



The Effects of Perceived Justice toward Service Recovery on Electronic Word of Mouth: An Empirical Study of Four and Five Star Hotels in Thailand

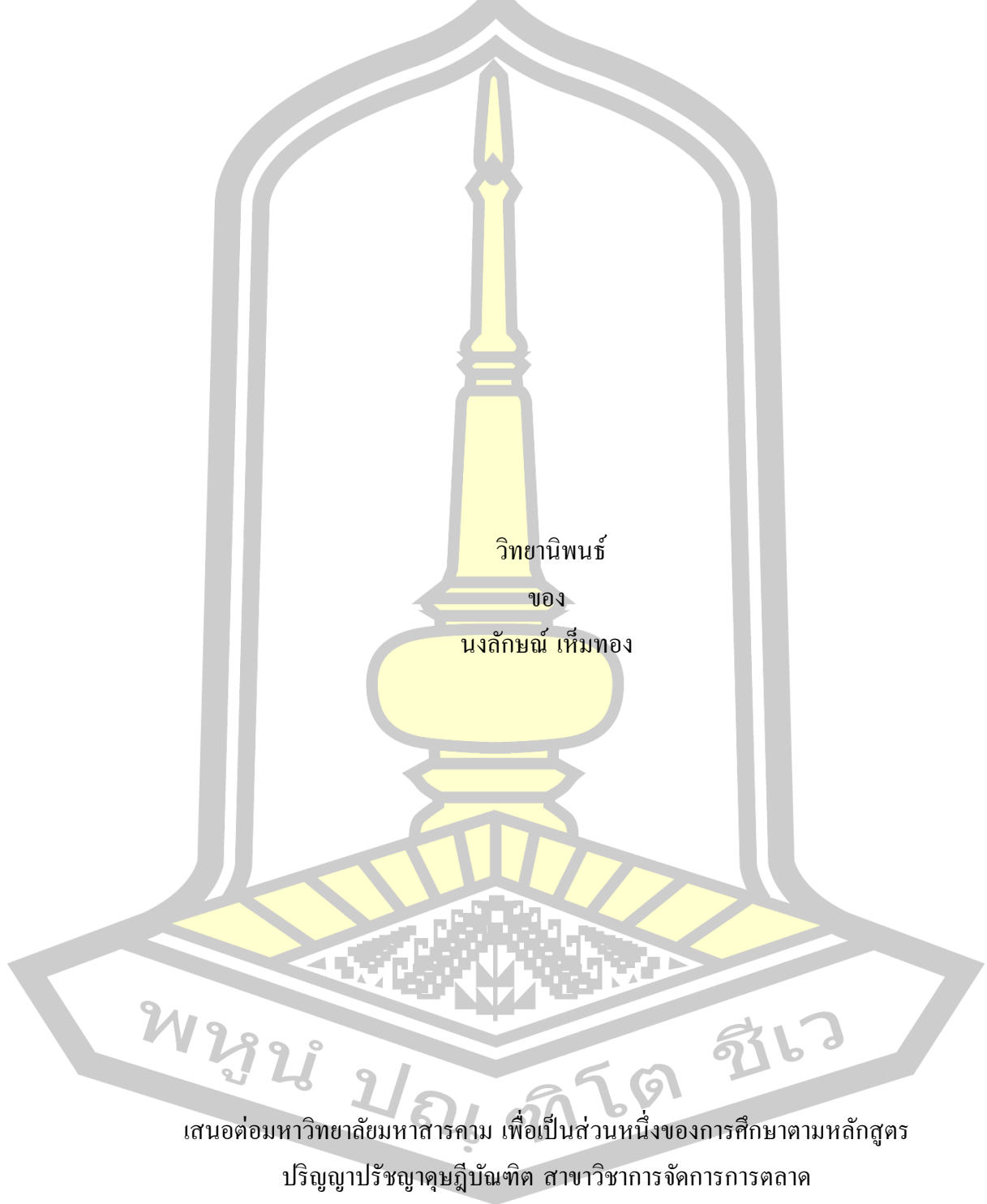
Nongluk Hemthong

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for
degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing Management

January 2025

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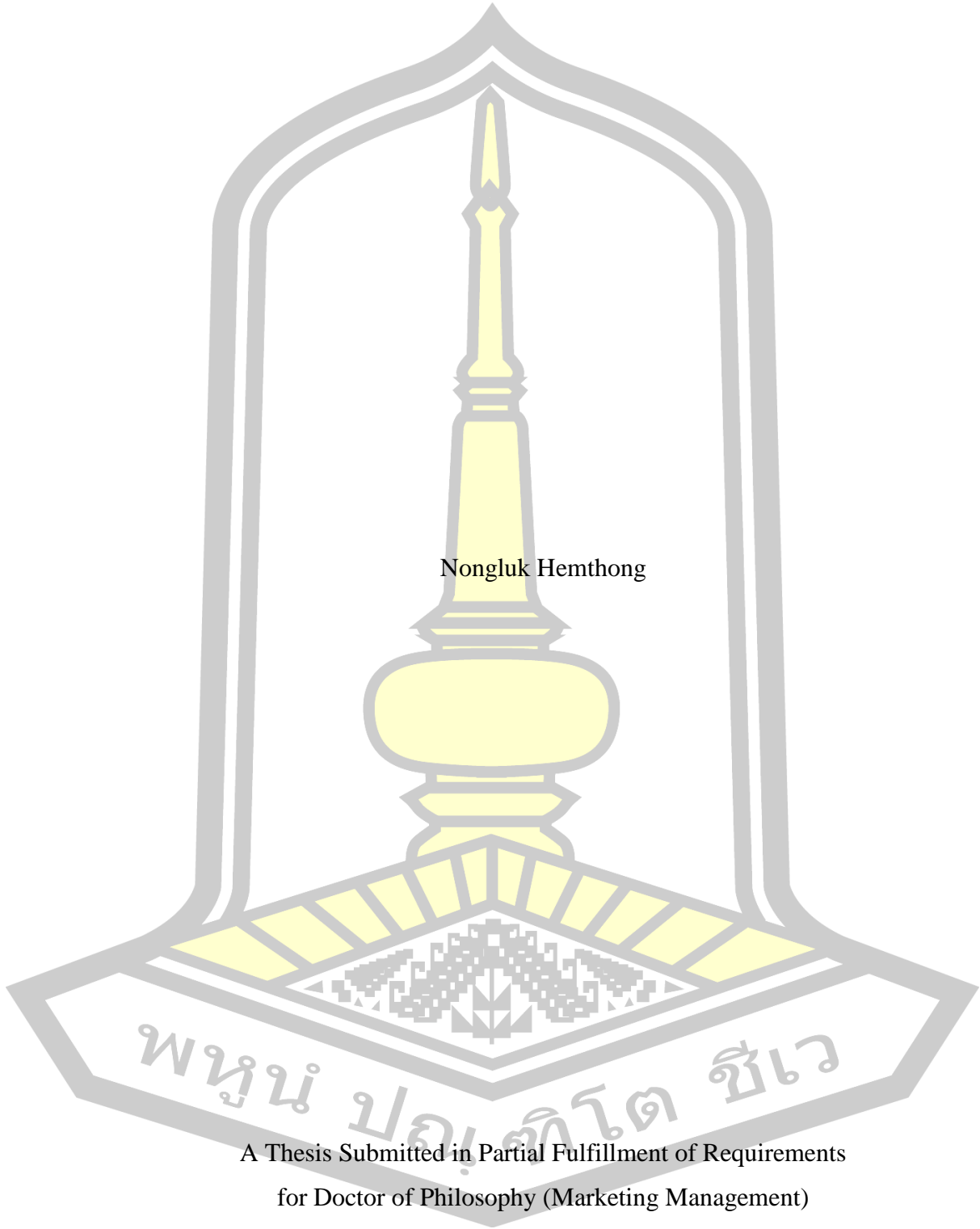
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The Effects of Perceived Justice toward Service Recovery on Electronic Word of Mouth: An Empirical Study of Four and Five Star Hotels in Thailand

