimum of 50 percent of the variance in the observed variables is explained by the construct (Hair *et al.*, 2016). Table 8.4 represents all the AVE values for all multi-item constructs greater than 0.50, demonstrating an acceptable level of convergent validity. Furthermore, composite reliability statistics can also help in assessing convergent validity. Composite reliability values should be greater than 0.70, which will indicate support for convergent validity. Table 8.4 indicates that all composite reliability values exceed the threshold of 0.70, hence supporting the convergent validity.

Table 8.4 Convergent Validity

	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Composite Reliability
Perceived Quality	0.811	0.945
Perceived Value	0.86	0.961
Brand Trust	0.76	0.95
Brand Reputation	0.687	0.868
Brand Loyalty	0.772	0.931
Overall Brand Equity	0.757	0.925
Distributive Justice	0.902	0.974
Informational Justice	0.787	0.937
Interactional Justice	0.746	0.921
Procedural Justice	0.874	0.972
Perceived Justice	0.863	0.962

8.3.1.4 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity shows the degree to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair, Black, *et al.*, 2006). It indicates the absence of overlap between conceptually distinct constructs (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). One way to examine the discriminant validity is through the Fornell-Larcker test, which provides a stringent assessment of discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair, Black, *et al.*, 2006). The underlying assumption in the Fornell-Larcker test is that a latent construct should explain higher variance in its items than it shares with another construct (Hair *et al.*, 2013). Specifically, the Fornell-Larcker test estimates the discriminant validity by comparing the square root of the AVE values for any two constructs with the bivariate correlations between those two constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The square root of AVE should be higher than the correlation estimate between the constructs (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Table 8.5 presents the findings of the Fornell-Larcker test and shows that the square roots of AVE values of all the constructs are greater than the bivariate correlations among constructs, thus achieving discriminant validity.

Table 8.5 Discriminant Validity (Fornell-Larcker)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Brand Loyalty	**0.878**									
2. Brand Reputation	0.329	**0.829**								
3. Brand Trust	0.793	0.334	**0.872**							
4. Perceived Quality	0.814	0.406	0.751	**0.901**						
5. Perceived Value	0.795	0.291	0.747	0.805	**0.927**					
6. Overall Brand Equity	0.801	0.411	0.764	0.826	0.788	**0.870**				
7. Distributive Justice	0.652	0.218	0.638	0.575	0.66	0.613	**0.950**			
8. Informational Justice	0.582	0.268	0.65	0.532	0.595	0.549	0.745	**0.887**		
9. Interactional Justice	0.528	0.204	0.577	0.515	0.587	0.521	0.776	0.825	**0.864**	
10. Procedural Justice	0.656	0.24	0.657	0.592	0.681	0.617	0.930	0.803	0.839	**0.945**

Henseler *et al.* (2015) proposed the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) as a novel approach to assess discriminant validity in variance-based SEM. The HTMT measure of discriminant validity is defined as the mean score of the correlations between measured variables across constructs relative to the mean of the average correlations for the measured variables measuring the same construct (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Discriminant validity issues arise when there are high values of HTMT (Hair *et al.*, 2019). According to Henseler *et al.* (2015), a conceptually different construct should have an HTMT value of 0.85 or lower; however, for a conceptually similar construct HTMT value of around 0.90 is acceptable. There is a lack of discriminant validity if the HTMT value is greater than 0.90 (Hair *et al.*, 2016). Hence, HTMT values should be lower than 0.90 for conceptually similar constructs and lower than 0.85 for conceptually different constructs. Table 8.6 presents the result of the examination of discriminant validity through the HTMT criterion. Table 8.6 shows that most of the values of HTMT are lower than 0.85; however, the HTMT value between procedural justice and distributive justice was higher than 0.90. Similarly, the HTMT value between overall brand equity and perceived quality was higher than 0.90. To assess if these HTMT values are indicating a discriminant validity issue, a bootstrap confidence interval was driven with 5000 subsamples to assess the confidence interval for true HTMT population value. The result indicated that none of the confidence intervals contained the value of 1, thus providing evidence that all constructs were empirically distinct (Hair *et al.*, 2016; Voorhees *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, distributive justice and procedural justice are conceptually similar constructs for which an HTMT value of greater than 0.90 was expected. Similarly, perceived quality is a dimension of brand equity, thus a conceptually similar construct to overall brand equity.

Table 8.6 Discriminant Validity (HTMT)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Brand Loyalty										
2. Brand Reputation	0.313									
3. Brand Trust	0.86	0.315								
4. Perceived Quality	0.894	0.381	0.803							
5. Perceived Value	0.86	0.258	0.789	0.862						
6. Overall Brand Equity	0.893	0.392	0.829	0.906	0.856					
7. Distributive Justice	0.698	0.191	0.668	0.609	0.688	0.658				
8. Informational Justice	0.633	0.283	0.696	0.572	0.631	0.598	0.787			
9. Interactional Justice	0.553	0.192	0.598	0.543	0.615	0.554	0.817	0.897		
10. Procedural Justice	0.701	0.222	0.688	0.626	0.709	0.661	0.969	0.851	0.888	

8.3.2 Factorial ANOVAs

In order to test Hypotheses 1 to 7 and Hypotheses 4-20, factorial two-way ANOVAs were run. The results of all hypotheses were encouraging, and hence all hypotheses were accepted except the main effects of service recovery on brand reputation were significant. However, the interaction effect of service recovery and service failure severity on brand reputation was insignificant. The effect sizes of the relationships are benchmarked against the range provided by Cohen (1969, p.278-280) which states that values of η^2 can be interpreted as of .0099 (small), 0588 (medium), and .1379 (Large). The summary of the hypotheses results is described in table 8.7 and table 8.8.

Impact of service recovery on post recovery outcomes and the moderating role of service failure severity

In support of hypothesis 1, the study found that there was a significant main effect of service recovery, $F(2, 316) = 263.928$, $p = 0.000$, indicating that the service recovery ($M_{CPSR}=5.61$, $SD_{CPSR}=0.819$; $M_{FR}=5.65$, $SD_{FR}=0.754$) leads to higher perceived justice compared to when there is no service recovery ($M_{NR}=3.47$, $SD_{NR}=1.140$). $\eta^2 = 0.626$. The result shows that there is large effect size and the association between the variables is strong. In support of h14, the interaction was significant, $F(2, 316) = 17.762$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.101$, indicating that there was a combined effect of service recovery and service failure severity on perceived justice (see figure 8.1). Further, the pairwise comparison analysis suggests that the impact of CPSR and FR on perceived justice is not significantly different.

In support of hypothesis 2, the study found that there was a significant main effect of service recovery, $F(2, 316) = 28.690$, $p = 0.000$, indicating that the service recovery ($M_{CPSR}=5.07$, $SD_{CPSR}=0.825$; $M_{FR}=5.17$, $SD_{FR}=0.879$) leads to higher Overall Brand Equity compared to when there is no service recovery ($M_{NR}=4.36$, $SD_{NR}=1.111$). The effect size in this case is large as indicated by $\eta^2 = 0.154$. In support of h15, the interaction was significant, $F(2, 316) = 13.571$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.079$, indicating a combined effect of service recovery and service failure severity on overall brand equity (see figure 8.2). In addition, the impact of CPSR and FR on overall brand equity is not significantly different.

In support of hypothesis 3, the study found that there was a significant main effect of service recovery, $F(2, 316) = 23.258$, $p = 0.000$, indicating that the service recovery (M_{CPSR}=4.91, SD_{CPSR}=1.125; M_{FR}=4.95, SD_{FR}=1.051) leads to higher Perceived Quality compared to when there is no service recovery (M_{NR}=4.06, SD_{NR}=1.397). $\eta^2 = 0.128$ suggest that there is a large effect which presents a strong association between variables. In support of h16, the interaction was significant, $F(2, 316) = 12.590$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.074$, indicating a combined effect of service recovery and service failure severity on perceived quality (see figure 8.3). The pairwise comparison results showed that the impact of CPSR and FR on perceived quality is not significantly different.

In support of hypothesis 4, the study found that there was a significant main effect of service recovery, $F(2, 316) = 43.003$, $p = 0.000$, indicating that the service recovery (M_{CPSR}=5.45, SD_{CPSR}=1.067; M_{FR}=5.51, SD_{FR}=0.969) leads to higher perceived value compared to when there is no service recovery (M_{NR}=4.39, SD_{NR}=1.465). There is a large effect present between the relationship of the variables as indicated by $\eta^2 = 0.214$. Also, in support of h17, The interaction was significant, $F(2, 316) = 21.470$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.120$, indicating a combined effect of service recovery and service failure severity on Perceived Value (see figure 8.4). Further, the results show that the impact of CPSR and FR on perceived value is not significantly different.

In support of hypothesis 5, the study found that there was a significant main effect of service recovery, $F (2, 316) = 3.371$, $p = 0.036$, $\eta^2 = 0.021$, indicating that the service recovery (M_{CPSR}=5.47, SD_{CPSR}=0.843; M_{FR}=5.34, SD_{FR}=1.252) leads to higher brand reputation compared to when there is no service recovery (M_{NR}=5.11, SD_{NR}=1.042). large effect size was found in this relationship indicated by $\eta^2 = 0.021$. However, in case of h18 the interaction was not significant, $F (2, 316) = 0.499$, $p = 0.607$, $\eta^2 = 0.003$, indicating no combined effect of service recovery and service failure severity on brand reputation (see figure 8.5). It was also found that the impact of CPSR and FR on brand reputation is not significantly different.

In support of hypothesis 6, the study found that there was a significant main effect of service recovery, $F (2, 316) = 37.932$, $p = 0.000$, indicating that the service recovery (M_{CPSR}=5.19, SD_{CPSR}=0.865; M_{FR}=5.32, SD_{FR}=0.766) leads to higher

Brand Trust compared to when there is no service recovery (M_{NR}=4.33, SD_{NR}=1.315). The effect size in this case indicated by $\eta^2 = 0.194$. In support of h19, the interaction was significant, $F(2, 316) = 14.298$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.083$, indicating a combined effect of service recovery and service failure severity on Brand Trust (see figure 8.6). In the pairwise comparison, it was found that the impact of CPSR and FR on brand trust is not significantly different

In support of hypothesis 7, the study found that there was a significant main effect of service recovery, $F(2, 316) = 36.485$, $p = 0.000$, indicating that the service recovery (M_{CPSR}=5.17, SD_{CPSR}=1.10; M_{FR}=5.40, SD_{FR}=0.905) leads to higher brand loyalty compared to when there is no service recovery (M_{NR}=4.30, SD_{NR}=1.342). There is a strong association between the variables as the effect size is large, $\eta^2 = 0.188$. In support of h20, the interaction was significant, $F(2, 316) = 16.176$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.093$, indicating a combined effect of service recovery and service failure severity on Brand Loyalty (see figure 8.7). It was also found that the impact of CPSR and FR on brand loyalty is not significantly different.

Table 8.7 Factorial ANOVA (Means and Standard Deviations)

DVs	NR						SR (CPSR)						SR (FR)					
	SFS (Low) N=56		SFS (High) N=53		Total N=109		SFS (Low) N=56		SFS (High) N=51		Total N=107		SFS (Low) N=55		SFS (High) N=51		Total N-106	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
PJ	4.20	0.958	2.17	0.748	3.47	1.140	5.83	0.662	5.39	0.915	5.619	0.819	5.81	0.691	5.49	0.792	5.65	0.754
OBE	4.97	0.871	3.70	0.958	4.36	1.111	5.13	0.818	5.00	0.836	5.071	0.825	5.30	0.705	5.03	1.02	5.17	0.879
PQ	4.84	1.087	3.24	1.207	4.06	1.397	5.15	0.917	4.64	1.273	4.91	1.125	5.03	0.962	4.87	1.14	4.95	1.051
PV	5.38	0.873	3.34	1.218	4.39	1.465	5.70	0.819	5.19	1.242	5.45	1.067	5.72	0.775	5.29	1.108	5.51	0.969
BR	5.29	0.997	4.92	1.065	5.11	1.042	5.52	0.854	5.43	0.836	5.479	0.843	5.41	1.131	5.26	1.378	5.34	1.252
BT	5.02	1.055	3.60	1.165	4.33	1.315	5.28	0.783	5.09	0.945	5.194	0.865	5.48	0.701	5.15	0.801	5.32	0.766
BL	5.11	0.958	3.43	0.958	4.30	1.342	5.343	1.030	4.90	1.153	5.172	1.100	5.536	0.676	5.25	1.089	5.40	0.905

Note: SR = Service Recovery, CPSR = Customer Participation in Service Recovery, FR= Firm Recovery, NR= No Recovery, SFS= Service Failure Severity, PJ = Perceived Justice, OBE = Overall Brand Equity, Perceived Quality, PV= Perceived Value, BR= Brand Reputation, BT = Brand Trust, PQ=, BL= Brand Loyalty

Table 8.8 Factorial ANOVAs Results

Perceived justice	**Effect**	**F (1, 316)**	**p**	η^2	**R Squared**	**Results**
H1: Main effect	SR	263.928	0.000	0.626	0.666	Supported
H14: Interaction effect	SR x SFS	17.762	0.000	0.101		Supported
Overall Brand Equity	**Effect**	**F (1, 316)**	**P**	η^2	**R Squared**	**Results**
H2: Main effect	SR	28.690	0.000	0.154	0.269	Supported
H15: Interaction effect	SR x SFS	13.571	0.000	0.079		Supported
Perceived Quality	**Effect**	**F (1, 316)**	**p**	η^2	**R Squared**	**Results**
H3: Main effect	SR	23.258	.000	.128	0.256	Supported
H16: Interaction effect	SR x SFS	12.590	.000	.074		Supported
Perceived Value	**Effect**	**F (1, 316)**	**p**	η^2	**R Squared**	**Results**
H4: Main effect	SR	43.003	.000	.214	0.392	Supported
H17: Interaction effect	SR x SFS	21.470	.000	.120		Supported
Brand Reputation	**Effect**	**F (1, 316)**	**p**	η^2	**R Squared**	**Results**
H5: Main effect	SR	3.371	.036	.021	0.033	Supported
H18: Interaction effect	SR x SFS	0.499	.607	.003		Not Supported
Brand Trust	**Effect**	**F (1, 316)**	**p**	η^2	**R Squared**	**Results**
H6: Main effect	SR	37.932	.000	.194	0.311	Supported
H19: Interaction Effect	SR x SFS	14.298	.000	.083		Supported
Brand Loyalty	**Effect**	**F (1, 316)**	**p**	η^2	**R Squared**	**Results**
H7: Main effect	SR	36.485	.000	.188	0.322	Supported
H20: Interaction effect	SR x SFS	16.176	.000	.093		Supported