Nongluk Hemthong



A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements
for Doctor of Philosophy (Marketing Management)

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The examining committee has unanimously approved this Thesis, submitted by Mrs. Nongluk Hemthong , as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy Marketing Management at Mahasarakham University

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ABSTRACT

Service failure has a significant influence on the negative behavior of service users. Therefore, creating a perception of fairness of effective service restoration is the key to reducing negative behavior. Most previous research has concentrated on a singular dimension of emotion and eWOM, while the phenomenon of deadly silence has been overlooked. These factors all have a significant influence on satisfaction and information dissemination. Therefore, this research aims to investigate the relationships among the three dimensions of perceived justice, positive and negative emotions, silence behaviour, and post-recovery satisfaction on positive and negative eWOM. The sample consisted of 400 customers who had experienced service failures and received service recovery from 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand within one year prior to the survey. Data were collected by online questionnaires. Hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM).

The results showed that all three dimensions of perceived justice influenced positive emotions (PEmo), while only interactional justice (IJ) influenced negative emotions (Nemo). Furthermore, other constructs were found to influence eWOM, whereas, satisfaction after service recovery has the greatest influence on PeWOM. These findings are of great benefit to the hotel industry in formulating strategies to create awareness of fairness in proper service restoration, which will help hotels retain existing customers and attract potential future customers.

Keyword : Perceived justice, Emotions, Silence behaviour, Post-recovery satisfaction, Electronic word-of-mouth

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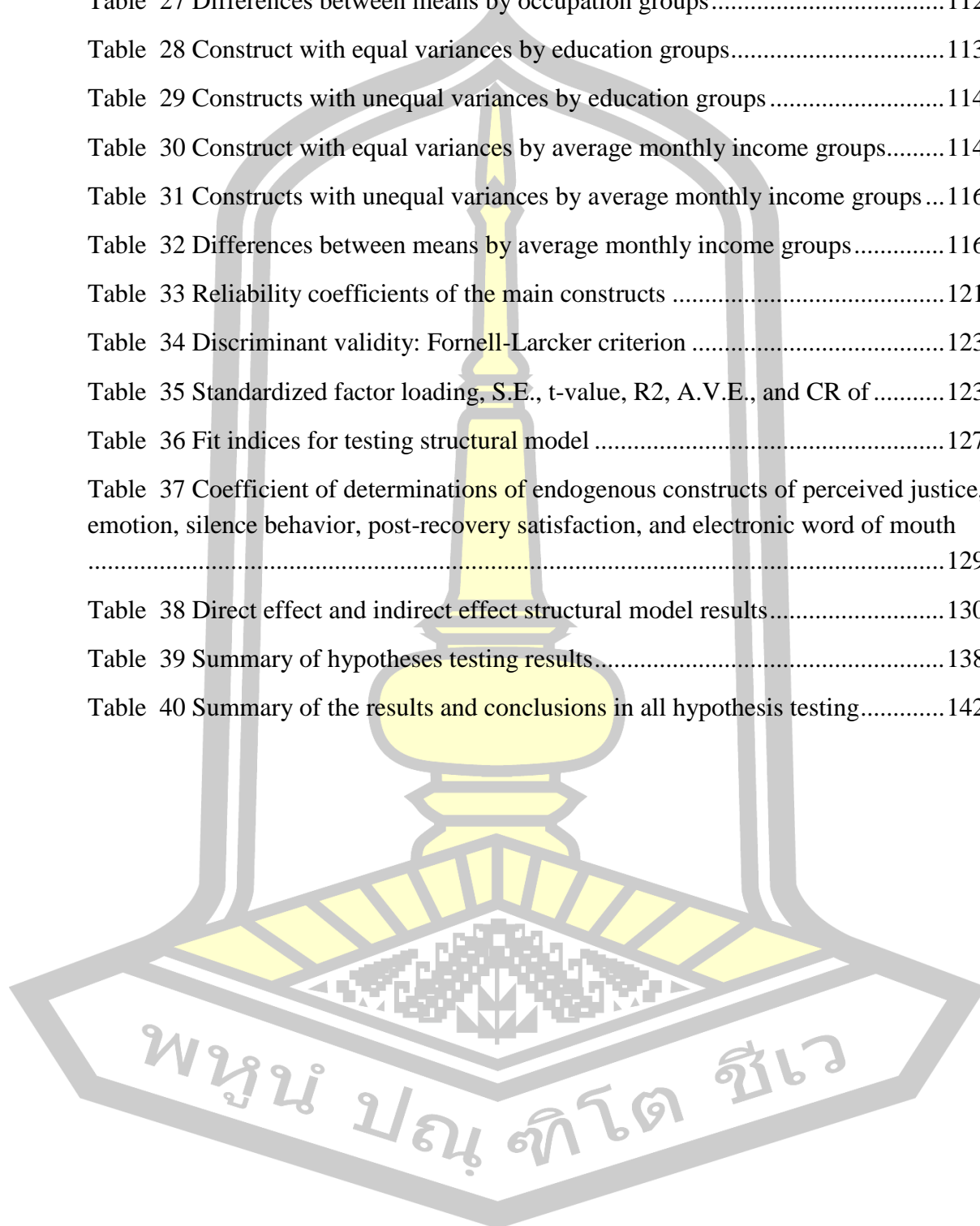
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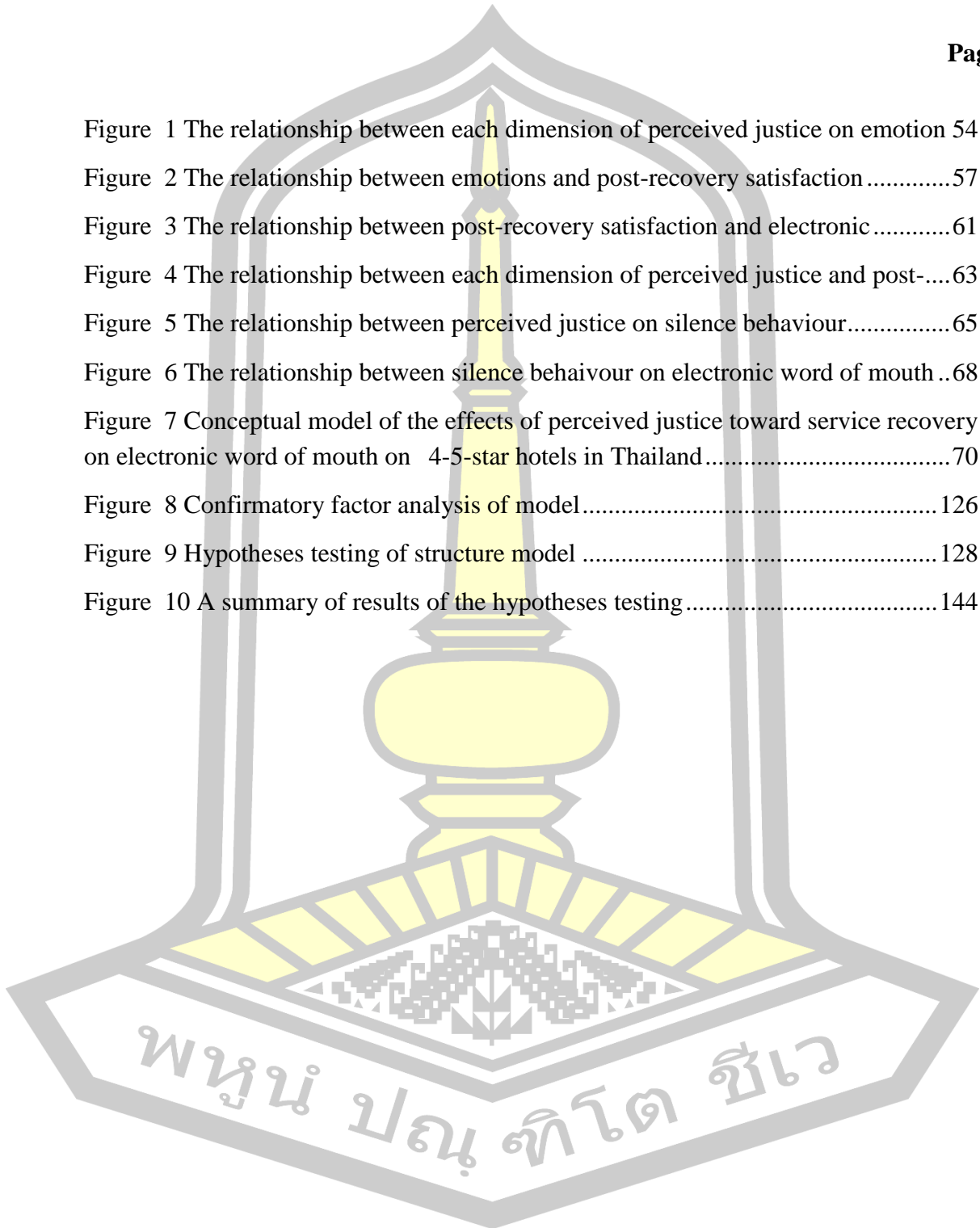
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Overview