Figure 8.1 Service recovery and Perceived Justice

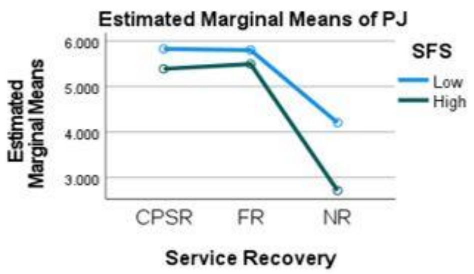


Figure 8.2 Service Recovery and Overall Brand Equity

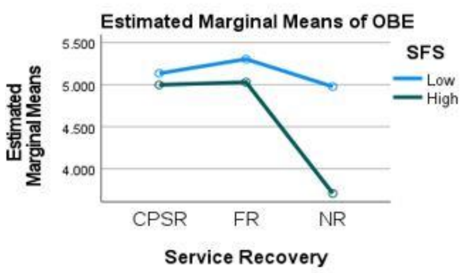


Figure 8.3 Service Recovery and Perceived Quality

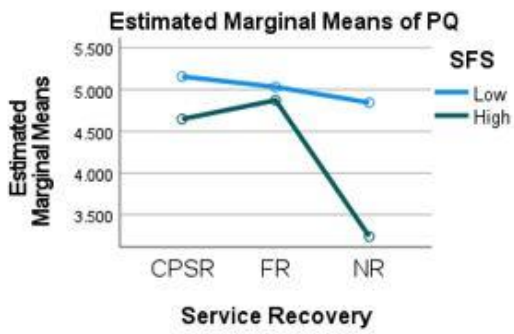


Figure 8.4 Service Recovery and Perceived Value

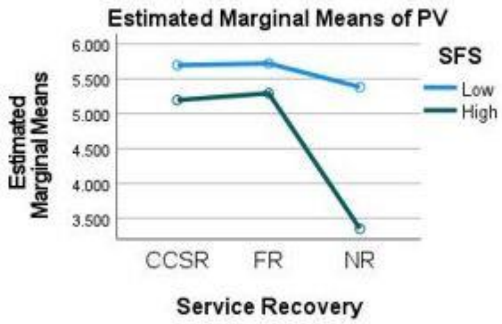


Figure 8.5 Service Recovery and Brand Reputation

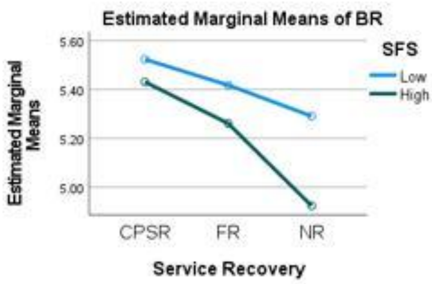


Figure 8.6 Service Recovery and Brand Trust

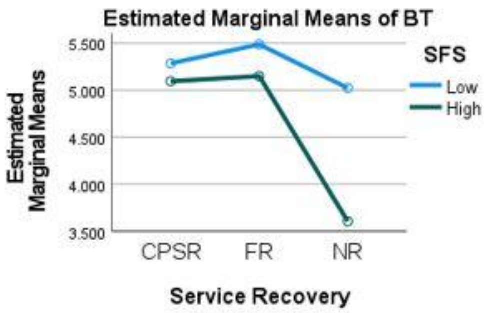
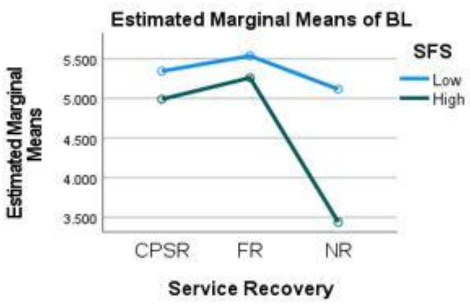


Figure 8.7 Service Recovery and Brand Loyalty



8.3.3 Mediation Analysis

This section presents the result of mediation analysis taken to address the intervening role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE, thus examining H8a-H13b. According to Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1173), mediation of a construct shows that "the generative mechanism through which an independent focal variable can influence a dependent variable of interest". In other words, Baron and Kenny (1986) assert that a given construct may function as a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion variable.

The mediation role of perceived justice was examined by testing the significance of each indirect effect between Service recovery and the dimensions of CBBE, using a bootstrapping with a sample drawing of 5000. The bootstrapping process is considered a better choice than the traditional Sobel test as it does not impose the assumption of normality (Cambra-Fierro *et al.*, 2016). The mediation results are presented in Table 8.9, results that didn't include zero with a 95% confidence interval.

Table 8.9 Mediation Analysis Results

Mediation						
Hypothesis			**(β)**	**T-Value**	**Significance (p)**	**Result**
H8	a	SR (CPSR) → PJ →PQ	0.121	4.1	0.000	Supported
	b	SR (FR) → PJ → PQ	0.136	4.851	0.000	Supported
H9	a	SR (CPSR) → PJ → PV	0.119	4.148	0.000	Supported
	b	SR (FR) → PJ → PV	0.134	4.761	0.000	Supported
H10	a	SR (CPSR) → PJ → BR	0.053	2.491	0.006	Supported
	b	SR (FR) → PJ → BR	0.059	2.571	0.005	Supported
H11	a	SR (CPSR) → PJ → BT	0.136	4.315	0.000	Supported
	b	SR (FR) → PJ → BT	0.153	4.999	0.000	Supported
H12	a	SR (CPSR) → PJ → BL	0.123	4.043	0.000	Supported
	b	SR (FR) → PJ → BL	0.138	4.866	0.000	Supported
H13	a	SR (CPSR) → PJ → OBE	0.113	4.026	0.000	Supported
	b	SR (FR) → PJ → OBE	0.126	4.668	0.000	Supported

Note: SR = Service Recovery, CPSR = Customer Participation in Service Recovery, FR= Firm Recovery, PJ= Perceived Justice, PQ = Perceived Quality, PV = Perceived Value, BR = Brand Reputation, BT = Brand Trust, , BL = Brand Loyalty, OBE = Overall Brand Equity

The results indicate that perceived justice intervenes between service recovery (CPSR, FR) and: (i) perceived quality, (ii) perceived value, (iii) brand reputation, (iv) brand trust (v) brand loyalty, and (vi) overall brand equity. Table 8.9 indicates that all hypotheses related to mediating effect of perceived justice are supported as there is a significant ($p < 0.05$) mediating effect of perceived justice between service recovery (CPSR and FR) and all brand-related outcomes.

Full mediation is supported when the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator is significant while the direct effect is insignificant. On the other hand, partial mediation is supported if both the direct and indirect effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable are significant (Baron and Kenny, 1986). The direct effect of service recovery (CPSR, SR) on all brand-related outcomes, including brand loyalty, brand reputation, brand trust, perceived quality, perceived value, and overall brand equity, is significant (cf. Appendix F). This result indicates a partial mediation of perceived justice between service recovery (CPSR and FR) and dimensions of CBBE.

8.3.4 Paradox Hypotheses

Paired sample t-tests were performed to test the occurrence of the service recovery paradox. This was done by employing paired t-tests between pre-failure and post-service recovery samples of the four conditions, i) SR(CPSR) and SFS Low, ii) SR(FR) and SFS High, iii) SR(FR) and SFS Low, iv) SR(FR) and SFS high. The computed results are shown in Table 8.10. however, before the main analysis, it was made sure that there is no issue related to the sampling distribution of the four groups. This was done by utilising one-way ANOVA for the pre-failure data. It was found that there was no significant difference among the groups with respect to the dimensions of CBBE.

Hypotheses 21a -21e

The results showed that perceived quality's post-recovery rating (M_{PQ} = 5.15, *SD* = 0.917) is not significantly higher than pre-failure ratings (M_{PQ} = 5.31, *SD* = 0.889), *t* (55) = 1.323, p >0.05). Similarly, perceived value's post-recovery rating (M_{PV} = 5.69, *SD* = 0.819) is not significantly higher than pre-failure rating (M_{PV} = 5.75, *SD* = 0.790), t (55) = 0.558, p >0.05). The post-recovery rating of brand reputation ((M_{BR} = 5.52, *SD* = 0.854) is not significantly higher than pre-failure rating (M_{BR} = 5.41, *SD* = 0.996), *t* (55) = -1.149, p >0.05). In case of brand trust, it was found that post-recovery rating (M_{BT} = 5.28, *SD* = 0.783) is not higher than pre-failure rating (M_{BT} = 5.24, *SD* = 0.752), *t* (55) = -0.394, p >0.05). Similarly, Post-recovery (M_{BL} = 5.343, *SD* = 1.030) rating of brand loyalty is also not higher than pre failure rating (M_{BL} = 5.28, *SD* = 0.842), *t* (55) = -0.432, p>0.05). The above results demonstrate that there is no paradox found, hence hypotheses 21a – 21 e are not supported.

Hypotheses 22a -22e

The results demonstrate that perceived quality's post-recovery rating (M_{PQ} = 4.647, *SD* = 1.273) is not higher than pre-failure ratings (M_{PQ} = 5.024, *SD* = 0.943), *t* (50) = 2.475, p >0.05). Perceived value's post-recovery rating (M_{PV} = 5.196, *SD* = 1.242) is not significantly higher than pre-failure rating (M_{PV} = 5.779, *SD* = 0.914), t (50) =

4.152, p >0.05). The post-recovery rating of brand reputation (M_{BR} = 5.43, SD = 0.836) is not higher than pre-failure rating (M_{BR} = 5.26, SD = 1.207), t (50) = -1.223, p >0.05). In case of brand trust, it was found that post-recovery rating (M_{BT} = 5.09, SD = 0.945) is not higher than pre-failure (M_{BT} = 5.33, SD = 0.763), t (50) = 2.414, p >0.05). Similarly, Post-recovery (M_{BL} = 4.99, SD = 1.153) rating of brand loyalty is also not higher than pre failure rating (M_{BL} = 5.11, SD = 0.978), t (50) = 0.959, p>0.05). The above results demonstrate that there is no paradox founds, hence hypotheses 22a – 22e are not supported.

Hypothesis 23a – 23e

The results showed that perceived quality's post-recovery rating (M_{PQ} = 5.031, SD=0.962) is not significantly higher than pre-failure rating (M_{PQ} = 5.004, SD = 0.979), t (54) = -0.283, p >0.05). The post-recovery rating of perceived value (M_{PV} = 5.72, SD = 0.775) is not higher than pre-failure rating (M_{PV} = 5.73, SD = 0.928), t (54) = 0.184, p >0.05). In case of brand reputation, it was found that post-recovery rating ((M_{BR} = 5.41, SD = 1.131) is not significantly higher than pre-failure rating (M_{BR} = 5.35, SD = 1.108), t (54) = -0.793, p >0.05). Similarly, Post-recovery (M_{BT} = 5.48, SD = 0.701) rating of brand trust is also not higher than pre failure rating (M_{BT} = 5.52, SD = 0.563), t (54) = 0.421, p >0.05). The above results demonstrate that there is no paradox founds, hence hypotheses 23b – 23e are not supported. However, brand loyalty's post-recovery rating (M_{BL} = 5.53, SD = .676) is significantly higher than pre-failure ratings (M_{BL} = 5.08, SD = 0.939),t(55) = -3.793, p<0.05. therefore, Hypothesis 23e is accepted.

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Hypothesis 24a -24e

The results showed that perceived quality's post-recovery rating (M_{PQ} = 4.87, SD = 1.143) is not significantly higher than pre-failure rating (M_{PQ} = 5.18, SD = 1.080), t (50) = 2.886, p >0.05). The post-recovery rating of perceived value (M_{PV} = 5.29, SD = 1.108) is not higher than pre-failure rating (M_{PV} = 5.45, SD = 1.214), t (50) = 1.677, p >0.05). In case of brand reputation, it was found that post-recovery rating (M_{BR} = 5.26, SD = 1.378) is not higher than pre-failure rating (M_{BR} = 5.22, SD = 1.430), t (50) = -0.441, p >0.05). Similarly, post-recovery rating of brand trust (M_{BT} = 5.15, SD = 0.801) is also not higher than pre failure rating (M_{BT} = 5.40, SD = 0.678), t (50) = 2.513, p >0.05). The above results demonstrate that there is no paradox found, hence hypotheses 24b – 24e are not supported. However, brand loyalty's post-recovery rating (M_{BL} = 5.25, SD = 1.089) is significantly higher than pre-failure ratings (M_{BL} = 4.90, SD = 1.258), t (50) = -2.228, $p<0.05$. therefore, Hypothesis 24e is accepted.

Table 8.10 Service Recovery Paradox Analysis

Conditions	Hypothesis		Pre-Failure Phase		Post-Recovery Phase				Difference	T-value	P-value	Result
			Means	S.D.	Means	S.D.	N	DF				
Customer participation in service recovery and low service failure severity	21a	Perceived Quality	5.31250	0.889650	5.15625	0.917708	56	55	.156250	1.323	> 0.05	Not supported
	21b	Perceived Value	5.75893	0.790518	5.69643	0.819804			.062500	.558	> 0.05	Not supported
	21c	Brand Reputation	5.4107	0.99695	5.5238	0.85483			-.11310	-1.149	> 0.05	Not supported
	21d	Brand Trust	5.24405	0.752749	5.28571	0.783488			-.041667	-.394	> 0.05	Not supported
	21e	Brand Loyalty	5.28571	0.842654	5.34375	1.030845			-.058036	-.432	> 0.05	Not supported
Customer participation in service recovery and high service failure severity	22a	Perceived Quality	5.02451	0.943736	4.64706	1.273947	51	50	.377451	2.475	> 0.05	Not supported
	22b	Perceived Value	5.77941	0.914668	5.19608	1.242290			.583333	4.152	> 0.05	Not supported
	22c	Brand Reputation	5.2614	1.20796	5.4314	0.83611			-.16993	-1.223	> 0.05	Not supported
	22d	Brand Trust	5.33007	0.763392	5.09477	0.945313			.235294	2.414	> 0.05	Not supported
	22e	Brand Loyalty	5.11275	0.978920	4.99020	1.153214			.122549	.959	> 0.05	Not supported
Firm recovery and low service failure severity	23a	Perceived Quality	5.00455	.979525	5.03182	.962316	55	54	-.027273	-.283	> 0.05	Not supported
	23b	Perceived Value	5.73636	.928482	5.72273	.775303			.013636	.184	> 0.05	Not supported
	23c	Brand Reputation	5.3576	1.10899	5.4182	1.13169			-.06061	-.793	> 0.05	Not supported
	23d	Brand Trust	5.52121	.563877	5.48788	.701889			.033333	.421	> 0.05	Not supported
	23e	Brand Loyalty	5.08636	.939388	5.53636	.676008			-.450000	-3.793	.000	**Supported**
Firm recovery and high service failure severity	24a	Perceived Quality	5.18137	1.080600	4.87255	1.143867	51	50	.308824	2.886	> 0.05	Not supported
	24b	Perceived Value	5.45588	1.214193	5.29412	1.108722			.161765	1.677	> 0.05	Not supported
	24c	Brand Reputation	5.2222	1.43088	5.2614	1.37810			-.03922	-.441	> 0.05	Not supported
	24d	Brand Trust	5.40523	.678442	5.15033	.801564			.254902	2.513	> 0.05	Not supported
	24e	Brand Loyalty	4.90196	1.258052	5.25980	1.089680			-.357843	-2.228	0.030	**Supported**

8.4 Summary

This chapter has presented the results of the hypothesis formulated in chapter 6. At first, the results of pre-tests are presented. The results of realism and manipulation checks are presented in the section of pre-test results. After that, the results of the assessment of the measurement model are presented. The results show that the factor loadings of all measured variables were significant. Next, the results of internal consistency and reliability are presented, which are as per the recommendations. It is then followed by convergent and discriminant validity results, which are also as per the recommendations.