Service failure is an inevitable occurrence, arising from various factors such as operational errors, human error, or external circumstances (Smith et al., 1999). However, when service failures occur, they represent a critical opportunity for organizations to demonstrate their commitment to reinstating customer satisfaction through service recovery (Hart et al., 1990). Service recovery refers to the actions undertaken by a firm to address and rectify a failure, with the objective of recovering customer trust and loyalty (Davidow, 2003). Failure management can have a significant influence on customer perception of the brand, customer satisfaction and commitment, and word-of-mouth behaviors (Miller et al., 2000; Tronvoll, 2010). A key concept used in service recovery studies is perceived justice (Schoefer, 2008; Wirtz & Mattila, 2004), which refers to consumers' evaluations of the relationship between the inputs and outputs. If consumers perceive that the compensation or resolution aligns with what they have paid for, they deem the outcome as fair (McCull-Kennedy & Sparks, 2003). Justice is typically conceptualized as comprising three dimensions: distributive justice (the perceived fairness of the outcome), procedural justice (the perceived fairness of the processes employed to resolve the issue), and interactional justice (the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment received from the service provider) (Blodgett et al., 1997; Konovsky, 2000; Colquitt, 2001; Homburg & Fürst, 2005). When customers perceive service recovery as fair, they are more inclined to forgive the service failure and sustain their relationship with the organization (Homburg & Fürst, 2005). Understanding the interconnections between service failure, service recovery, and perceived justice is important for firms seeking to maintain customer relationships and build long-term loyalty. A carefully implemented service recovery process, grounded in the principles of perceived justice,

can assist organizations in mitigating the adverse effects of service failures while simultaneously reinforcing their customer base.

It is well known that service quality is both a marketing strategy and a competitive advantage (Chang et al., 2012; Mathwick et al., 2001). Increasingly evident efforts to address substandard service quality underscore a renewed focus on addressing persistent deficiencies within the service sector. Poor service performance represents a significant long-term threat to an organization's survival (Michel & Meuter, 2008; Thwaites & Williams, 2006). In other words, failure to effectively manage service recovery can substantially decrease the likelihood of sustained success. Conversely, when a company effectively addresses customer complaints, it can have a profound impact on customer retention, mitigate the dissemination of negative word-of-mouth, and enhance customer loyalty (Davidow et al., 2003; Dayan et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2009; Morrison & Huppertz, 2010; Cheng et al., 2018). Moreover, when customer complaints are effectively resolved and the relationship between an organization and its customers is strengthened, it can result in enhanced customer satisfaction, trust, and increased intentions of loyalty toward the company (Wirtz & Mattila, 2004; Aurier & Slusarczyk, 2005; Liao, 2007; Fan et al., 2010; Liat et al., 2017). Research indicates that the majority of customers are generally tolerant of service failure, and such failure in one time does not necessarily result in dissatisfaction (Bitner et al., 1990). However, the failure to implement appropriate service recovery measures is a primary driver of customer dissatisfaction. Consequently, it is crucial that, when failures occur, service organizations take prompt and effective corrective actions to transform dissatisfied customers into satisfied ones (Gursoy et al., 2007).

As Bitner (1993) argues, due to the inherent characteristics of services, it is impossible to guarantee that services will be entirely failure-free. Even the most customer-centric organizations, equipped with high-quality programs, are unlikely to eliminate all instances of service failure (del Río-Lanza et al., 2009). Researchers have used justice theory as the primary framework for analyzing service recovery processes in an effort to more deeply understand effective service recovery (McColl-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003). In order to describe how consumers, assess service

providers' responses to service failure or recovery, a framework based on justice theory has grown in favor. According to this view, perceived justice is a multifaceted idea with three dimensions. (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Konovsky, 2000): distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. These dimensions have been applied to examine service recovery in various industries such as banking, restaurants, airline, retail, hotel, telecommunications, online shopping, and education (Dayan et al., 2008; Fan et al., 2010; Ghalandari, (2013); Xu et al., 2014; Nikbin et al., 2015; Jha and Balaji, 2015; Ortiz et al., 2017; Kayamba, 2020). In comparison, the hotel sector has a higher level of customer engagement in core service delivery and the customer-provider relationship. There is still more to learn about how a service provider's recovery efforts impact the recovery satisfaction of subsequent customers, and there is still a need for strong empirical research on the effects of organizational responses to a customer complaint, despite recent advancements regarding the effects of perceived justice on post-recovery satisfaction (Davidow, 2000, 2003). Furthermore, there is a dearth of empirical study on how complainants' perceptions of justice affect their level of satisfaction and intention (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002; Jung & Seock, 2017). This justifies a more thorough investigation of the relative impact of perceived justice characteristics on recovery satisfaction (del Río-Lanza et al., 2009). Furthermore, Schoefer & Ennew (2005) suggest that our understanding of the structure of satisfaction and service recovery may be constrained because of an ignorance on the affective components of consumer behavior. According to Babin et al., (1998) emotions have been found to play an important role in defining consumption experiences and influencing consumer reactions and discovered that subsequent satisfaction assessments are significantly influenced by the feelings, both positive and negative, that customers connect with a service session. (Oliver, 1993; Richins, 1997; Kuo and Wu, 2012) and positive word of mouth (Ortiz et al., 2017). Therefore, exploration of the emotional aspects of service recovery and their impact on consumer behavior is needed to better understand the dynamics of customer satisfaction and future subsequent behavior in the context of service recovery processes.

Service recovery has been studied in a number of ways in the hospitality industries, including examining the connection between gender roles and the success of recovery efforts (McColl-Kennedy & Sparks, 2003), classifying the different kinds and sizes of service failures (Lewis and McCann, 2004), assessing how service recovery affects the perception of service quality (Gil et al., 2006), and examining service failure tolerance zones (Zainol et al., 2010). Image had a positive influence on the recovery satisfaction, loyalty, and behavioral intention (Park and Park, 2016; Lawu et al., 2022). Including positive and negative emotions mediates the effect of justice on customer satisfaction and loyalty (Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Kim, 2007; Komunda and Osarenkhoe, 2012; Kuo and Wu, 2012). One of the best ways to strengthen the relationship with customers is by listening to their complaints. The voice of the customer is often received in the form of complaints reported to the hotel due to service failures. Schoefer and Ennew (2004) stated that customer complaints or feedback are important sources of ideas that help promote the growth of an organization by improving the existing services for customers. Managing service failures is crucial because if not handled properly, it can have negative consequences for the hotel. The main objective of service recovery is to minimize the negative impact of a bad experience that customers have endured in terms of frustration, inconvenience, dissatisfaction, and complaint.

Furthermore, the consequence behaviors of service failure and subsequent service recovery are critical, particularly complaint behavior and silent behavior. When a service failure occurs, customers often respond by complaining (Zemke, 1999). Complaint behavior provides service providers with an opportunity to identify the issue and implement corrective actions to mitigate negative consequences. However, a significant number of dissatisfied customers choose not to voice their grievances, instead internalizing their dissatisfaction and subsequently engaging in negative behaviors (Wang Wenfeng, 2015; Kwok, 2019). Consequently, the study of customer silence behavior has been relatively overlooked, leading to a limited examination of the non-complaining customer group (Bendapudi & Berry, 1997; Voorhees, 2006; Kau & Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006). Therefore, the behaviors of those who refrain from complaining following service recovery also represent a crucial area of

investigation in this study. Customers who were initially pleased with the service had significantly better levels of trust, word-of-mouth, and loyalty than those who were dissatisfied with the service but decided not to file a complaint, according to a comparison of those who did not file a complaint. This indicates to the service providers that obtaining consumer support requires offering satisfactory service. When unhappy consumers opt to keep quiet, it can be fatal since it betrays a profound mistrust, a desire to spread unfavorable rumors, and lack of commitment. (Kau and Loh, 2006). Furthermore, current literature predominantly examines customer satisfaction through direct measures of satisfaction levels (Hui et al., 2007). However, there is a notable lack of focus on customers' perceptions of the service recovery process itself. This gap is particularly significant when considering how different dimensions of justice affect customer outcomes. Moreover, empirical studies investigating the dimensions of justice frequently produce inconsistent findings regarding their effects on subsequent customer behaviour. This variability may stem from divergent conceptualizations, contextual factors, or methodological approaches employed across studies. Such discrepancies underscore the imperative for more granular research, particularly within the Thai context, to elucidate how these dimensions of justice influence service recovery outcomes and customer behavior in this specific milieu.

Global travel and tourism have recovered robustly and consistently (WTTC). In 2021, it grew by 22% in 2022, accounting for 7.6% of the global GDP. This is considered the highest statistic for the travel and tourism sector since 2019. Thailand is a popular tourist destination, attracting millions of visitors from around the world. Hotels benefit from the increased number of tourists. The hospitality industry in Thailand is estimated to be worth around 5.68 billion U.S. dollars in 2023, and it is projected to increase significantly to approximately 18.96 billion U.S. dollars by 2028. To promote sustainable tourism, the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) in 2023 is focusing on driving tourism towards sustainability, creating transformation in the tourism industry with new dimensions. This includes advancing the concept of 3I: intelligence, which supports the use of Big Data and enhances digital skills; innovation, fostering creativity and investment to create a new narrative for travel,

introducing a Thailand Travel, Thailand Limited Edition that is both impressive and shareable. Highlighting strengths to boost domestic tourism, encouraging Thai people to explore Thailand, is achieved through various large-scale projects. Additionally, there are festivals and events aimed at promoting tourism in Thailand. The tourism industry in Thailand is experiencing continuous growth, currently ranking 9th among the countries with the highest number of visitors in the world. This has propelled the service industry within the country. Key performance indicators for hotel operations are on the rise, including revenue generated from both tourists and tourism-related activities. Amidst this growth and intense competition, entrepreneurs must find ways to enhance customer satisfaction, retain customers, and gain a competitive edge in the market. Providing high-quality services and managing service failures has become a primary concern for hotel operators. Consumers often have varying expectations of service quality depending on a hotel's star rating. Hotel rankings are commonly used to categorize hotels according to their service quality, with the scope of these rankings evolving to encompass the overall guest experience (Hensens et al., 2011). Different organizations utilize a range of rating systems. Higher star ratings are typically associated with elevated levels of luxury, including aspects such as dining, entertainment, ambiance, room variety, and additional facilities (Vine, 1981). A hotel's star rating serves as an indicator of the level of service that guests can reasonably expect (Bhavani, 2013; Ariffin & Maghzi, 2012). In general, higher star ratings are correlated with higher prices and elevated customer expectations regarding the level of service provided (Mattila & O'Neill, 2003; Tefera & Govender, 2015). Consumers who pay more for lodgings at higher-rated hotels are more likely to be sensitive to service failures and more aware of perceived value both before and after the service failure, according to the customer value viewpoint put out by Monroe (1990) and Keeney (1999). This means that customers have higher expectations for service quality and a measure of service recovery that measures expectations of perceived justice, which informs the focus of this study on customer experiences of service recovery following failures in 4- and 5-star hotels.

This study aims to investigate how service recovery effectiveness impacts the emotions and silence behaviour. Furthermore, it examines the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and electronic word of mouth (eWOM). This study examines customer behavior in the context of service recovery. Data were collected using an online questionnaire administered to former guests of four- and five-star hotels in Thailand who had experienced service failures and subsequently received service recovery within a one-year period prior to the survey. The results showed that all three dimensions of perceived justice influenced positive emotions (PEmo), while only interactional justice (IJ) influenced negative emotions (Nemo). Furthermore, other constructs were found to influence eWOM, whereas satisfaction after service recovery has the greatest influence on PeWOM. This study offers valuable insights into how the effectiveness of service recovery, along with other relevant factors, influences eWOM. The findings of this research can be valuable for hotel operators and other service industries, enabling them to implement efficient service recovery strategies for sustainable growth and competitive advantage.

Purposes of the Research

The main purpose of this research investigates the relationships among the dimensions of perceived justice consisting of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, emotional, silence, post-recovery satisfaction, and eWOM. The specific objectives are as follows:

1. To investigate the relationships among each dimension of perceived justice on emotion, post-recovery satisfaction and eWOM.
2. To investigate the relationships among perceived justice on silence behavior and eWOM.
3. To investigate the relationships among each dimension of perceived justice on post-recovery satisfaction and eWOM.

Research Questions

The key research question of this research is how perceived justice consisting of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice has an influence on emotion and silence behaviour, post recovery satisfaction, and eWOM. Thus, the specific research questions are present as follows:

1. How does each dimension of perceived justice effect emotion, post-recovery satisfaction and eWOM?
2. How does each dimension of perceived justice effect post-recovery satisfaction?
3. How do perceived justice effect silence behaviour and eWOM?

Scope of the Research

The main objective of this research is to investigate the relationships between perceived justice and electronic word of mouth (eWOM). Perceived justice is the independent variable. It consists of three dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice. emotion, namely, negative emotion, positive emotion, silence behavior and post recovery satisfaction are the mediator variable. Also, eWOM are compose of positive eWOM, negative eWOM are the consequences of perceived justice.

There are four theories focus explaining service recovery justice and eWOM in this research; namely, justice theory, equity theory, social exchange theory, and cognitive appraisal theory. The theories demonstrate the relationships among service recovery justice and eWOM, as well as constructs present in the next chapter. In addition, this study proposes theory interaction to describe the relationships of each variable and answer the research questions and objectives. The hypotheses are test by analysis, which are based on the collected data from the samples of consumers who have experienced service failures at 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand and received service recovery. The model is created by using existing and generally accepted scales

to create a set of dimensions. This is particularly relevant in the service business context. For this reason, the service recovery paradigm should be developing to cover consumer behaviors that are based on service failure.