The results of the hypotheses are divided into three sections based on the analysis undertaken for hypothesis testing. The first section described the results of the hypotheses related to the impact of service recovery on post-recovery evaluations (hypotheses 1-7). This section also provided the results of the hypotheses related to the moderating role of service failure severity (hypotheses 14-20). All hypothesis were supported apart from hypothesis 18, which was not supported.

The second section demonstrated the results of the hypotheses (H8a-H13b) related to the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE. All the hypotheses were supported, which meant that perceived justice mediates the relationships.

Finally, the third section of the hypotheses related to the investigation of the occurrence of the service recovery paradox(H21a-H24e). Apart from hypotheses 23e and 24e, which were supported, all the other hypotheses were not supported.

Chapter 9 Discussion

9.1 Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion of the findings in the context of previous literature. The current chapter answers five research questions that were generated in chapter 2. Findings from qualitative and quantitative studies assisted in answering the research questions. The chapter starts with the discussion of RQ1, which is related to identifying CBBE dimensions that tend to fluctuate within the service failure and recovery framework. It is then followed by the answer to RQ2, where the impact of service recovery on post-recovery outcomes is discussed. Next, the answer to RQ3 is discussed, where the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE is elaborated. RQ4 delineates the discussion on the moderating role of service failure severity. Finally, the answer to RQ5 is described, which is related to the service recovery paradox. A chapter summary is presented at the end of this chapter.

9.2 Discussion

The findings of this study are discussed according the relevant research questions and research hypothesis. Following sections contain the discussion of the five research questions of current study.

9.2.1 RQ1: What are the dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate within the context of service failure and recovery?

Qualitative research (semi-structured interviews) was undertaken to answer the RQ1. Initially, the findings from qualitative research found that customers frequently experience service failures followed by service recoveries which become the reasons for offsetting the CBBE dimensions. There are two forms of service recovery identified in the qualitative research, which corroborates the previous literature. For example, one way to render service recovery is 'firm recovery' which is when service employees make sole efforts to resolve service failures without involving customers in the service recovery process (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; You *et al.*, 2020). Another way to recovery from service failure is customer participation in service recovery, where customers participate with the service firm/firm's employees to recover from the service failure (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Dong *et al.*, 2008, 2016; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012).

The current study then explored the insights related to the CBBE dimensions that tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery. Till date, there is not a single effort to investigate CBBE as an outcome of service recovery or which identifies the dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process, to be investigated in the context of service failure and recovery. Therefore, the lack of evidence warranted the exploring oscillation in CBBE facets due to service failure and recovery. The qualitative findings suggested that five CBBE dimensions fluctuate during a service failure and recovery interaction, perceived quality, perceived value, brand reputation, brand trust, and brand loyalty. The dimensions emerged when informants were asked to share their brand assessment at two different occasions, i) post-failure and post-recovery. It was found that the ratings of the CBBE dimensions decline after the customers experience a service failure and are negatively valenced. Such findings support the stream of literature investigating the impact of service failure on brand-related outcomes (Bejou and Palmer, 1998; Bougoure *et al.*, 2016; Sajtos *et al.*, 2010; Sarkar *et al.*, 2021; Weun *et al.*, 2004). On the other hand, positive customers' opinions towards the CBBE dimensions were collated after receiving service recovery either in the form of frim recovery (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Ma and Zhong, 2021; Smith *et al.*, 1999; You *et al.*, 2020) or customer participation in service recovery (Dong *et al.*, 2008; Jin *et al.*, 2020; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014).

Findings of qualitative study shows that interviewees develop negative perceptions of quality after a service failure. This result may be explained by the fact that consumers attribute service failure incidents with poor quality service, incompetency, poor performance, and unprofessionalism (Xu *et al.*, 2019). The findings of the qualitative study also reveal that informants positively evaluated the service brand perceived quality after the service brand made efforts to resolve the problems. In accordance with the present results, previous studies have demonstrated that service failure incidents harm consumers' perception of quality (Anderson *et al.*, 2009; Xu *et al.*, 2019). This finding also corroborates the ideas of Gil *et al.* (2006), who suggested that in the context of hotel services, the quality of service perceived by customers will increase if the customer is loyal and/or if the customer experiences a recovery encounter during the visit.

The findings align with Aurier and Siadou-Martin (2007) examination, which proved that service recovery improves the perceived quality of a restaurant. Specifically, the perceived quality related to the core service and the interaction of the employees. The observed increase in perceived service quality could be attributed to positive service experiences and effective recovery, giving rise to optimistic scripts and expected service delivery (Zeithaml *et al.*, 1993). The oscillating nature of perceived quality between a service failure and recovery indicates the fluctuation in customer service quality perceptions during a service failure and recovery effort.

Another important finding was that consumers' perceived value fluctuated during a service failure and recovery process. The qualitative data analysis suggests that consumers' perceptions of value diminished after a service failure. One of the most important factors identified as the basis of their choice of the service brand was the perceived value. Therefore, post-failure, the consumers shared that the loss they incurred was in terms of the perceived value. This finding corroborates the ideas of Buttle and Burton (2002), who suggested that consumers will feel that service failure increases the overall cost and thus perceive a decrease in the value they get for their money. The observed diminishing pattern of perceived value might be explained by the fact that consumers equate their costs to buy a service with benefits received and perceive an inequality. In contrast, the data analysis suggests that consumers' perceptions of the value for the cost incurred improved after service recovery. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research, which found that an appropriate service recovery results in favourable customer opinions about the service brand (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). The findings also support the investigation by Yaya *et al.* (2015), who found that an effective service recovery that includes compensation, care, and easy procedures positively impacts the perceived value. Therefore, a decrease in perceived value after a service failure and a subsequent increase in perceived value after a service recovery indicates a fluctuating pattern of perceived value where varies between service failure and recovery.

Brand reputation is another dimension of CBBE that fluctuates during service failure and recovery incidents. Brand reputation is the aggregate of consumers perceptions of a brand created over time due to multiple interactions with the brand (Veloutsou and Moutinho, 2009; Walker, 2010). The qualitative data analysis reveals that brand reputation is downgraded after a service failure. This finding of the current study is consistent with those of Cantor and Li (2019), who asserted that service failures lead to negative perceptions of service firms. The result also shows that service recovery positively influences brand reputation as interview participants frequently indicated positive perceptions of the service brand after a service recovery. This result is consistent with the studies that suggest that service recovery can enhance long-term positive perceptions of a service brand (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). An oscillating trend of overall perceptions of the service brand reveals a fluctuation concerning the brand reputation within the service failure and recovery incident. In other words, a service failure can negatively affect brand reputation, whereas a recovery mechanism can mitigate the negative effects of a service failure by restoring or enhancing the brand reputation.

The qualitative study results also indicate that one of the key facets of CBBE that fluctuates during service failure and recovery is brand trust. The analysis of qualitative data suggests that customers' trust in a brand declines after a service failure. This finding agrees with Weun et al.'s (2004) findings, which showed that brands suffer from trust deficits after experiencing a service failure, which weakens the brands' relationship with their customers. This finding also corroborates Barakat *et al.* (2015), who found that ineffective service responses by the service firms can dilute brand trust. One reason for loss of trust in a brand after a service failure is that customers may view the service failure incident as a breach of the promise made by the service brand for providing a good quality service. Qualitative findings suggest that customers felt betrayed by the firm and believed that the service brand broke the promise of an optimum service experience.

The results of the qualitative study also show that brand trust may be recovered with effective service recovery. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research, which found service recovery restores brand trust (Kim, Jung-Eun Yoo, *et al.*, 2012; Lopes and da Silva, 2015; Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). A possible explanation for this might be that effective recovery results in regaining consumers' confidence in the service brand. Another possible explanation for this is that when consumers can get involved in the service recovery process through their interaction with service providers, there are greater chances of restoring the brand trust (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016). The results of observation of brand trust after a service failure and recovery indicate a fluctuating pattern of trust where brand trust decreases after a service failure but gets restored after an excellent service recovery.

Finally, the results of qualitative study show that service failure and recovery cause a change in the customers' ratings of brand loyalty. Qualitative research findings reveal that service customers detach with the service brand to reduce the usage of the brand, think about leaving the service firm, intend to switch to competitive brands or break the relationship with the service brand in extreme cases. This finding resonates well with the findings of the literature on service failure and recovery (Bejou and Palmer, 1998; Cantor and Li, 2019; Kamble and Walvekar, 2019; Wang *et al.*, 2011). For example, Wang *et al.* (2011) showed customer loyalty declines due to service failure. Similarly, this study's result provides support for Kamble and Walvekar (2019), who assert that there is a negative relationship between customer loyalty and service failure in the context of e-tailing. A possible reason for the decline in brand loyalty after a service failure incident can be reduced post-failure customer satisfaction (Torres *et al.*, 2020; Weun *et al.*, 2004). Customers feel that they are deceived when they experience a service failure, resulting in dissatisfaction with the service firm (Barakat *et al.*, 2015). Thus, dissatisfied customers become disloyal to the brand after a service failure incident.

The findings of semi-structured interviews showed that customers intend to stay with the service firm once a service recovery is initiated after a service failure. This result indicates that brand loyalty is enhanced after a service recovery. This finding further supports the idea of La and Choi (2019), who found that brand loyalty towards the service brand is influenced by service recovery. Qualitative data analysis thus reveals a fluctuating pattern in brand loyalty during service failure and recovery. Service failure causes a dilution in brand loyalty (Bejou and Palmer, 1998; Cantor and Li, 2019; Mattila *et al.*, 2014), whereas service recovery acts as a safeguard against such dilution and thus enhances brand loyalty (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Kim and Baker, 2020a; Liat *et al.*, 2017).

9.2.2 RQ2: What is the impact of service recovery (Firm recovery and Customer participation in service recovery) on post-recovery outcomes?

9.2.2.1 Service recovery and Perceived Justice

The second research question in this research was related to the impact of service recovery on post-recovery outcomes, including perceived justice and CBBE. On the question of the effect of service recovery on perceived justice, this study found that Service recovery (CPSR and FR) enhance perceived justice. Consequently, the results provided support for the hypothesis 1.

The findings observed in this study mirror those of the previous studies that have examined the effect of service recovery on perceived justice. For example, this finding agrees with Smith *et al.*, (1999) findings which showed that actions taken by a service provider to recover from service failure could enhance customers' perceptions of fairness by setting things right. This also accords with other earlier studies, which showed that there is a positive relationship between service recovery measures (including speed of response, compensation, apology, explanation, and courtesy) and perceived justice dimensions such as distributive, procedural, interactional and informational justice (Blodgett *et al.*, 1997; Karatepe, 2006b; Liao, 2007; Tax *et al.*, 1998). The findings also corroborate with Mostafa *et al.*'s (2015) investigation, which found a positive association between service recovery and the dimensions of perceived justice. The findings of this study suggest that the sufficiency of the service recovery efforts make the customers believe that they have received an equitable response against their loss.

9.2.2.2 Service recovery and Overall brand equity

Next, the present study was designed to determine the effect of Service recovery (CPSR and FR) on CBBE. The results of this study indicate that both the CPSR and FR influence overall brand equity. This finding corroborates the ideas of (Ringberg *et* *al.* (2007), who suggested that positive customer experiences build goodwill, thus mitigating the effect of a poor service experience on the brand. These results are consistent with those of other studies and suggest that an appropriate recovery strategy has the potential of creating brand equity in which customers themselves act as the promoter of the service brand and conduct self-motivated campaigns promoting the service brand (Berry *et al.*, 1990; Dorsch *et al.*, 1998; Singhal *et al.*, 2013).

The positive association between service recovery and overall brand equity may be explained by the fact that effective service recovery can create positive brand perceptions in the consumers' mind consequently developing a sense in consumers that the service provider cares about them, thereby creating a strong bond with customers (Harun *et al.*, 2019). Specifically, when service consumers are allowed to participate in the service recovery process, they perceive higher psychological value (Franke *et al.*, 2010) and feelings of ownership of the brand (Fuchs *et al.*, 2010), which can influence brand equity (González-Mansilla *et al.*, 2019).

9.2.2.3 Service recovery and Perceived Quality

Another important finding was that CPSR and FR affect perceived quality. These results match those observed in earlier studies. For instance, Kloppenborg and Gourdin (1992) showed that service recovery plays a key role in service quality evaluations in the context of airline services. Similarly, Boshoff (1997) found that service recovery initiatives can improve service quality perceptions.

The current study's findings describe that the response to service failure is evaluated positively by the consumers as they perceive the quality of the service positively. Furthermore, the results show that the positive impact of service recovery on perceived quality is possible when firms successfully make the customers believe about four things. i) 'the tangibles they receive against the loss they incur, ii) the amount of information they receive, iii) the interaction of the employees and iv) the convenience in recovery procedures' equates or surpasses the loss they incurred. Similar expositions are presented by Aurier and Siadou-Martin, (2007), who showed that perceived quality is enhanced due to service recovery by explaining that the levels of all three quality components, outcome quality, interaction quality and environment quality improve. The current study's findings are also consistent with those of

Söderlund and Sagfossen (2017), who found that involving customers in service processes influences the perceived quality of the service. A possible explanation for these results may be that consumers’ satisfactory experience with service recovery leads to high-quality service performance perceptions.

9.2.2.4 Service recovery and Perceived Value

The current study found that Service recovery (CPSR and FR) has a significant positive effect on perceived value. It is encouraging to compare this figure with Helkkula and Kelleher (2010), who found that satisfactory service interactions are related to positive perceived value, whereas unsatisfactory service encounters are linked to the negative perceived value of service. This finding also corroborates the ideas of Boshoff (2005), who suggested that a satisfactory service recovery leads to improved perceptions of the service firm’s competence and eventually to perceived value.

An examination of perceived value within the service failure and recovery is relevant because the perceived value is the overall assessment by the customers where they weigh what they have received against what they have costed (Zeithaml, 1988). As customers lose in case of service failure and gain in the shape of service recovery. Coelho *et al.* (2020) suggest that customers' experience with the brand impacts the perceived value. After the experience, customers engage in a mental process to examine what benefits they have received after sacrificing their money, time and effort (Netemeyer *et al.*, 2004).