There are three dimensions of perceived justice; firstly, distributive justice refers to the extent to which customers feel they have been treated fairly with respect to the final recovery outcome by evaluating the results against certain reference standards (Kulik and Ambrose, 1992; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). Secondly, procedural justice refers to the degree of fairness perceived in the remedial policies and procedures undertaken during the recovery process (Tsao et al., 2014; Grégoire and Fisher, 2008; Smith et al., 1999). Thirdly, interactional justice refers to the extent to which customers feel they have been treated fairly regarding their personal interaction with service providers throughout the whole process of recovery not only during transactions but also afterward (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). These dimensions of perceived justice are hypothesized to be positively associated with emotion, and eWOM.

The consequences of perceived justice are as follow. Firstly, emotion refers to a person's emotional state that is specifically linked to certain events or their own thoughts (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Emotion consists of two prominent dimensions: positive and negative. Positive emotion is associated with feelings of satisfaction, happiness, love, and pride, while negative emotion is linked to feelings of anger, fear, sadness, and distress. Secondly, Consumer silence refers to the state of behavior in which consumers choose to keep their concerns about a service to themselves rather than immediately complaining or expressing dissatisfaction to the service provider (Wang Wenfeng, 2015). It encompasses all forms of strong-willed desires, including love, anger, surprise, and fear (Bruneau, 1973), as well as opposition or endorsement (Pinder and Harlos, 2001). Thirdly, Post-recovery satisfaction refers to the overall satisfaction of a customer with a service recovery (secondary satisfaction) provide by the service provider subsequent experiencing a service failure that deviated from the customer's initial satisfaction with the initial service. (Harris, et al., 2006; McCollough et al., 2000; Smith et al., 1999; Tax et al., 1998). Lastly, electronic word of mouth refers to all forms of informal communication that target is consumers

through internet-related technologies, concerning the usage or characteristics of a particular product or service, or the seller (Litvin et al., 2008). electronic word of mouth consists of two prominent dimensions: positive and negative. PeWOM (Positive eWOM) refers to the opportunity for a dissatisfied customer to amend their negative eWOM in a positive direction after the recovery process (Choi and Choi, 2014). NeWOM (Negative eWOM) refers to the opportunity for a dissatisfied customer to amplify their negative eWOM even further in a negative direction after an unsatisfactory recovery process (Burke, 2016).

The population and sample for this research consists of customer who have previously experienced service failures and service recovery efforts at 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand within the one-year period before the survey. A non-probability purposive sampling will be use. Data will be collected by an online questionnaire. Then, test of non-response the consequences of perceived justice are four constructs. Firstly, emotion refers to the emotional state of individuals that is specifically tied to certain events or their own thoughts (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Secondly, silence behaviour refers to customers holding their grievances about poor service to themselves rather than protesting to service providers or immediately addressing them. (Wenfeng, 2015). Thirdly, customers' overall happiness with a service provider's secondary service (remedial activity) following a service failure is known as post-recovery satisfaction; this is distinct from customers' pleasure with the initial service experience. (Harris et al., 2006; McCollough et al., 2000; Smith et al., 1999; Tax et al., 1998). Lastly, electronic word of mouth refers to any informal communication about the use or features of certain products and services, or their sellers, that is sent to customers via Internet-based technology (Litvin et al., 2008). In this case, the main purpose is to examine the effect of perceived justice on eWOM of 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand. Non-response bias is used to prevent possible response bias problems. Using t-test statistics to compare data between questionnaire respondents in the early and late respondents. If there is no statistically significant difference in both groups, there is no bias in non-response among questionnaire respondents (Rogelberg and Stanton, 2007; Lewis, Hardy and Snaith, 2013). For data analysis, descriptive statistics, validity, reliability test, and The hypotheses will be

conducted using structural equation modeling (SEM) to test the relationships between the constructs and determine the predictive power of the model.

Organization of the Dissertation

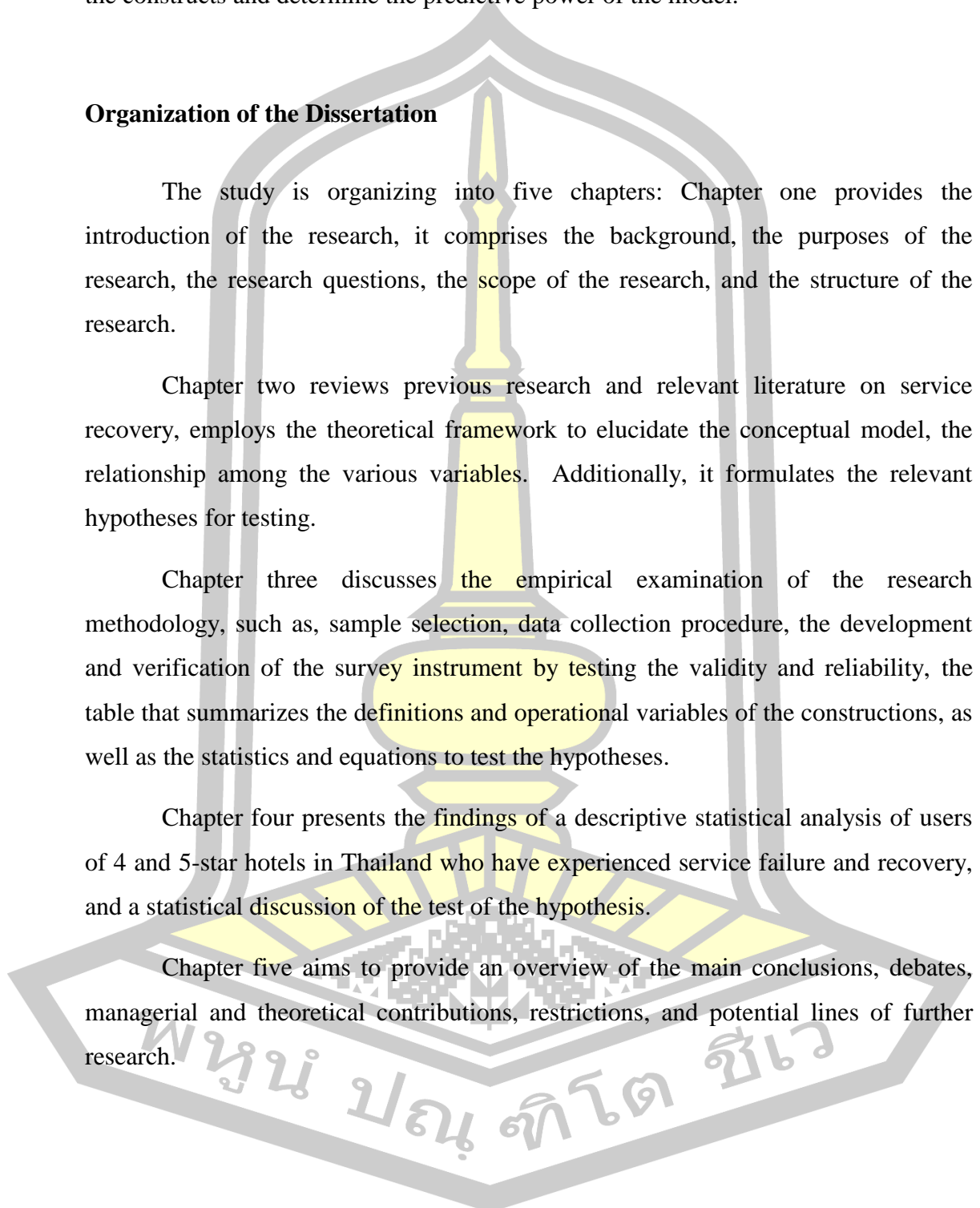
The study is organizing into five chapters: Chapter one provides the introduction of the research, it comprises the background, the purposes of the research, the research questions, the scope of the research, and the structure of the research.

Chapter two reviews previous research and relevant literature on service recovery, employs the theoretical framework to elucidate the conceptual model, the relationship among the various variables. Additionally, it formulates the relevant hypotheses for testing.

Chapter three discusses the empirical examination of the research methodology, such as, sample selection, data collection procedure, the development and verification of the survey instrument by testing the validity and reliability, the table that summarizes the definitions and operational variables of the constructions, as well as the statistics and equations to test the hypotheses.

Chapter four presents the findings of a descriptive statistical analysis of users of 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand who have experienced service failure and recovery, and a statistical discussion of the test of the hypothesis.

Chapter five aims to provide an overview of the main conclusions, debates, managerial and theoretical contributions, restrictions, and potential lines of further research.



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The previous chapter demonstrated the overview of perceived justice, emotion, silence behaviour, and post-recovery satisfaction on electronic word of mouth (eWOM) which actualize the research objective, research questions, and scope of research. In this chapter, an attempt is made to introduce a participatory approach supported by theoretical foundations that align with the conceptual model. Hypotheses are proposed, anticipating that they will address the research objectives and questions. This study will examine customer behavior in the context of service recovery in 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand.

The main construct of this research's conceptual model is customer service recovery justice perceptions. This research will provide empirical evidence to elucidate the perception service recovery justice in customer by service providers. Electronic word-of-mouth may be improved with post-rehabilitation satisfaction in mind as dependent variable. Justice theory and cognitive appraisal theory is used in this research to explain how customer service recovery fairness perceptions affect electronic word of mouth. According to the Justice theory, it has been developed to better understand the relationship between perceived justice and therefore behavior. In addition, social exchange theory and equity theory are used in this research to explain the dimensions of justice theory that affect eWOM. A literature review will be conducted to gain an understanding of all constructs in the proposed conceptual model and to develop research hypotheses for testing.

The organization of this chapter consists of two parts. The first part elucidated the theoretical foundation used to explain the conceptual model. The second part will be a review of relevant literature, the definitions of the entire framework within the conceptual framework and the development of research hypotheses.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical foundation of this study encompasses four theories: justice theory, equity theory, social exchange theory, and cognitive appraisal theory. These theories are employed to explicate the aforementioned relationships. This research demonstrates the perception of fairness and electronic word-of-mouth communication, and all four theories can be linked with empirical evidence to explain the research phenomenon. All these theories have been integrated to elucidate, explain, predict, and establish connections among all structures and variables. The emphasis of all four theoretical frameworks is to generate valuable insights into potential sources of perceiving fairness and electronic word-of-mouth communication.

Justice Theory

The theory of justice is a political philosophy and ethics that was published in 1971 by John Rawls (Bentley, 1972) with the goal to find a moral theory as an alternative to utilitarianism, particularly addressing issues of distributive justice or equality in terms of basic liberties. Justice theory, also known as theories of justice, refers to a branch of moral and political philosophy that explores the concept of fairness and how it should be applied in various aspects of society. It seeks to answer questions about how resources, opportunities, rights, and burdens should be distributed among individuals and groups.

The theory of justice by Rawls has been applied to business and in social psychology by Cohen and Greenberg (1982). As businesses become increasingly interdependent and globalized, the concept of justice gains acceptance in various social groups. The theory of justice is particularly significant in organizations, ensuring equal treatment of individuals in society regardless of beliefs, ethnicity, professional status, or even social class. It condemns prejudiced actions, favoritism, segregation, and unfair compensation practices within the workforce. In a theory of justice (1971), Rawls introduced the global system of justice and a set of steps to achieve it and advocated for a system of governance that is practicable, publicly

inspectable, with political, social, and economic impacts. The five predictable steps are (1) principle into the contract, (2) agreeing principle to the contract, (3) including basic conditions in the contract such as freedom of speech, (4) maximizing the welfare of the most disadvantaged persons, and (5) guarantee the stability of the contract. These steps create a system of justice that Rawls believed gave fairness its proper place above utility and the bottom line. Rawls provided an example of something called "pure procedural justice" such as when sharing cake among several individuals. How should the cake be divided according to the agreement? Rawls determined that the best way to divide the cake is to have the person cutting it choose the last piece. This ensures that everyone receives an equal portion. The crucial aspect is an independent standard to define what is just and a procedure for carrying it out. While there is no perfect or universally applicable ethical framework for any given era, Rawls' theory of justice has clear advantages when applied to businesses in the 21st century. In an increasingly interdependent and globalized business environment, emphasis must be placed on quality control, human resources, and leadership. Justice is a value that transcends cultures, is accepted by various societal groups, and is understood by almost everyone. However, what is considered just depends on multiple factors, including underlying values and personal characteristics, such as personality traits. There is no consensus on affirmative action or resource redistribution. What is just for some may not be as just for others. This provides an opportunity for discussion and participation among members of Rawls' community. The theory of justice has prepared a method for attaining fairness that can be realistically implemented and holds value in training at all levels of a company. It is an effective way to manage stakeholders and the organizational culture, dealing efficiently with gains and losses. The concept of receiving treatment in a way that seems deserving appears to be crucial in fostering both fairness and justice. Both concepts have been applied in marketing and service research to understand customer reactions to service outcomes, particularly in the context of service recovery (del Río-Lanza et al., 2009; Sparks and McColl-Kennedy, 2001).

The theory of justice posits that customer satisfaction and loyalty depend on whether customers believe that a particular service provider has treated them fairly

and whether they perceive that they have been treated justly (McCull-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003). Extensive research has demonstrated that the perception of justice is a multidimensional concept that significantly influences the satisfaction of stakeholders in various market environments, ranging from traditional offline businesses to modern businesses (Graham and Hopkins, 2022). The assessment of the fairness of products or services tends to occur rapidly online, facilitated by the instantaneous comparison of service providers and the exchange of customer opinions through search engines and discussion boards. Simultaneously, the increasing use of advanced technology and the shift towards e-commerce comes with a scrutiny of businesses that are often perceived as unjust. Within the context of service recovery, customers weigh the input against the output when forming evaluations of the recovery process. Input data can be described in terms of costs related to service failure, including economic costs, time, energy, and psychological costs. The perceived justice components of the equity theory reassure customers that the offered recovery strategy is just and equitable (Sheppard et al., 1992). Perceived justice indicates that the recovery process itself, the outcomes associated with the recovery strategy, and interpersonal behaviors during the recovery process and outcome delivery are all significant in evaluating the recovery effort. Therefore, perceived justice consists of three components: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Tax et al., 1998). *Distributive justice* focuses on the specific outcome of a firm's efforts in recovery. In other words, it addresses what the company offers uniquely to customers as compensation for service failures, and whether this outcome (output) offsets the costs (input) associated with the service failure (Greenberg, 1990; Gilliland, 1993). *Procedural justice* is an examination of the procedures undertaken to achieve the ultimate outcome (Greenberg, 1990). Tax et al. (1998) refer to the process of justice as a decision-making process employed to attain successful results. Therefore, even if customers may be satisfied with the type of recovery strategy offered, the evaluation of the recovery may not be favorable due to the endurance required in order to achieve the recovery outcome. *Interactional justice* is the extent to which customers feel they have been treated fairly regarding their private interactions with service representatives throughout the recovery process (Smith et al., 1999; Tax et al., 1998).