Another explanation is that customers’ physical and cognitive participation in the service recovery process diverts the post-failure psychological tension created by the service failure (Prebensen and Xie, 2017). Therefore, some authors have speculated that a positive relationship between service recovery and perceived value can be partly due to customers’ overall evaluation of what they received and what they gave during service recovery (Loureiro *et al.*, 2019; Mcdougall and Levesque, 2000; Yaya *et al.*, 2015).

9.2.2.5 Service recovery and Brand Reputation

This study also set out to assess the impact of service recovery (CPSR and FR) on brand reputation. The findings of the current study report that service recovery (CPSR and FR) positively influence brand reputation. The current finding corroborates the ideas of Sengupta *et al.* (2015), who suggested that consistent, credible actions of the firm towards its consumers can develop a brand reputation. Similarly, this finding is in agreement with Liat *et al.*'s (2017) findings which showed that service recovery leads to positive brand associations. In the case of CPSR, the findings resonate with the findings by Foroudi *et al.* (2019), who found that students' participation in the service processes had a positive impact on the brand reputation of the university.

Generating positive associations about the firm is because customers believe that the firm has not left them alone and provided a satisfactory solution to their problem (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, the positive interaction between the firm and the customers in the shape of service recovery results in increasing the repository of positive associations held by the customers in their memories. A possible explanation for this result may be the ability of service recovery measures to enhance customer satisfaction and associate service brands with attributes such as consistent, credible brands (Sengupta *et al.*, 2015).

9.2.2.6 Service recovery and Brand Trust

The results of this study indicate that CPSR and FR influence brand trust. It is encouraging to compare this result with Joireman *et al.* (2013), who assert that firms should be cautious in undertaking an effective service recovery process as regaining trust will be more challenging if service recovery fails. The current study's findings are also consistent with those of Basso and Pizzutti (2016) who showed that when customers have the opportunity to interact with service providers, the probability of restoring trust increases. The positive influence of service recovery on trust reflects that customers trust the firm, which initiates an immediate response to the service failure. As building a trust based relationship brings several long-term benefits to the firms which include quality assurance, low risks and customers' confidence (Dall'Olmo Riley and De Chernatony, 2000).

Pacheco *et al.* (2019), suggests that in case of service failure, which leads to breach of trust, the restoration of trust can happen if the firm realises the mistake immediately and initiate suitable recovery at once. Moreover, the current study suggests that when the service recovery included the empathetic behaviour of employees and convenient procedures, it assists in creating a positive influence on brand trust. Mohd-Any et al. (2019) found that after a service failure, the accommodating interaction of employees and convenient service recovery procedures can restore the trust of customers among customers.

9.2.2.7 Service recovery and Brand Loyalty

This study found that service recovery (CPSSR and FR) positively influence brand loyalty. Consequently, the results provided support for hypotheses 7. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005), who showed that service firms take necessary actions after a service failure to maintain customer loyalty by recovering from service failure. This finding also corroborates the ideas of Contiero *et al.* (2016), who suggested that service recovery initiatives contribute towards enhancing customer loyalty. A possible explanation for this might be that when customers experience an effective recovery, they tend to have positive emotions towards the service brand, which lead to a positive attitude towards the service provider (attitudinal loyalty) and increases the likelihood of future patronage (behavioural loyalty) (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008).

Concerning CPSR, the study found a positive influence on customers loyalty. This finding agrees with Yang *et al.'s* (2014) findings, showing that if the customers' participation satisfies the customers, they will increase their purchase frequency while reducing the search for competitive offerings. The support of the study's finding is gained as one of the most recent studies by Kim and Baker (2020) concluded that after customers are more willing to revisit and show loyal behaviour towards a service firm if they have received the service recovery.

Table 9.1 Results of Hypothesis 1 -7

	Impact of Service recovery on post-recovery outcomes	**Result**
H1	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived justice	Supported
H2	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences overall brand equity	Supported
H3	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived quality	Supported
H4	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences perceived value	Supported
H5	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand reputation	Supported
H6	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand trust	Supported
H7	Service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) positively influences brand loyalty	Supported

9.2.3 RQ3: What is the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE?

The third question in this study sought to determine the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE. Very little was found in the literature on perceived justice as a mediator between service recovery and CBBE. Though extant research has recognized perceived justice within their frameworks in between service recovery actions and their outcomes (Liao, 2007; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019), no study has examined how service recovery is related to CBBE through the mediation of perceived justice. Thus, following the approach of Liao (2007), this study takes a theory-based approach and offers an integrated model of service recovery influencing customer evaluations of brand-related factors through perceived justice after undertaking a service recovery.

9.2.3.1 Mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and overall brand equity

It was hypothesised that perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery and overall brand equity. The results of this study confirm the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and overall brand equity. It is encouraging to compare this finding with that found by Liao (2007), who showed that perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery and its outcomes. This result also agrees with the findings of other studies, in which it has been shown that positive perceived justice may reduce negative emotions after a service failure and, in turn, may lead to positive outcomes after a service recovery (Blodgett *et al.*, 1993; Nazifi *et al.*, 2020; Ozkan-Tektas and Basgoze, 2017).

There are several possible explanations for this result. Firstly, customers' perception of fairness of service recovery measures determines the outcome of service recovery (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). Secondly, there is a strong association between perceived justice and customers' willingness to do business with the service brand again and their satisfaction with service recovery (Petzer *et al.*, 2017; Sharifi and Spassova, 2020; Smith and Bolton, 1998). In other words, customers will deem a service brand superior to competitors if they develop a perception of fairness of service recovery measures. Moreover, customer perceptions of fairness of service recovery measures will develop customers' belief that the service brand is trustworthy (Kelley and Davis, 1994) and shows concern for the customers (Harun *et al.*, 2019). Hence, the current finding supports the conceptual premise that if customers perceive their participation in service recovery and firm recovery as fair, they will positively evaluate the service brand.

9.2.3.2 Mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and Perceived quality

On the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and perceived quality, this study found that service recovery affects consumers' perception of service quality through perceived justice. Firms must enhance perceived justice through an effective service recovery to enhance the perceived quality of service after a service failure and recovery. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research, which found that perceived justice plays a key role in enhancing customers' perceptions of service quality (Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007; Berry, 1995; Chi *et al.*, 2020; Roy *et al.*, 2016). Aurier and Siadou-Martin's (2007) findings showed a significant effect of perceived justice dimensions on service quality. Similarly, Andaleeb and Basu (1994) showed that perceived fairness is an important driver of service quality evaluation. Further, Roy *et al.* (2016) presented perceived justice as a key mediator between service recovery and perceived quality. In other words, consumers' perceptions of justice and fairness will be enhanced by an effective service recovery, and consequently, such perceptions will influence customers' perceptions of service quality (Brady and Cronin, 2001).

It seems possible that this result is because perceived justice and perceived quality are closely related, such that both are considered inseparable (Berry, 1995). More specifically, the customers keenly observe and evaluate the activities which a firm performs to resolve the service failure (Chi *et al.*, 2020). These customer evaluations are based on the premise of competence of the firm and abilities of the firm employees to handle the service failure situation (Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007). The current study contains the scenarios that explained that service employees readily admit the mistake, apologise, and explain on the spot, which demonstrated the situation handling skills of the restaurant employees. Hence, the current finding supports the conceptual premise that if customers perceive their participation in service recovery and firm recovery as fair, they will perceive the service brand as of high quality.

9.2.3.3 Mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and Perceived value

Another interesting finding was that perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery and perceived value. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Kuo *et al.* (2013). They stated that perceived value results from an evaluation of the relative benefits and costs or sacrifices associated with the offering. If customers perceive that they have received justice after a service recovery, they may perceive high value from buying the service (Oliver and Swan, 1989). The current study's findings are similar to that of Daskin and Kasim (2016). They claimed that perceived value is promoted after the service firm and its employees successfully provide effective service recovery. The findings from the qualitative study also suggest that the consumers' who receive service recovery perceive that the service response is just. Further, they perceive that the trade-off between what they have received in return for what they have given is positive.

A possible explanation for this might be that customers perceived value originates from the service act itself that is satisfactory (Zauner *et al.*, 2015). Another reason could be that frontline employees' performances at service encounters make a real difference in customer perceived value. For instance, according to Daskin and Kasim (2016), apologetic and caring behaviour makes the customers believe that the firm and employees are rewarding against the service failure. Hence, their perceived value towards the service brand enhances. Furthermore, other service recovery elements are important in assessing service recovery, such as the convenience of the overall process and the time needed for delivery of the service (Odoom et al., 2019), which provides weight to the customers' gains after a service recovery. This assessment will constitute perceived justice that influences the perceived value of overall service transactions (Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007). The promotion of perceived value is critical for the service brands in today's competitive environment because it is a source of differentiation for the service brands (Slack *et al.*, 2020). Thus, the current finding supports the conceptual premise that if customers perceive the service recovery as fair, they will perceive that they are getting high value from the service.

9.2.3.4 Mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and Brand Reputation

In this study, perceived justice was found to mediate the relationship between service recovery and brand reputation. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Kim (2009), who showed that perceived justice plays a key role in managing the reputation of a service firm. This finding further supports the idea of Shin *et al.* (2018), who assert that outcomes of perceived justice have been seen as increasingly important for firms concerned with enhancing their reputation. It has been speculated that perceived justice can influence how customers perceive a service firm based on experience or impressions, and these perceptions lead to associations that contribute to a total picture of the service firm (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015).

The mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and brand reputation may also be explained by the fact that actions of service employees, such as treating their customers fairly, can lead to positive brand associations held by the customers (Brown *et al.*, 2006; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2002; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019). The expected levels of perceived justice make the customers believe that the firm's employees are well trained and resonate with the ideas of the service brand and thus assist in managing the firm's reputation. These associations over a long period of time make brand reputation (Keller, 2020; Walker, 2010). In other words, CPSR and FR can enhance brand reputation if customers perceive the service recovery as fair.

9.2.3.5 Mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and Brand Trust

Another interesting finding was that perceived justice mediates the effect of Service recovery (CPSR and FR) on brand trust. In other words, service recovery can enhance brand trust by enhancing consumers' perceptions of the fairness of service recovery. The findings observed in this study mirror those of the previous studies that have examined the role of perceived justice in influencing customers' trust (Babin *et al.*, 2021; Liu *et al.*, 2021; Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019). In other words, perceived justice can positively influence consumer attitude where consumers perceive the service firm as fair in treating them after a service failure which exerts an impact on customers' trust (Liu *et al.*, 2021). Within the service recovery process, customers usually value more on the firm's verbal assurances and consider it an element of interactional justice, which further improves the confidence and reliance on the firm (Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019). As Wang and Chen (2011) suggested, when customers perceive that the justice levels are adequate, their trust levels increase.

There are several possible explanations for this result. Firstly, service recovery enhances consumers' fairness levels. In turn, it increases the belief of consumers in the service firm as a reliable, honest, and benevolent brand that enhances their trust in the service firm (Liu *et al.*, 2021). Secondly, an effective service recovery that includes explaining the failure and recovery process reduces the uncertainty levels among customers (Bradley and Sparks, 2012; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016). The reduction in anxiety leads to a positive evaluation of service recovery response, consequently increasing the consumer's trust in service brands (Santos and Basso, 2012). Further, a service recovery that is equipped with an apology (Min *et al.*, 2020), compensation (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019), and proper explanation (Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016) enhance consumers' perceptions of the service firm competency, which lead to perceived justice and subsequently increasing consumer trust in the service firm (Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). Therefore, service firms should enhance consumers' confidence in firms' service recovery procedures and outcomes, enhancing consumers' perceptions of justice and fairness and consequently winning the customers' trust.

9.2.3.6 Mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and Brand Loyalty

The result of hypothesis testing confirms the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery (CPSR and FR) and brand loyalty. This finding confirms the association between service recovery and brand loyalty through perceived justice. This finding is in agreement with Karatepe (2006) findings which showed that a high level of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice lead to high levels of consumer loyalty. It is also encouraging to compare this result with that found by De Ruyter and Wetzels (2000), who found that effective service recoveries provided by the service firm lead to consumers' perceptions of fair treatment, which subsequently enhances customer loyalty to the service brand. The findings related to the involvement of customers in service recovery processes allow the customers to have cognitive, behavioural and decisional control on the solution of the problems. Joosten et al. (2017) confirmed that perceived justice is enhanced when customers exercise control over the service recovery process. Further, they elaborate that elevated levels of perceived justice may result in customer loyalty. The current study's findings also resonate with Roggeveen *et al.*'s (2012) investigations, where they found perceived justice as a key mediator between customer participation in service recovery and its outcomes (recovery satisfaction and repurchase intentions).

Several possible explanations can support this finding. Firstly, when service firms demonstrate fairness in recovering from service failures and show concern for the customers, they are likely to perceive it as fair and enhance customer loyalty with their brands (Kim and Baker, 2020b). Secondly, service recovery enhances consumers' perceptions of fairness of the service recovery outcomes, which increases consumers' satisfaction with the service firm, and these highly satisfied customers become loyal to the service firm (Cantor and Li, 2019; Smith and Bolton, 1998). This finding shows that when effective service recovery is provided, it leads to customers' perceptions of fairness, allowing customers to develop better impressions of the service firms' future behaviours and performances, which subsequently enhances consumer loyalty to the service firm (Liu *et al.*, 2021). The current finding supports the conceptual premise that if customers perceive the co-created service recovery and firm recovery as fair, they will become loyal to the service brand.

Table 9.2 Results of Hypothesis 8-13

	Mediating role of perceived justice	**Result**
H8	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a.Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and overall brand equity	Supported
H9	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived quality	Supported
H10	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived value	Supported
H11	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand reputation	Supported
H12	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand trust	Supported
H13	Perceived justice mediates the relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand loyalty	Supported

9.2.5 RQ4: What is the moderating role of service failure severity?

In accordance with the present results, previous studies also have demonstrated that though service recovery measures can affect customer's perception of justice, this relationship may get distorted if service failure severity is considered (Albrecht *et al.*, 2019). Similarly, Liao (2007) found that the impact of service recovery on customer evaluations of service recovery is influenced by severity of the failure. The observed relationship between service recovery and perceived justice might be explained so that when customers are treated with respect, sensitivity, and dignity after a service failure, they will perceive the service recovery as fair and just (Colquitt, 2001). The intensity of service failure induces strong emotional reactions in customers (Sarkar *et al.*, 2021), sometimes ignoring the service firm's efforts to recover from the failure. Thus, results in the decline of perceived justice levels. It can thus be suggested that service recovery (CPSR and FR) can enhance perceived justice; however, this relationship will vary with the severity of service failure. For example, the link between service recovery and perceived justice may be stronger for low service failure severity incidents than high failure severity cases.

This study also shows that service failure severity moderates the relationship between service recovery and overall brand equity. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research, which found service failure severity can affect the evaluation of a service provider after a service failure and their future relationship with the service brand (Balaji and Sarkar, 2013). This result may be explained by the fact that service failure severity can change customer expectations and subsequently influence customer's evaluation of service recovery efforts. Higher service failure severity generates a greater perception of loss (Lin, 2011). It can thus be suggested that CPSR and FR can enhance overall brand equity; however, this relationship will vary with the severity of service failure. For example, the link between service recovery and overall brand equity may be stronger for low service failure severity incidents than high failure severity cases.