Equity Theory

The Equity Theory, introduced by John Stacey Adams in 1963 (Adams, 1963), was originally applied in an organizational context, emphasizing the behaviors and attitudes of employees towards the organization. By 1963, Adams had sufficient evidence from the sociological and psychological literature prior to that time to propose that equity/inequity was not a matter of receiving excessive or insufficient pay or fair compensation, and it was not solely a matter of economic evaluation. The assessment of equity depended on society, involving complex psychological and cognitive processes. It is necessary to develop a theory to help understand how a fair exchange between employers and employees occurs and to propose guidelines for controlling the outcomes of this relationship. The theory aims to have an impact on both the organization and society. On one hand, the theory holds significant commercial importance for organizations in terms of mitigating the financial repercussions stemming from negative employee behavior. Conversely, the research bears social significance in terms of advancing social justice (Adams, 1963; Adams and Freedman, 1976).

The equity theory is rooted in sociological and psychological theories, specifically the social exchange theory, social comparison theory, and cognitive dissonance theory (Adams, 1963; Huseman et al., 1987). The social exchange theory serves as a fundamental pillar, proposing that the essence of social interactions depends on the assessment of individual benefits and costs associated with the defined relationship. It affirms that people remain in relationships as long as they perceive the benefits to outweigh the costs (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1986). Another cornerstone is the social comparison theory provides detailed insights into the perceptual processes' individuals use to gauge whether rewards and punishments in a relationship are equitable. It is encompassed within the equity theory, which builds on previous evidence revealing that employees tend to perceive rewards as unfair if they perceive their contributions to be greater than those of their colleagues in the same organizational department. (Adams, 1963). Lastly, the cognitive dissonance theory plays an instrumental role in understanding how individuals cope with the emotional turmoil triggered by incongruent beliefs or cognitions. It also addresses how

individuals attempt to alleviate this stress through either receptive or proactive measures (Festinger, 1962). The application of the cognitive dissonance theory aids in understanding the emotional and behavioral outcomes of relationships, as it assesses costs and benefits. All three of these theories form the theoretical foundation of the equity theory, enabling an explanation of the nature of relationships between individuals. They provide the mechanisms that support the evaluation of relationship outcomes based on cognition, and describe how individuals react to these outcomes. The equity theory has two primary objectives. The first objective is to explain how individuals assess relationships between people fairly. The second objective of the theory is to elucidate the impact of unequal relationships. To achieve these objectives, certain factors or core components that individuals consider when evaluating equity are defined. (Adams, 1963; Adams and Freedman, 1976). Input and the resulting outcomes derived from the social exchange theory are used to refer to the costs/inputs that individuals bring into a relationship and the benefits/returns from these relationships. The input data may encompass various elements and formats, such as education, experience, skills, social status, and effort. These variables serve as determinants of what individuals bring into the relationship, thus they are designated as inputs. These inputs are perceived by the parties involved and should be measured in relation to their specific relevance in the context of the social exchange situation. Outcomes refer to financial rewards, actual behavioral consequences, social and symbolic benefits, and status. Once the variables related to the assessment of inequity are identified, inequity is viewed as an imbalance between the personal inputs/outputs of the relationship and the observable inputs/outputs of others (Adams, 1963). This draws upon evidence and theoretical frameworks of cognitive dissonance (e.g., Festinger, 1962; Wills, 1981). The theoretical framework proposed regarding equity in the context of social exchange aims to support the literature on social psychology. The equity theory consolidates existing knowledge to explain individuals' motivations for exhibiting specific behaviors and responding to interpersonal relationships. Beyond its explanatory strength, the goal of the theory is to predict how individuals will behave by assessing the outcomes of the relationship (Walster et al, 1973).

Social Exchange Theory

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) is considered a gold standard in understanding workplace behavior (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). It is a pervasive phenomenon deeply embedded in our daily lives, extending beyond the organizational context to encompass family, friends, and relatives. This foundation is intricately detailed, as described by Cropanzano et al. (2017), with a limited definition in SET as (i) initiation by the actor, (ii) perceptual or behavioral responses from the target in a reciprocal nature, and (iii) the resulting relationship. The complexities of contemporary business relationships have increased (Chernyak-Hai and Rabenu, 2018) necessitating the adaptation of SET to the growing intricacies regarding organizational operations and employee behavior (Cooper-Thomas and Morrison, 2019).

Social exchange theory is a crucial foundational framework in organizational research, such as the relationship between the organization and its employees (Bolino et al., 2002), and the organizational citizenship behavior of employees (Organ, 1990). Rupp and Cropanzano (2002), indicate that individuals in social exchange relationships tend to identify more with the party with whom they have a shared involvement compared to those in economic exchange relationships. In organizational literature, employee's discretionary behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), are considered significant behavioral outcomes that explain the relationship in social exchange between employees and their organization. Where individuals are motivated by receiving something of value (reward) in exchange for giving something else of value (cost). Social exchange differs from traditional economic exchange, which is based on tangible resource transactions (Blau, 1964). Social exchange encompasses intangible costs and benefits that are not easily quantifiable, such as friendship and affection, without requiring a direct reciprocation like returns on investment (Gefen and Ridings, 2002). Researchers have characterized social exchange as an exchange involving socio-emotional benefits, mutual commitment, and trust among parties, often resulting in a long-term relationship (Blau, 1964; Van Dyne et al., 1994). Additionally, social exchange is founded on the implicit cooperative intentions among parties in the exchange interaction, indicating a

party's belief that the other party will offer reciprocal rewards (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976). Expanding this concept to customer behavior, it is reasonable to view customers as a partial of employees (Tat Keh and Wei Teo, 2001).

Cognitive Appraisal Theory

The concept of cognitive appraisal was developed in 1964 by the psychologist Richard Lazarus. According to this theory, stress is seen as an imbalance between an individual's demands and their resources to cope. Cognitive appraisal is an interpretative process by individuals to make sense of their environment, constituting a component in various theories related to stress, mental health, coping with problems, and emotions. It is prominently featured in the transactional model of stress and coping presented. Cognitive appraisal refers to the way's individuals respond to and interpret stress in their lives (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). After that, Ira Roseman employs the concept of assessing knowledge and understanding to develop a theory that comprehensively explains diverse emotions, as compared to Lazarus's transactional model. According to Roseman (1996) positive emotions result from events that individuals evaluate as aligning with their motivations, whereas negative emotions stem from events perceived as incongruent with their motivations. The specificity of emotions depends on whether the event is attributed to others, individuals, or uncontrollable circumstances.

A cognitive appraisal involves interpreting the events that stimulate and our physical reactions to those stimuli. It's important to remember that assessing understanding can occur either consciously or subconsciously, cognitive appraisal. Two Views perspectives on the theory of cognitive appraisal currently explain the connection between cognitive appraisals and emotions. The first perspective is that cognitive appraisals leads to emotions. This perspective illustrates that the way we interpret events that trigger emotions will determine our emotional response. Therefore, interpreting the same event differently can result in different emotional experiences for individuals. The second perspective is that emotions lead to appraisal. From this viewpoint, the assessment of understanding occurs after the emotional feeling (following physiology and behavior changes).

Researchers in basic emotions believe that the assessment of understanding is a universal matter. This perspective suggests that experiencing the same emotional event leads to a similar assessment of perception. As mentioned in Scherer (1997), participants in a nationwide perception assessment report experienced a similar assessment of perception when they recalled moments of happiness. Social constructionist theorists, unlike researchers in basic emotions, argue that people can assess events that trigger emotions in different ways, leading them to experience different emotions. In fact, Scherer's (1997) study found cultural differences in the cognitive appraisal that individuals reported when recalling specific emotional experiences.