Another important finding was that the severity of service failure moderated CPSR and FR effect on perceived quality. This result corroborates the findings of a great deal of the previous work in this field. For instance, past research has found that service failure severity is an important factor that can decide how customers evaluate the efforts of a service provider (Balaji and Sarkar, 2013; Lin, 2011; Riaz and Khan, 2016). The results, thus, indicate that CPSR and FR can enhance perceived quality; however, this relationship will vary with the severity of service failure.

This study also shows that service failure severity moderates the influence of service recovery on perceived value. These results are consistent with those of other studies and suggest that when the severity of service failure increases, customers are more critical of service recovery efforts, and thus service recovery efforts are more likely to impact customer perceptions (Abney *et al.*, 2017; La and Choi, 2019; Weun *et al.*, 2004). Customers feel shattered after poor service experiences. The intensity of the failure enlarges their service recovery expectations (Xu et al., 2019). Therefore, any mismatch to the customer expectations leads to impact the post-recovery outcomes. It can thus be suggested that CPSR and FR can enhance perceived value; however, this relationship will vary with the severity of service failure.

One unanticipated finding is that the severity of service failure does not moderate CPSR and FR impact on brand reputation. The findings of the current study are consistent with those of Choi and Choi (2014) who found that service failure severity did not affect the relationship between service recovery initiatives such as interactional and procedural justice and customers' perceptions of brands. This finding is in agreement with Weun *et al.* (2004) findings which showed that service failure severity did not moderate the relationship between justice recovery and consumer-related outcomes. The results suggest that the influence of the process of service recovery on post-recovery reputation is stable across varying levels of service failure severity.

This result may be explained by the fact that a brand with high reputation is considered a strong brand and this brand strength provides a critical buffering from service failure severity (Sengupta *et al.*, 2015).

Although, these results are consistent with studies (Choi and Choi, 2014; Weun *et al.*, 2004), they do not support other previous research. For instance, this finding is not consistent with Cantor and Li (2019) findings that showed that service failure's severity has negative implications for the positive outcome of service recovery actions. This result is also not in agreement with La and Choi (2019), who asserted that the influence of service recovery on the evaluations or inferences about the service firm could be affected by the magnitude of a service failure. The disagreement between current study's findings and some of the previous research could be attributed to the context of the study and outcome variables. To illustrate, this study examined the moderating role of service failure severity for brand reputation as the outcome variable which explains this study's different findings from some of the extant research.

The current study also found that service failure severity moderates the influence of service recovery on brand trust. A decrease in the brand trust after a service recovery due to high service failure severity in this study corroborates earlier findings, showing that customers tend to act differently depending on the magnitude of the service failure severity (Israeli, Lee and Karpinski, 2019). This also accords with Liao (2007) finding that shows that service recovery initiatives result in positive outcomes; however, these positive outcomes were dependent on the severity of service failure. It can thus be suggested that CPSR and FR can enhance brand trust; however, this relationship will vary with the severity of service failure.

Finally, the results of the current study also indicate that magnitude of service failure may disrupt the relationship of service recovery with loyalty. These results match those observed in earlier studies that show that service failure's severity has negative implications for outputs of service recovery measures such as customer satisfaction (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Smith *et al.*, 1999; Wang *et al.*, 2011). Similar to the current findings, Roggeveen *et al.* (2012) suggested that customers become more interested in receiving a solution to the service failure when they experience a high severity failure. Furthermore, their findings claimed that altering levels of post-recovery outcomes is due to the intensity of failure. One of the reasons behind the altering levels is the unexpected and nonfrequent level of the failure. Due to the intensity of the failure, the performed service falls further away from the customers' zone of tolerance (Bugg-Holloway *et al.*, 2009) and therefore prone to generate a higher level of negative consequences (Sreejesh *et al.*, 2019).

Table 9.3 Results of Hypothesis 14-20

	Moderating role of service failure severity	**Result**
H14	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived justice is moderated by service failure severity	Supported
H15	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and overall brand equity is moderated by service failure severity	Supported
H16	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived quality is moderated by service failure severity	Supported
H17	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and perceived value is moderated by service failure severity	Supported
H18	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand reputation is moderated by service failure severity	Not Supported
H19	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand trust is moderated by service failure severity	Supported
H20	The relationship between service recovery (a. Customer participation in service recovery, b. Firm Recovery) and brand loyalty is moderated by service failure severity	Supported

9.2.4 RQ5: Which dimensions of CBBE produce service recovery paradox?

The fourth question in this research was regarding the occurrence of the service recovery paradox concerning the dimensions of CBBE. To answer this research question, Hypotheses 14a- 17e were tested after executing the pre-test post-test experiment. The set of hypotheses was divided according to the four conditions, i) customer participation in service recovery and high service failure severity (H21a-21e), ii) customer participation in service recovery and high service failure severity (H22a-22e), iii) firm recovery and low service failure severity (H23a-23e) iv) firm recovery and high service failure severity (H24a-24e). The following discussion is according to the mentioned sequence.

9.2.4.1 Customer participation in service recovery and Low service failure severity

Unexpectedly, the results did not detect any evidence for the service recovery paradox when customers participate in service recovery and experience a low service failure severity context. The observed difference between pre-failure levels and post-recovery levels of the dimensions of CBBE (brand loyalty, brand reputation, brand trust, perceived quality and perceived value) in this study were not significant. These results match those observed in earlier studies. For instance, McCollough (2000) found that no service recovery paradox emerges based on the strength of recovery performance alone. Similarly, Andreassen (2001) findings challenge the existence of the service recovery paradox. This study findings also corroborate the findings of Kau and Loh (2006), who showed that there is a lack of support of the recovery paradox effect.

The explanation for the lack of a recovery paradox is the delay of service. Although the delay mentioned in the scenario is short, the findings from the interviews suggested that a delay in serving the food generates long term negative consequences, which may diminish the effects of service recovery. As McCollough (2000), no service recovery effort can completely mitigate the harm caused by the failure. The paradox may occur if the response is overwhelming and unexpected (Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi, 2016). However, the restaurant customers might perceive free dessert or discounts as an expected service recovery response. Therefore, the recovery actions fail to exceed the pre-failure levels of customers concerning the dimensions of CBBE.

According to Khamitov *et al.* (2020), the service recovery paradox exists when the service recovery actions can completely alleviate the negative effects of service failure. Given the current results, the positive impact of customer participation in service recovery is observed. However, the positive impact does not support the levels of CBBE dimensions to exceed their pre-failure levels. Another explanation in this regard is that customers are provided with compensation and according to Kelly et al. (1993), service recovery, which involves correction and additional compensation beyond the correction of the failure, are rated less favourable than recovery measures that simply correct the problem. Thus, in case of customer participation in service recovery and low service failure severity

9.2.4.2 Customer participation in service recovery and high service failure severity

The results related to hypotheses 15a -15e were not supported. It was found that the post-recovery customers' levels of brand loyalty, brand trust, brand reputation, perceived quality and perceived value did not exceed their pre-failure levels. Hence failed to produce any paradox when customers participate in service recovery and the service failure severity is high. The current finding is consistent with Du *et al.*'s (2011) findings, showing that customers' negative emotions could be mitigated during service recovery efforts; however, customers' negative feelings cannot be completely restored to their initial levels. Findings of the current study conflict with the findings of Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi (2016) who suggests that who suggested that the recovery paradox only exist if the value is created in the service recovery by involving customers in the service recovery process. Similarly, the findings contradict Azemi *et al.* (2019), who states that one of the conditions of recovery paradox occurrence is when customers participate in service recovery.

A possible explanation for current results may be that the service recovery paradox exists when the initial service is not severely dissatisfying, and the service recovery exceeds the expectation and provides experiences that are better than just a satisfying level of initial service encounter (Michel and Meuter, 2008). The nonexistence of recovery paradox might be due to the high severity of service failure. As Magnini *et al.* (2007), states that the service recovery paradox may only exist when the service failure is not serious; consumers do not blame the service provider and do not believe the service failure occur in the future. Thus, it can be suggested that customers develop some basic expectations of how a service provider should deal with a service failure and react when the service recovery falls below the expected level (Priluck and Lala, 2009). Thus, for a severe service failure, customers participation in service recovery may not assist in producing a service recovery paradox.

9.2.4.3 Firm recovery and low service failure severity

Another important finding was that the service recovery paradox existed for firm recovery when service failure severity was low. More specifically, the customers' post-recovery levels of brand loyalty exceeded pre-failure levels in case of firm recovery. These results match those observed in earlier studies. For instance, Smith and Bolton (1998) found empirical support for the existence of the service recovery paradox in a way that loyalty was enhanced due to a highly satisfactory recovery. Similarly, Weitzl and Hutzinger (2017) showed that service recovery perceived as appropriate can lead to more favourable reactions such as increased repurchase intentions compared to a situation no complaint is made.

This result may be explained by the fact that in normal circumstances (in case of no failure), customers receive equivalent treatment as compared to other customers from the restaurant. However, after a service failure, the customer gains attention and extra care from the service provider (Hwang and Mattila, 2020; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015) as in the scenario given in the current study explains that the firm took care of the customer by providing apology, explanation and complimentary dessert as compensation. Therefore, a highly satisfactory recovery can increase cumulative satisfaction, which further leads to higher levels of loyalty (Smith and Bolton, 1998). The post-recovery levels of customers loyalty increase because of the presence of functional and symbolic elements of service recovery. As Yani-de-Soriano *et al.* (2019) explained, satisfied customers are more willing to purchase again and stay loyal to the service brand in the long run after the service recovery. Thus, for a low severity service, the firms have an opportunity to increase the levels of brand loyalty more than pre-failure.

Surprisingly, this study could not find evidence of service recovery paradox for other dimensions of CBBE in the low service failure severity context when firms undertake service recovery. The observed difference between pre-failure state and post-recovery state for CBBE dimensions, including perceived quality, perceived value brand reputation, and brand trust in this study, was not significant. The observed absence of service recovery paradox could be attributed to the characteristic of service failure (Azemi *et al.*, 2019) as the service failure may have perceived as unexpected by the customers, and even service recovery doesn't improve the post-recovery outcomes to the extent that the levels surpass the pre-failure levels. Therefore, for low severity service failure, firm recovery might not produce a service recovery paradox for CBBE dimensions other than brand loyalty. It is encouraging to compare this figure with that found by Kau and Loh (2006), who found that no service recovery paradox exists as customer satisfaction and other outcomes cannot be brought to pre-service failure level even if the service recovery is successful. This finding also supports previous research by McCollough (2000), and Andreassen (2001) found that no service recovery paradox occurs in case of low severe failure expectations.

9.2.4.5 Firm recovery and high service failure severity

In case, where customers receive recovery from the firm and service failure severity was high, an interesting finding was that brand loyalty enhanced from pre-failure and recovery phase when a firm-initiated service recovery in case of high service failure severity. Thus, there existed a service recovery paradox for firm recovery when service failure was high. These findings further support the ideas of Azemi *et al.* (2019), who explained that if the firm promptly responds to the service failure and provides compensation to the customers, the service recovery paradox occurs. The reasons for the recovery paradox occurrence provided by Azemi *et al.* (2019) are found in the hypothetical scenario given to the respondents of this study. For example, in the scenario, it was mentioned that after a service delay of 1 hour, the firm provides immediate apology, explanation and prompt compensation in the shape of a complimentary dessert. The provision of a complimentary dessert might have triggered the respondents to rate the brand loyalty levels higher than what they rated in the pre-failure phase.

The explanation of the results also gets support from the literature. For example, one of the most frequent positive outcomes of service recovery mentioned in the previous studies is that customers intend to stick with the firm and show positive signs of buying from the service brand frequently in the future (Bahmani *et al.*, 2020; Jin *et al.*, 2020; Matikiti *et al.*, 2019; Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019). Bahmani *et al.* (2020) suggested that customers in the hospitality industry are more willing to stick with the firm and purchase more if provided with compensation. Qualitative findings also suggest that upon receiving a satisfactory service recovery, the interviewees seemed delighted and showed positive opinions about revisiting the service brand in future. In other words, customers must receive satisfactory recovery after every failure incident which may result in long-term customer commitment. Thus, for a high severity service failure, a prompt action in the shape of verbal apology and compensation by the firm creates a service recovery paradox for brand loyalty.

Contrary to expectations, this study did not find any evidence of service recovery paradox for other CBBE dimensions in the high service failure severity context when firms undertake service recovery. The current study's findings are consistent with the previous studies that did not find any paradox (Andreassen, 2001; Du *et al.*, 2011; Kau and Loh, 2006; Lin *et al.*, 2011; McCollough, 2000). For example, Kau and Loh (2006) showed no service recovery paradox exists as customer satisfaction and other outcomes could not surpass the pre-service failure level even if the service recovery was successful. On the other hand, according to Du *et al.* (2011), customers develop negative feelings towards the brand after a service failure, and the negative feelings restrict the customers' post-recovery levels (of brand-related outcomes) to exceed the pre-failure levels. The evidence of generating strong negative feelings is also recorded in the qualitative data analysis, which seemed to affect the informants in the long run and thus, some of them were not fully satisfied with the service recovery efforts.

Another explanation to the results is that these results are because the service recovery paradox may only exist when the service failure is not serious, consumers do not blame the service provider and do not believe the service failure occurs in the future (Magnini *et al.*, 2007). Thus, it can be suggested that customers develop some basic expectations of how a service provider should deal with the high severity of service failure and react when the service recovery falls below the expected level (Priluck and Lala, 2009). Therefore, for a high severity service failure, firm-based recovery might not produce a service recovery paradox for the CBBE dimensions, including brand reputation, perceived quality, perceived value, and brand trust.

Table 9.4 Results of hypothesis 21a-24e

Paradox hypotheses		Result
H21a-e	If a firm exercises service recovery (CPSR) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty ratings will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.	Not Supported
H22a-e	If a firm exercises service recovery (CPSR) after a high severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust e) brand loyalty ratings will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.	Not Supported
H23a-d	If a firm exercises service recovery (FR) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust ratings will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.	Not Supported
H23e	If a firm exercises service recovery (FR) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of brand loyalty ratings will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings	Supported
H24a-d	If a firm exercises service recovery (FR) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of a) perceived quality b) perceived value c) brand reputation d) brand trust ratings will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings.	Not supported
H24e	If a firm exercises service recovery (FR) after a low severity service failure, the customer's post-recovery ratings in terms of brand loyalty ratings will be higher than customer's pre-failure ratings	Supported

9.3 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings of the five research questions which were developed in chapter 2. The discussion is done in the light of quantitative and qualitative analysis. The consistency and contradiction of current findings with the existing literature are discussed.

In relation to RQ1, the current study found that brand loyalty, brand reputation, brand trust, perceived quality and perceived value fluctuate during a service failure and recovery process. The qualitative findings demonstrate that the mentioned dimensions of CBBE decline after a service failure but have the tendency to improve after service recovery. Thus, contributing to the literature by identifying the vulnerable factors related to CBBE.

In response to RQ2, service recovery (CPSR and FR) positively impacts post-recovery outcomes, including perceived justice and CBBE. In the qualitative study, the dimensions that tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process were taken in the quantitative study. The impact of service recovery on these dimensions was examined. All post-recovery outcomes utilised in this study were impacted positively by Service recovery. Regarding RQ3, perceived justice was a key mediator between service recovery (CPSR and FR) and CBBE. The discussion of RQ4 is regarding the moderating role of service failure severity which was found to be a significant moderator in the framework.

Finally, the chapter includes the discussion related to the answer to RQ5. Service recovery paradox regarding brand loyalty occurs regardless of the intensity of service failure but only if the firm initiates the service recovery. No evidence of service recovery is found in cases when customers participate in service recovery. Thus, contributing the literature in examining CBBE dimensions as the subject of the recovery paradox.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

The chapter of the conclusion includes the key contributions of the current thesis. It also highlights the limitations and potential areas for future research. The chapter starts by describing the theoretical contribution of this research. Next, the methodological contributions are discussed. The managerial implications then follow it. Finally, limitations and future research areas are presented.

10.2 Theoretical Contributions

The current thesis contributes in several ways to the literature on service recovery and brand equity. Firstly, this work contributes to existing knowledge of service recovery and brand equity by providing evidence of the positive influence of Service recovery (CPSR and FR) in enhancing brand equity. This study has demonstrated, for the first time, that brand equity can be an outcome of service recovery. Existing research has examined brand equity as a mediator (Harun *et al.*, 2019), as a driver of evaluations of service encounters (Brady *et al.*, 2008), and as a moderator between service recovery and post-recovery outcomes (Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Huang, 2011). To the researcher's best knowledge, the current study is the first to empirically examine brand equity as an outcome of service recovery initiatives. Specifically, this study revealed that both CPSR and FR result in enhanced brand equity. In other words, the empirical findings in this study provide a new understanding of how recovering from service failure builds goodwill, thus mitigating the effect of a poor service experience on the brand and consequently enhancing brand equity.

Secondly, the contribution of this study relates to the knowledge of customer participation in service recovery. Although the current study is in agreement with the previous research, which identifies service recovery as a firm-initiated phenomenon (Bahmani *et al.*, 2020; Chen and Kim, 2019; Chen *et al.*, 2018; del Río-Lanza *et al.*, 2009; Smith *et al.*, 1999), it extends the growing body of knowledge related to the customer participation in service recovery (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020; Dong *et al.*, 2016; Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016; Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012; Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2019). The previous research investigates the instances when customers' participation in service recovery is appropriate (Xu, Marshall, *et al.*, 2014) and how it affects recovery satisfaction (Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016; Kim and Baker, 2020a), repurchase intentions (Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Vázquez-Casielles *et al.*, 2017), intentions to future co-creation (Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016). However, these studies do not examine the role of customer participation in service recovery in enhancing perceived justice and other brand-related outcomes. The current findings contribute by examining the influence of customer participation in service recovery on perceived justice, overall brand equity, brand loyalty, brand reputation, brand trust, perceived quality and perceived value. This answers the call for empirical research into the different mechanisms underlying the effects of service recovery on customer evaluations (Van Vaerenbergh *et al.*, 2019).

The third contribution of the current study is that it attempts to enhance our understanding of the dimensions of CBBE, which tend to fluctuate within service failure and recovery process. The existing studies have examined the impact of service recovery primarily on brand loyalty (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019), brand trust (Pacheco *et al.*, 2019; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016), positive emotions (Gohary, Hamzelu, Pourazizi, *et al.*, 2016; Kozub *et al.*, 2014), positive word of mouth (Akinci and Aksoy, 2019; Davidow, 2003), repurchase intentions(Basso and Pizzutti, 2016; Hwang *et al.*, 2020; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002). However, the presence of the dependant outcomes originates from the literature. Whereas, in the current study, the qualitative analysis identified the CBBE dimensions that tend to fluctuate in service failure and recovery process. The levels of the CBBE dimensions decline after a service failure, but when service recovery is initiated, the level of dimensions seems to enhance. The findings related to the enhancing levels of CBBE dimensions were further confirmed in the quantitative phase.

The fourth contribution is related to the comparison of the impacts of CPSR and FR on post-recovery outcomes. The existing literature on CPSR suggests promising results regarding the preference of CPSR over FR (Hazée *et al.*, 2017; Karande *et al.*, 2007; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012). However, the results of the current study suggest that the impacts of CPSR and FR on post-recovery outcomes (perceived justice, dimensions of CBBE which tend to fluctuate, and overall brand equity) are not statistically different.

A fifth significant theoretical contribution concerns the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and brand-related outcomes. Though some research has been carried out on the mediating role of perceived justice (Liao, 2007; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012), there is no scientific understanding of the mediating effect of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE in the literature. Current research advances this literature by revealing that perceived justice intervenes between service recovery and brand-related outcomes, including overall brand equity, brand loyalty, brand reputation, brand trust, perceived quality and perceived value. In other words, this is the first study reporting an increase in CBBE and its dimensions by enhancing customers perception of fairness of service recovery through both firm recovery and customers participation in service recovery.

The current findings also add to a growing body of literature on dimensions of perceived justice. Most of the research on service recovery considers perceived justice consisting of three dimensions: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Choi and Choi, 2014; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Muhammad and Gul-E-Rana, 2020; Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012). A review of the literature revealed that informational justice is neglected in extant service research. Only a few studies exist that have examined the role of informational justice in enhancing post-recovery outcomes (Chalmers, 2016; Gohary, Hamzelu and Alizadeh, 2016; Nikbin *et al.*, 2013). However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, no study has examined the role of informational justice in enhancing CBBE and its dimensions. The present study provides evidence with respect to perceived justice components (including informational justice) that determine the factor structure of perceived justice and consequently play the intervening role between service recovery and brand-related outcomes.

The thesis contributes to the body of knowledge by identifying that brand loyalty is the only dimension that may produce a service recovery paradox if the service recovery is provided by the firm. Previous research has examined the occurrence of service recovery paradox concerning customer satisfaction (Azemi et al., 2019; Michel and

Meuter, 2008; Tax et al., 1998), loyalty (Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi, 2016; Smith and Bolton, 1998; Weitzl and Hutzinger, 2017), image (Andreassen, 2001), and repurchase intentions (Gohary, Hamzelu and Pourazizi, 2016; Soares et al., 2017; Voorhees et al., 2006). In the current study, none of the other dimensions of CBBE produces a service recovery paradox apart from brand loyalty. However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study that investigates the service recovery paradox concerning brand reputation, brand trust, perceived quality, and perceived value.

Finally, this research extends our knowledge about service failure typologies. It is a significant contribution as it provides a more inclusive set of failure typologies as compared to the existing typologies. Existing research is built on three different perspectives of service failure typologies, the first by Bitner *et al.* (1990), which includes system delivery failure, nonfulfillment of customers' requests, and unsolicited/unwanted behaviour. The second by Keaveney (1995) consists of core service and encounter failure. the third by Smith *et al.* (1999) includes outcome and process service failures. However, the major flaws of extant failure typologies are that they are too general in nature and lack precision. Traces of confusion are found in literature where the same example of service failure is treated in different types of failures (Forbes, 2008; Migacz et al., 2018; Tsai and Su, 2009). The empirical findings in this study provide a new understanding of typologies of service failure that can be divided into three main types and nine subtypes, which clearly segregate the types based on their distinct characteristics. By segregating and dividing into subtypes, it further clarifies the different nature of the failure type, and thus its effects on brands could be examined separately. The detailed description can be found in section 5.7 and Table 5.1 in chapter 5.

10.3 Methodological Contributions

The current thesis provides key methodological contributions related to i) the development of hypothetical scenarios which were aimed to be closer to reality and ii) minimisation of the impact of deceitful and biased responses collected in the quantitative phase to enhance the validity and reliability of the findings.

Firstly, this study is the first of its kind within service recovery and branding literature, which explains the key ingredients to build hypothetical scenarios. The three key ingredients are i) the setting, ii) the actors or agents iii) the plot. A detailed description of the key ingredients is described in chapter 7, section 7.4.2. an addition to the methodological contribution is that qualitative analysis is utilised to select the setting, the actors, and the plot to develop the hypothetical scenario closer to reality.

Secondly, deceitful responses are part and parcel when the data is collected through crowdsourcing platforms—uninterested respondents who want to participate merely to get a financial reward to produce biased responses. However, there are techniques available to control this biasness. The current study utilised the attention check technique, which minimised these kinds of responses. Finally, the current study adopted a holistic approach which included a systematic literature review, semi-structured interviews and scenario-based experiments to answer the research questions. The adoption of this holistic approach enhanced the validity and reliability of the current study's findings.

10.4 Practical Contributions

The findings of this study provide several valuable guidelines to service marketers on how to enhance overall brand equity, perceived quality, perceived value, brand reputation, brand trust, and brand loyalty by utilising the mechanism of service recovery. Specifically, this study provides insight into enabling customer participation in service recovery to overcome the negative effects of service failure. Understanding the effect of service recovery on brand-related outcomes and the mechanism of initiating service recovery (CPSR and FR) are crucial for service marketers responsible for managing service brands. The current study has direct implications for managing service brands' health and growth in service failure situations by addressing these unavoidable service issues (Israeli, Lee and Bolden, 2019). In other words, this thesis has several managerial implications and address important issues of service brand management (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012).

The first set of managerial guidelines concerns the participation of customers in recovering from service failures. This study discovered that customer participation in service recovery enhances perceived justice, overall brand equity, brand loyalty, brand trust, perceived quality, perceived value, and brand reputation. Therefore, service firms should find ways to involve customers in initiating and implementing the recovery effectively. This can be done by training service employees (Karatepe *et al.*, 2019) to enable customers' participation in the recovery. Involving customers in service recovery will allow service employees to understand customers' wants and needs, leading to recovery from service failure effectively (Xu, Tronvoll, *et al.*, 2014). For example, a service employee can ask the customer point-blank what can be done to resolve the service failure.

Allowing customers to participate in service recovery will make them feel more empowered and in control (Guo, Lotz, *et al.*, 2016), which might develop positive brand associations, including increased perceived quality, perceived value, and reputation. Customer perceptions are one of the keys in differentiating a service from its competition (De Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley, 1999) and will lead to enhanced behavioural and emotional responses such as brand loyalty (DeWitt *et al.*, 2008; La and Choi, 2019; Yani-de-Soriano *et al.*, 2019) and brand trust (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016; Urueña and Hidalgo, 2016). Thus, training service employees in ways to involve customers in service recovery will enable them to execute effective co-created service recovery, which may act as a cost-effective service recovery procedure. Service managers should enhance their employees understanding of scenarios where customers participation in service recovery is required and consequently involve customers in service recovery co-creation to generate positive outcomes for the service brand (Bagherzadeh *et al.*, 2020).

Customer participation in service recovery will also allow flexibility in solving the service issue (Roggeveen *et al.*, 2012). Service managers should see if they can mend the standard procedure to incorporate customers' suggestions in recovering from service failure while also not damaging the brand reputation. Customer participation in the service recovery can also make consumers realise that they are getting a solution in the right way (Hazée *et al.*, 2017). Thus, it is necessary to apologise, explain the reason for service failure, and provide alternatives for compensation for the customer to choose. In other words, consumers expect to be listened by the service firm and encounter a well-balanced service recovery mechanism in terms of process and outcomes.

The findings of this study highlight the importance of the perception of fairness in service recovery situations. Managers are advised to be careful while planning and executing the service recovery. First, to enhance the perceptions of fairness of service recovery, service managers should make sure that an immediate apology is given to the customer regardless of the source of service failure (Min *et al.*, 2020). Second, managers should pay complete attention and carefully listen to customers while they are explaining the problems they encountered with the service(Beauchamp and Barnes, 2015). After listening to customers' complaints, managers should explain why the service failure happened (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). Third, service managers should also explain how the problem will be resolved. However, managers should be careful not to create unrealistic expectations from the service firm in terms of service recovery. Finally, managers should offer compensation to customers to pacify them in addition to correcting or reperforming the flawed service (Kenesei and Bali, 2020; Liu *et al.*, 2019). Enhancing perceptions of fairness will lead to an increase in overall brand equity, brand loyalty, brand trust, perceived quality, perceived value, and brand reputation. Therefore, service firms should undertake service recovery, which is perceived as fair and just by the customer.

Another managerial implication from the study concerns firm recovery measures. Managers can undertake service recovery without involving customers in the recovery (Liao, 2007; Min *et al.*, 2020; Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). Service managers can use such service recovery mechanisms to affect post-failure consumer behaviour. Specifically, the current study's findings suggest that firm recovery can enhance overall brand equity, brand loyalty, brand trust, perceived quality, perceived value, and brand reputation. Firm recovery will also allow managers in maintaining standard practices and policies, which will increase the service recovery efficiency and reduce the cost of recovery (Min *et al.*, 2020). Incorporating standard service recovery procedures and policies will enable consumers in knowing beforehand what to expect from the service provider regarding resolving their complaints. This can also develop the perception in service consumers that the service firm cares for the customers and is eager to recover from service failure (Mostafa *et al.*, 2015). In other words, service employees should take recovery actions quickly to mitigate the negative effects of service failure, leading to positive brand-related outcomes. This may also create brand associations such as consumer-friendly, responsible, and empathetic service brands.

This study also presents a typology of a service failure, which managers can use to understand the types of failures in a service setting. Specifically, this study divides service failures into core service failures, supplementary service failures, and interactional service failures. The study explains the characteristics of each type of service failure with examples. Understanding service failure types will allow managers to identify the most critical type of service failure for their service setting (Singhal *et al.*, 2013). Managers will be able to develop a codebook of recovery mechanisms that suggest the type of actions employees may take when a certain type of failure occurs. Furthermore, it will assist the service brand managers in placing potential failure points and types of service failures in their service blueprint (see Shostack, 1984). It will allow the service firms to have developed service recovery mechanisms and improve employees' readiness through training, empowerment, and motivation beforehand.

The findings of the moderation analysis suggest service failure severity plays an important role in the effect of service recovery on outcomes, including perceived justice and brand-related outcomes. Specifically, the findings guide managers that when the service failure is of high severity, the impact of service recovery on its outcomes will diminish. This suggests that managers may need to avoid high severity service failures, and if a high severity service failure occurs, managers need to offer substantial monetary compensation in addition to sincere apologies, quick response to a service failure, or other non-monetary compensation. In other words, service managers need to use every possible way to enhance customers affection and reduce their negative feelings. Similarly, suppose the service failure is of low severity. In that case, service managers can enhance perceptions of procedural and interactional justice that may enhance customers' positive feelings and reduce negative feelings (Choi and Choi, 2014). Thus, the findings offer service managers a guide to select the optimum way to recover from service failure of any magnitude.

Finally, the results of this study are broadly indicative of the existence of the service recovery paradox in the case of firm recovery. Specifically, the findings suggest that a successful service recovery in response to a service failure may enhance brand loyalty to higher levels than initial levels of loyalty prior to the service failure. In other words, service failures may provide an opportunity to service firms to enhance brand loyalty beyond the initial level of brand loyalty by undertaking an efficient and effective firm recovery without involving the customers in service recovery measures.

10.5 Limitations and Future Research directions

Despite the valuable contributions that this study brings to the service marketing and branding literature, the findings of this study are subject to several limitations, which have revealed questions in need of further investigation. First, data were collected using scenario-based experiments, which may restrict the generalisability of the findings. In other words, the data collection procedure limits the external validity of the results of this study. Although data collection can be more robust if the experimental data were collected in a real-life setting, ethical concerns regarding exposing consumers to service delays make it infeasible to collect data in a real-life setting. However, these study findings are supplemented with semi-structured interviews, which enhances the external validity of the results. What is now needed is a similar study involving service consumers in a lab setting which will evaluate the validity of the current study's result and may find some new interesting relationships. Future research might also use a survey approach to replicate the study findings.

Second, this study utilised 'delay in core service' as the type of service failure. Although it is one of the most frequently occurring service failures in the service industry (Mohd-Any *et al.*, 2019), other critical service failure types such as unavailability of core service and other hindrances in core service failure may reveal different outcomes of service recovery initiatives (Hwang and Mattila, 2020; Sharifi *et al.*, 2017). More research is needed to better understand the influence of CPSR and FR on brand-related outcomes by using service failure types other than 'delay in core service'. Furthermore, the service delay in this study's context was caused by the service firm rather than the uncontrollable external factors, including power outages or inclement weather. Hence, the positive effect of service recovery in the current study's setting might be limited to the situations where the failure is not caused by external environmental factors. Service failures caused by environmental factors and

customers themselves may cause different reactions against service recovery. Therefore, further research is required to extend current research findings to other service failures which can be attributed to external factors or to the customers.
Third, this study examined service failure severity as a moderator. However, failure attribution is another factor that may influence the relationship of service recovery with its outcomes. Failure attribution is found to be a critical external factor that may influence consumer behaviour when service recovery is initiated (Dong *et al.*, 2016; Matikiti *et al.*, 2019; Moliner-Velázquez *et al.*, 2015). Future research might examine the outcome of service recovery by including failure attribution as a moderator at three levels. i) failure attributed to the firm, ii) failure attributed to customers, iii) failure attributed to external factors.

Another limitation of this study is that the service industry chosen for the current study was a restaurant. Although the restaurant industry is among those which suffer from frequent service failures (Bambauer-Sachse and Rabeson, 2015; Hwang and Mattila, 2020), other service industries could have been an interesting context of the study. Therefore, future research should include the airlines, telecommunication companies, or hotels as the context of the study. Future research can also focus on conducting comparative studies between different service sectors. All in all, there are a number of contexts and factors in the service sector that are worthy of further examination.

The current investigation was limited by the sampling procedure employed for the data collection of the quantitative phase. More specifically, data were collected using convenience sampling using Prolific Academic (ProA), a crowdsourcing platform. Though Prolific is accepted as a reliable source of data collection (Hogreve *et al.*, 2019; Sharifi and Spassova, 2020), the sampling procedure generated a non-random sample of respondents that limits the generalisability of this study results. More research is needed to better understand the results of this study by collecting data from a naturalistic setting.

Finally, the sample was nationally representative of the UK but would tend to miss people from other cultures and geographic areas. In other words, selecting a sample from the UK does not allow drawing inferences that are generalisable to other cultures and regions, thus limiting the cross-cultural validity of this study findings. Future research should be conducted by collecting data from other geographic regions, including the USA, Middle East, China, India, etc. Differences in cultures determine the personality traits that influence consumer choices (Shavitt and Barnes, 2020). Thus, conducting similar research in other regions would confirm this study results and provide evidence of external validity.

10.6 Summary

The chapter started by describing the contributions. The key theoretical contributions include the enhancement in the literature of service recovery and CBBE. The contributions included identifying CBBE dimensions that fluctuate in service failure and recovery process, the positive impact of service recovery on CBBE dimensions and overall brand equity, the occurrence of paradox with only brand loyalty, and the mediating role of perceived justice between service recovery and CBBE.

With regards to the methodological contributions, this study provided key insights about how to develop hypothetical scenarios in an experiment. Next, the study provided recommendations for service managers concerning the criticality of service recovery in influencing the overall strength of the brand. Finally, the chapter identified limitations and the areas which need further investigation.

Appendices

Appendix A Interview Guide

1. We all consume services in our lives; what services do you consume mainly?

2. Can you think of occasions where the level of service you received was below your expectations?

3. Now, can you think of any specific occasion where you consider that the level of service was not up to your expectations and made you unhappy?
   a. What exactly happened? Why did it happen? Please elaborate
   b. How did you react/ feel after the failure? Please elaborate
   c. Can you please describe the nature of the failure in terms of its severity? High/low? Why?
   d. What do you think about the probability of the same incident reoccurring?
      i. For what reasons you say it will reoccur or not reoccur?

4. After experiencing the service failure, what were your perceptions/assessments of the service?
   a. What aspects of the service brand have affected, in your opinion? How? Why?

5. What were your expectations from the service firm to do after the service failure? Please elaborate

6. How did the firm actually respond to rectify the failure, what did they do? Can you explain in detail?

7. How would you evaluate their response? On what aspects?
   a. How would you describe their response in terms of fairness? How could it have been better or worse?
   b. How would you assess the firm in terms of the time it took to respond? How could it have been better or worse?
   c. How would you assess them in terms of the behaviour/ communication of their employees? How could it have been better or worse?
   d. How would you assess the response in terms of the explanation they provided of service failure and recovery they delivered? How could it have been better or worse?

8. Can you please describe your participation or input in recovering the service? If at all? (If the answer is "no participation" go to question *9c*)
   a. How did you participate (or given input) in recovering the failure? Please elaborate?
   b. How did you feel about the participation or your input? Benefited or costed you? How?
   c. In your opinion, how you could have participated (or given input) in order to have a better solution? Please explain
   d. Can you please elaborate on how your participation (or input) in recovering the service would have benefited or costed you? Please elaborate? (Only ask if the answer to 9 is no participation)

9. After experiencing service recovery/ receiving the response from the service firm what were your perceptions/assessment about the service? How it changed if at all? Why or why not?

Appendix B Thematic Analysis Example

<table>
<tr><th>Theme</th><th>Sub-theme</th><th colspan="2">Quote</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="12">Dimensions of CBBE</td><td rowspan="9">Brand Reputation</td><td colspan="2">Post-failure Assessment</td></tr>
<tr><td>"My overall perception about them decreased a bit yeah because it just it became an ordeal to have to try and exchange" (F11iii, 22)</td><td rowspan="3">Decline</td></tr>
<tr><td>"I would say that they must have dropped their reputation to 4 out of 10 because as a well-established company which had been operating in the UK for many years, I expected better from them but they performed opposite to their reputation" (M4i, 30)</td></tr>
<tr><td>"They might be thinking that they can do whatever they want to do and people will come eventually because of the taste of the food but I think this is wrong and kind of blackmailing, they might not be losing customers initially, but they are certainly losing their reputation and they might not survive for long" (M7, 33)</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Post-Recovery Assessment</td></tr>
<tr><td>"My overall perceptions towards the company was that they were an excellent company! Just the fact that they have excellent customer service, putting the customer at first, giving customer the options of providing the solutions that’s the important thing providing solutions and no blame games" (M8iii, 25)</td><td rowspan="2">Escalation</td></tr>
<tr><td>"They kept me informed that was important. And they did what they had to do, so that was a happy bonding and then gave me 3 months free services and also saying we are sorry, that put my overall estimation of that company right up" (F13, 69)</td></tr>
<tr><td>"They are misrepresenting themselves and due to that they have gone more down in my estimation" (F1, 56)</td><td>Decline</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2"></td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Brand Perceived Quality</td><td colspan="2">Post-Failure Assessment</td></tr>
<tr><td>"They were very incompetent, I think so there is not enough training of their employees because they were not able to add a name into an account, which is very simple" (F4ii, 33)</td><td>Declin e</td></tr>
</table>

		"I felt that the service was poor because we were not told why the flight was delayed and I felt that it was very unprofessional that the flight was delayed" (M5i, 22)	
		Post-Recovery Assessment	
		"They emailed again to me to reassure that everything is fine and whether I have got the refund and also asked for the feedback that how they dealt with the matter, so you know this tells you the good quality of the service provider" (F12ii, 53)	**Escalation**
		"Again the momentum to which they swiftly resolved the issue was very impressive for me" (M4ii, 30)	
		"…perception of quality went several levels down, now I don't expect much from budget airlines, this is why they are called budget airlines" (M1i, 39)	**Decline**
	Brand Trust	**Post-Failure Assessment**	
		"I think that trust on the restaurant is shaken because promise had been broken by them in terms of quality service that was their speediness of their service, secondly their inability of communicating to the customers" (M7, 33)	**Decline**
		"I do not trust [company name] anymore with my personal information, I think trust is the main thing here which has cracked my relationship with [company name], I don't trust them anymore!" (F6i, 23)	
		Post-Recovery Assessment	
		"But after they got active and made things better then again I had confidence that you know they will make sure that that is very unlikely to happen again" (M2ii, 67)	**Escalation**
		"if they would have done it proactively then faith on them would have regained but because I had to ask for it so nothing regained but even they damaged it more instead of availing the chance " (F2i, 32)	
		"My trustworthiness on the firm just went down because if the manager someone with responsibility cannot handle this professionally then what are you doing there? Just don't go there" (F7, 25)	

Appendix C Questionnaire Stage 1

Welcome

Welcome to the research conducted by the University of Glasgow. This study comprises of 2 parts. This is the first part of the study. In this part, you will be asked questions about a restaurant you visited lately. This should not take more than 4 minutes to complete. Upon successful completion of the first part, you will be invited to participate in the second part of the study.

Any information provided in this survey will be kept strictly confidential. It is completely voluntary to participate in this study. Please click here and read more details in the Participant Information Sheet. All the archived data will be electronically encrypted on a personal computer, at the University of Glasgow, based on the policy detailed in the link below:

https://www.gla.ac.uk/myglasgow/it/informationsecurity/confidentialdata/

In case of queries and concerns, please contact the researcher (Muhammad Ali Khan: m.khan.5@research.gla.ac.uk)

Instructions

Please think of a middle-range restaurant you visited lately and enter its name below.

- *Entering the name of the restaurant is crucial for the successful completion of this study.*
- *This is solely for research purposes and will help the researcher to remind you of the same restaurant in the second part of the study.*
- *You will not be able to complete the second part of the study without entering the name of the restaurant.*

Please think of the above-mentioned restaurant and choose an appropriate answer for the following statements

Indicate on a scale from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is excellent							
This restaurant is superior than other similar restaurants							
Obama was first president of USA							
This restaurant consistently performs better than all other restaurants							
I can always count on this restaurant for consistent performance							
This restaurant keeps promises it makes to customers							
This restaurant is always honest with me							
I believe the information that this restaurant provides me							
When making important decisions, this restaurant considers my welfare as well as its own							

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
This restaurant keeps my best interests in mind							
This restaurant is honest							
I will continue to stay with this restaurant							
I would not change this restaurant service provider in future							
In the near future, I intend to use more of the services provided by this restaurant							
I consider myself to be a faithful customer of this restaurant							
This restaurant is well known							
It is one of the leading restaurants							
It is easily recognizable							
The spellings of the word 'Prolific' starts with letter Z.							
What I get from this restaurant is worth the cost							
All the things considered (price, time and effort), services of this restaurant are a good buy							
Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is a good value for the money							
When I use services of this restaurant, I feel I am getting my money's worth							

Demographics

1. What is your gender?

☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Prefer not to say

2. What is your age?

☐ 18-24 ☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64 ☐ 65-75 ☐ Over 75

3. What is your ethnicity?

☐ White ☐ Mixed / multiple ethnic groups ☐ Asian / Asian British ☐ Black / African / Caribbean / Black British ☐ Other ethnic group

4. What is your highest level of qualification obtained?

☐High school ☐Technical / vocational training ☐ Professional qualification / diploma ☐Undergraduate ☐Postgraduate ☐ other (please specify) ____________

5. What is your employment status?

☐ Student ☐ Self-employed ☐ Working full-time ☐ Working part-time ☐ Out of work but looking for a job ☐ Out of work and not looking for a job ☐Retired ☐ Other (please specify) ____________

6. What is your Household income?

☐ Below £10K ☐ £10000 - £24999 ☐ £25000 - £49999
☐ £50000 - £74999 ☐ £75000 - £99999 ☐ £100000 or more
☐ Prefer not to say

End of the Survey

Thank you very much for completing the first Phase of the survey! You will be invited to take part in the second phase soon.

Appendix D Questionnaire Stage 2

Welcome

Welcome to the survey conducted by the University of Glasgow. This study comprises of 2-parts. This is the second part of the study. In this part, you will be shown a hypothetical scenario of a restaurant experience followed by questions. **You can only answer the questions if you have fully read and understood the scenario.** This should not take more than 10 minutes to complete.

Any information provided in this survey will be kept strictly confidential. It is completely voluntary to participate in this study. Please click here and read more details in the Participant Information Sheet. All the archived data will be electronically encrypted on a personal computer, at the University of Glasgow, based on the policy detailed in the link below:
https://www.gla.ac.uk/myglasgow/it/informationsecurity/confidentialdata/

In case of queries and concerns, please contact the researcher (Muhammad Ali Khan: m.khan.5@research.gla.ac.uk

Instructions

VERY IMPORTANT POINTS BEFORE YOU CONTINUE!

1: This is the second part of the study.

2: In this part, you have to **think of the same restaurant you entered in the first part** and read the upcoming scenario.

3: The name of the restaurant you entered in the first part is **"${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}"**.

4: **Keep this restaurant in mind, consider yourself in the scenario** and answer the questions at the end.

5: This study includes filters to ensure that questions are not answered randomly.

6: Incorrect answers to crucial filters will lead to rejection and non-payment.

7: Therefore, to avoid your submission being rejected, please read the upcoming scenario because questions at the end can only be answered if you have read and understood the complete scenario.

Reminder

Before you continue!
Please think of **"${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}"** (the restaurant you entered in Part 1 of the study) and read the upcoming scenario.

***One of the below-mentioned scenarios appeared randomly before the respondents**

Scenario 1 (CPSR and Service failure severity is low)

Dinner at ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}

After a long day at work, you feel hungry, and you decide to go out for dinner. You go to ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}. It is not busy because it is a weekday. You order a starter and a main. You finish the starter and wait for the main. You wait for 25 minutes before your main is served, whereas the usual serving time is 15 minutes.

You inform the waiter about the problem and ask him about the reason for the delay. He acknowledges the mistake straight away and apologises for the delay in serving the main. He explains that the problem occurred due to a recent change in the preparation method of the food you ordered.

You and the waiter then discuss in detail about your requirements. Specifically, you discuss about your preferences of serving time. The waiter provides you with a comment card. He asks you to mention the details of the problem on the comment card to claim compensation.

After you finish your main, the waiter comes back and offers you alternative options for compensation against the delay you experienced. The options are:

a. Free dessert of your choice within an amount of £8
OR
b. £5 discount on your bill

Scenario 2 (CPSR and Service failure severity is High)

Dinner at ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}

After a long day at work, you feel hungry, and you decide to go out for dinner. You go to ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}. It is not busy because it is a weekday. You order a starter and a main. You finish the starter and wait for the main. You wait for 1 hour before your main is served, whereas the usual serving time is 15 minutes.

You inform the waiter about the problem and ask him about the reason for the delay. He acknowledges the mistake straight away and apologises for the delay in serving the main. He explains that the problem occurred due to a recent change in the preparation method of the food you ordered.

You and the waiter then discuss in detail about your requirements. Specifically, you discuss about your preferences of serving time. The waiter provides you with a comment card. He asks you to mention the details of the problem on the comment card to claim compensation.

After you finish your main, the waiter comes back and offers you alternative options for compensation against the delay you experienced. The options are:

a. Free dessert of your choice within an amount of £8
OR
b. £5 discount on your bill

Scenario 3 (FR and Service failure severity is Low)

Dinner at ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}

After a long day at work, you feel hungry, and you decide to go out for dinner. You go to

${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}. It is not busy because it is a weekday. You order a starter and a main. You finish the starter and wait for the main. You wait for 25 minutes before your main is served, whereas the usual serving time is 15 minutes.

You inform the waiter about the problem and ask him about the reason for the delay. He acknowledges the mistake straight away and apologises for the delay in serving the main. He explains that the problem occurred due to a recent change in the preparation method of the food you ordered.

After you finish your main, the waiter brings a complimentary dessert as compensation against the delay you experienced.

Scenario 4 (FR and Service failure severity is High)

Dinner at ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}

After a long day at work, you feel hungry, and you decide to go out for dinner. You go to ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}. It is not busy because it is a weekday. You order a starter and a main. You finish the starter and wait for the main. You wait for 1 hour before your main is served, whereas the usual serving time is 15 minutes.

You inform the waiter about the problem and ask him about the reason for the delay. He acknowledges the mistake straight away and apologises for the delay in serving the main. He explains that the problem occurred due to a recent change in the preparation method of the food you ordered.

After you finish your main, the waiter brings a complimentary dessert as compensation against the delay you experienced.

Scenario 5 (NR and Service failure severity is Low)

After a long day at work, you feel hungry, and you decide to go out for dinner. You go to ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}. It is not busy because it is a weekday. You order a starter and a main. You finish the starter and wait for the main. You wait for 25 minutes before your main is served, whereas the usual serving time is 15 minutes.

You inform the waiter and ask him about the reason for the delay. He tells you that this is due to a recent change in the preparation method of the food you ordered. The restaurant does not replace the food and does not offer any compensation.

After you finish your main, the waiter brings you the bill, you pay and leave the restaurant.

Scenario 6 (NR and Service failure severity is High)

Dinner at ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}.

After a long day at work, you feel hungry, and you decide to go out for dinner. You go to ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}. It is not busy because it is a weekday. You order a starter and a main. You finish the starter and wait for the main. You wait for 1 hour before your main is served, whereas the usual serving time is 15 minutes.

You inform the waiter and ask him about the reason for the delay. He tells you that this is due to a recent change in the preparation method of the food you ordered. The restaurant does not replace the food and does not offer any compensation.

After you finish your main, the waiter brings you the bill, you pay and leave the restaurant.

Instructions

Before you continue!

Answer the following statements. These statements are about the "**scenario"** you have read in this survey.

Indicate on a scale from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

Statements	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
The outcome I received was fair.							
I got what I deserved.							
In resolving the problem, the restaurant gave me what I needed.							
The outcome I received was right.							
I think my problem was resolved in the right way.							
I think restaurant has appropriate policies and practices for dealing with problems.							
Despite the trouble caused by the problem, the restaurant was able to respond adequately.							
The restaurant proved flexible in solving the problem.							
I am not paying attention while filling out this survey.							
The restaurant tried to solve the problem as quickly as possible.							
The waiter was open in his communications with me.							
The waiter explained the procedures thoroughly.							
The explanations of the waiter regarding the procedures were reasonable.							
The waiter seemed to tailor his communications to my specific needs.							
In dealing with my problem, the waiter treated me in a courteous manner.							
During his effort to resolve my problem, the waiter showed a real interest in trying to be fair.							
The waiter got input from me before handling the problem.							
While attempting to fix my problem, the waiter considered my views.							

Instructions

Please answer the following about ${e://Field/Restaurantname_S1P1}. on the basis of complete scenario, you read in this survey by answering the following statements.

Indicate on a scale from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree) to which extent you agree with the following statements.

Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will continue to stay with this restaurant.							
I would not change this restaurant service provider in future.							
In the near future, I intend to use more of the services provided by this restaurant.							
I consider myself to be a faithful customer of this restaurant.							
What I get from this restaurant is worth the cost.							
All the things considered (price, time and effort), services of this restaurant are a good buy.							
I am responding to this survey in year 2018.							
Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is a good value for the money.							
When I use services of this restaurant, I feel I am getting my money's worth.							
Compared to other restaurants, this restaurant is excellent.							
This restaurant is superior than other similar restaurants.							
The scenario I read at the beginning was about hospital services.							
This restaurant consistently performs better than all other restaurants.							
I can always count on this restaurant for consistent performance.							
This restaurant keeps promises it makes to customers.							
This restaurant is always honest with me.							
I believe the information that this restaurant provides me							
When making important decisions, this restaurant considers my welfare as well as its own.							
This restaurant keeps my best interests in mind.							
This restaurant is honest.							
This restaurant is superior than other restaurants.							
The restaurant I am evaluating fits my personality.							
The restaurant I am evaluating is well regarded by my colleagues.							
I have positive personal feelings toward the restaurant I am evaluating.							
After consuming services from the restaurant, I am evaluating, I have grown fond of it.							
It is one of the leading restaurants.							
It is easily recognizable.							
This restaurant is well known.							

End of the survey

Thank you for participating in this survey!

Appendix E Normality Assessment

Stage -1

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Perceived Quality 1	5.13	1.161	-0.473	0.057
Perceived Quality 2	5.05	1.205	-0.532	0.070
Perceived Quality 3	4.71	1.213	-0.348	0.240
Perceived Quality 4	5.58	1.117	-0.989	1.128
Perceived Value 1	5.82	0.960	-1.059	2.173
Perceived Value 2	5.45	1.157	-0.742	0.338
Perceived Value 3	5.68	1.041	-1.055	1.611
Perceived Value 4	5.82	0.960	-1.059	2.173
Brand Reputation 1	5.59	1.346	-1.025	0.717
Brand Reputation 2	4.74	1.472	-0.597	-0.138
Brand Reputation 3	5.51	1.298	-1.047	0.908
Brand Trust 1	5.45	0.850	-0.405	-0.263
Brand Trust 2	5.58	0.851	-0.514	-0.142
Brand Trust 3	5.78	0.835	-0.722	1.225
Brand Trust 4	4.87	1.070	-0.005	-0.213
Brand Trust 5	4.96	1.110	-0.409	0.086
Brand Trust 6	5.53	0.861	-0.317	-0.458
Brand Loyalty 1	5.74	0.955	-0.898	1.419
Brand Loyalty 2	4.85	1.354	-0.301	-0.751
Brand Loyalty 3	4.76	1.303	-0.187	-0.411
Brand Loyalty 4	4.97	1.339	-0.468	-0.245

Stage -2

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Distributive Justice 1	4.97	1.760	-0.802	-0.527
Distributive Justice 2	4.34	1.751	-0.310	-0.987
Distributive Justice 3	4.42	1.800	-0.422	-0.937
Distributive Justice 4	4.63	1.783	-0.587	-0.765
Procedural Justice 1	4.84	1.774	-0.723	-0.694
Procedural Justice 2	4.84	1.713	-0.713	-0.561
Procedural Justice 3	4.94	1.795	-0.780	-0.564
Procedural Justice 4	4.61	1.858	-0.561	-0.963
Procedural Justice 5	4.74	1.700	-0.685	-0.554
Informational Justice 1	5.65	1.306	-1.306	1.601
Informational Justice 2	5.15	1.464	-0.692	-0.316
Informational Justice 3	5.04	1.546	-0.846	-0.178
Informational Justice 4	4.69	1.554	-0.454	-0.488
Interactional Justice 1	5.60	1.259	-1.194	1.559
Interactional Justice 2	5.11	1.579	-0.792	-0.189
Interactional Justice 3	5.01	1.514	-0.709	-0.261
Interactional Justice 4	4.71	1.585	-0.448	-0.650
Perceived Quality 1	4.75	1.431	-0.636	-0.132
Perceived Quality 2	4.64	1.410	-0.516	-0.407
Perceived Quality 3	4.44	1.337	-0.498	-0.061
Perceived Quality 4	4.73	1.459	-0.855	0.050
Perceived Value 1	5.16	1.451	-1.089	0.578
Perceived Value 2	5.11	1.413	-1.106	0.571
Perceived Value 3	5.07	1.309	-0.868	0.458
Perceived Value 4	5.12	1.408	-0.917	0.207
Brand Reputation 1	5.62	1.215	-0.964	0.832
Brand Reputation 2	4.72	1.411	-0.653	-0.027
Brand Reputation 3	5.60	1.165	-1.169	1.879
Brand Trust 1	4.89	1.310	-0.857	0.376
Brand Trust 2	5.16	1.271	-0.972	0.884
Brand Trust 3	5.23	1.203	-1.179	1.330

Brand Trust 4	4.53	1.297	-0.372	-0.101
Brand Trust 5	4.67	1.322	-0.547	-0.125
Brand Trust 6	5.20	1.196	-1.048	1.365
Brand Loyalty 1	5.46	1.342	-1.272	1.551
Brand Loyalty 2	4.99	1.445	-0.814	0.089
Brand Loyalty 3	4.42	1.406	-0.179	-0.343
Brand Loyalty 4	4.95	1.394	-0.627	-0.009
Overall Brand Equity 1	4.38	1.344	-0.484	-0.258
Overall Brand Equity 2	4.85	1.269	-0.748	0.405
Overall Brand Equity 3	4.94	1.080	-0.249	0.480
Overall Brand Equity 4	5.10	1.285	-0.881	0.773
Overall Brand Equity 5	5.06	1.302	-0.877	0.589

Appendix F Mediation

Path	Term	Value (β)	T-Value	p (Significance)
H8a: SR(CPSR) → PJ→ PQ				
SR(CPSR) → PJ	a	0.183	4.656	0.000
PJ→ PQ	b	0.664	9.401	0.000
SR(CPSR) → PJ→ PQ	ab	0.121	4.1	0.000
SR(CPSR) → PQ	c	0.082	1.46	0.072
H8b: SR(FR) → PJ→ PQ				
SR(FR) → PJ	a	0.206	0.206	0.000
PJ→ PQ	b	0.65	9.242	0.000
SR(FR) → PJ→ PQ	ab	0.136	4.851	0.000
SR(FR) → PQ	c	0.131	2.516	0.006
H9a: SR(FR) → PJ→ PV				
SR(CPSR) → PJ	a	0.183	4.656	0.000
PJ→ PV	b	0.65	9.242	0.000
SR(CPSR) → PJ→ PV	ab	0.119	4.148	0.000
SR(CPSR) → PV	c	0.161	3.306	0.000
H9b: SR(FR) → PJ→ PV				
SR(FR) → PJ	a	0.206	0.206	0.000
PJ→ PV	b	0.65	9.242	0.000
SR(FR) → PJ→ PV	ab	0.134	4.761	0.000
SR(FR) → PV	c	0.159	3.223	0.001
H10a: SR(CPSR) → PJ→ BR				
SR(CPSR) → PJ	a	0.183	4.656	0.000
PJ→ BR	b	0.289	3.092	0.001
SR(CPSR) → PJ→ BR	ab	0.053	2.491	0.006
SR(CPSR) → BR	c	0.023	0.383	0.351
H10b: SR(FR) → PJ→ BR				
SR(FR) → PJ	a	0.206	0.206	0.000
PJ→ BR	b	0.289	3.092	0.001
SR(FR) → PJ→ BR	ab	0.059	2.571	0.005
SR(FR) → BR	c	0.289	3.092	0.001
H11a: SR(CPSR) → PJ→ BT				
SR(CPSR) → PJ	a	0.183	4.656	0.000
PJ→ BT	b	0.745	11.178	0.000
SR(CPSR) → PJ→ BT	ab	0.136	4.315	0.000
SR(CPSR) → BT	c	0.126	2.303	0.011
H11b: SR(FR) → PJ→ BT				
SR(FR) → PJ	a	0.206	0.206	0.000
PJ→ BT	b	0.745	11.178	0.000
SR(FR) → PJ→ BT	ab	0.136	4.315	0.000
SR(FR) → BT	c	0.08	1.538	0.062
H12a: SR(CPSR) → PJ→ BL				
SR(CPSR) → PJ	a	0.183	4.656	0.000
PJ→ BL	b	0.673	9.216	0.000
SR(CPSR) → PJ→ BL	ab	0.123	4.043	0.000
SR(CPSR) → BL	c	0.134	2.537	0.006
H12b: SR(FR) → PJ→ BL				
SR(FR) → PJ	a	0.206	0.206	0.000
PJ→ BL	b	0.673	9.216	0.000
SR(FR) → PJ→ BL	ab	0.138	4.866	0.000
SR(FR) → BL	c	0.422	0.048	0.000
H13a: SR(CPSR) → PJ→ OBE				
SR(CPSR) → PJ	a	0.183	4.656	0.000
PJ→ OBE	b	0.615	8.004	0.000
SR(CPSR) → PJ→ OBE	ab	0.113	4.026	0.000
SR(CPSR) → OBE	c	0.163	2.992	0.001
H13b: SR(FR) → PJ→ OBE				

Path	Term	Value (β)	T-Value	p (Significance)
SR(FR) → PJ	a	0.206	0.206	0.000
PJ→ OBE	b	0.615	8.004	0.000
SR(FR) → PJ→ OBE	ab	0.163	2.992	0.001
SR(FR) → OBE	c	0.118	2.056	0.02

Note: SR = Service Recovery, CPSR = Customer Participation in Service Recovery, FR= Firm Recovery, PJ= Perceived justice, PQ = Perceived Quality, PV = Perceived Value, BR = Brand Reputation, BT = Brand Trust, BL = Brand Loyalty, OBE = Overall Brand Equity

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