As mentioned above concepts, social exchange theory has been integrated with justice theory to explain the relationship between perceived justice, emotional responses, and post-recovery satisfaction. As consumers generally perceive some aspects of unequal responses to service failures (Maxham, 2001), The concept of justice, particularly within the context of equity, posits that individuals assess the fairness of an exchange by comparing their inputs with the resulting outcomes, thereby generating an equity score (Adams, 1963). The research by Huppertz et al. (1978) is regarded as the pioneering research in incorporating equity theory into the marketing discipline, particularly within the context of the hospitality industry. In the case of hotels, customers evaluate fairness by weighing the total costs incurred—encompassing financial, temporal, physical, and cognitive efforts—against the benefits received, such as the overall stay experience, hotel reputation, service quality, and psychological benefits. For customers to perceive fairness and attain satisfaction, they must believe that the benefits derived are commensurate with or exceed the total costs expended.

Furthermore, equity theory can be applied to explain the relationship between recovery satisfaction and eWOM. Equity theory is relevant to situations involving exchange; it is particularly applicable in explaining the process of recovery evaluations. The theory assesses the balance between inputs (e.g., the sacrifices and investments made by consumers) and outcomes (e.g., rewards, customer satisfaction, etc.) by comparing these inputs and outcomes to analogous factors in comparable

situations (Greenberg, 1990). The perceived balance between inputs and outcomes ultimately influences satisfaction and subsequently affects word-of-mouth behavior.

Finally, the concept of cognitive appraisal theory is applied to conceptualize the perception of justice, silent behavior, and electronic word-of-mouth referrals, in which silence behavior is considered a state of mental readiness that arises from a specific event or situation (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Service recovery management approaches consider specific events that may trigger consumer behavioral responses (e.g., Hui and Tse, 1996; Smith and Bolton, 2002; Wong, 2004). Cognitive justice evaluation may elicit affective responses and silence behaviors, which are expected to affect satisfaction with service failure and electronic word-of-mouth referrals.

Relevant Literature Reviews and Hypotheses Development

This section presents the comprehensive literature review that involves the definitions of all constructs. This research attempts to linkage the conceptual relationships between the antecedents and the consequences of perceive theory through four theories, namely, justice theory, cognitive appraisal theory, social exchange theory, and equity theory. The association model is separated into three parts as follows.

Firstly, this research emphasis on the main effect of each dimension of perceived justice and its consequences. Three dimensions of perceived justice consist of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. The relationship among each dimension of perceive justice to emotion and silence behavior.

Secondly, this research investigates emotion, which are examined and predicted to have a confident relationship with post-recovery satisfaction and eWOM.

Lastly, this research also clarifies the effects of silence behaviour on electronic word of mouth.

Service Failure and Service Recovery

Service failure occurs when customers perceive that the service provided falls below expectations or the acceptable threshold (Zeithaml et al., 1993). Palmer et al. (2000) define service failure as when customers perceive that the service has deficiencies or lacks responsibility. Vieno et al. (2004) found that the severity of service failure is negatively related to satisfaction in terms of service recovery. Therefore, the severity and satisfaction with service failure are intertwined but have different structures. Zeithaml et al. (1993) argue that service failure is associated with incidents resulting from customers' perceptions of service performance below expectations. Such failures may lead to customer defection (Bitner, Brown, and Meuter, 2000). Some studies also suggest that service failure serves as a significant motivator in customer switching behavior (McCullough et al., 2000; Roos, 1999). Additionally, as customer loyalty to a company depends on the perceived quality of service during transaction experiences (Wang, 2008), this positive feeling of loyalty tends to decrease after a service failure. Bitner et al. (1990) proposed that service failure occurs when the service does not meet expectations, is delayed, or falls short of anticipated standards. Service providers cannot entirely prevent service failures in advance, but they can learn how to respond to various types of service failures. This response is referred to as service recovery.

According to Grönroos, (2007) service recovery refers to the actions taken by service providers in response to customer complaints arising from service failures. Therefore, developing comprehensive service recovery processes to address these challenges is crucial (Forrester and Maute, 2013; Mansori et al., 2014). Hart et al. (1990) proposed that the objective of service recovery is to regain customers who were lost due to previous service failures and minimize any further losses. Service recovery should involve positive actions that influence customer behavior. Customers expect compensation for losses incurred due to service failures. Studies have identified that customers believe organizations must acknowledge mistakes and have clear service recovery plans in place to address service failures immediately (De and Wetzels., 2000). According to the social exchange proposed by Smith et al. (1999), service failure and service recovery can be seen as exchanges. After customer's

experience losses resulting from service failures, organizations must compensate for those losses by implementing service recovery measures. It's widely recognized that in a more interconnected social and cultural environment, dissatisfied customers may share their negative experiences with as many as 10 to 20 people, depending on the level of dissatisfaction (Mansori et al., 2014).

In assessing consumer perceptions of service recovery, it depends on their perception of the justice of the recovery process. To ensure that customers perceive the service recovery process as fair, organizations should offer fairness in distribution, interaction, and procedural. Service providers should take actions such as accepting responsibility, apologizing, resolving issues promptly, explaining the failure, training employees to handle service failures, and showing empathy (Ding and Lii, 2016). Justice theory suggests that when customers perceive justices in three justices are more likely to perceive higher levels of organizational justice and exhibit a more positive attitude toward the organization (Blodgett et al., 1997). Previous research has shown that service recovery can build a positive relationship between customers and businesses, as post-recovery satisfaction is a significant factor indicating customer goodwill (Bitner et al., 1990). The frequency of service failures in the hotel industry might be attributed to the intangible and unpredictable nature of the service and the complex and varied interactions between customers and service providers (Swanson and Hsu, 2011). Customers who experience dissatisfaction due to service failures often make considerable efforts to seek fairness from the organization (Migacz et al., 2018).

Distributive justice in service recovery has been found to influence customer satisfaction in various service settings (such as auto repair, hospitality, retail, air travel, and food service). Distributive justice refers to the level of fairness that consumers perceive regarding the outcomes of service recovery efforts (Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Tsao et al., 2014). Numerous studies have confirmed that customer satisfaction is not solely dependent on the ultimate outcomes of service recovery but also stems from customers' perceptions of the processes and interactions that occur during the recovery process (e.g., Smith et al., 1999; Patterson et al., 2006;

Lee et al., 2020). These perspectives on facing recovery are particularly crucial for managing overall perceptions of fairness.

Procedural justice is related to the process that a company undertakes to resolve service failures (Greenberg, 1990). Procedural justice refers to the procedures or criteria used to determine whether a dispute is fair or not. The aim of procedural justice is to address conflicts in a manner that promotes effective relationships between both parties, even if the outcome may not be satisfactory for either party or both parties (Greenberg, 1990). The components of fairness in the procedural justice include official policies and structural considerations (such as process control, decision control, accessibility, timing/speed, and flexibility) that can influence the perceived of outcomes (McCull-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003; Mathew and Chacko, 2020).

Interactional justice is related to the practices and communication between individuals conducted by company representatives during service recovery encounters. Interactional justice refers to the extent to which customers feel they have been treated fairly in their communication and interaction with service providers during the recovery process (Smith et al., 1999; Tsao et al., 2014). Additionally, Interactional justice is also related to how service recovery processes are applied and how the outcomes of the recovery are presented (Hoffman and Kelly, 2000). The components of Interactional justice include explanations of failure, honesty, politeness, effort, and caring. Several studies in the service literature have highlighted the significant impact of Interactional justice on customer evaluations of service recovery (e.g., Hoffman et al., 1995; Smith et al., 1999; Sparks and McCull-Kennedy, 2001; Masorgo and Gligor, 2022).

พหุ ประถมศึกษา

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension

Author	Definition	Theory
Hoffman and Kelley, (2000)	<p>- Distributive justice (e.g. gratis, discounts, coupons, free upgrades, and free ancillary services); offers to mend or totally replace/reperform; and apologies (Blodgett et al., 1997; Goodwin and Ross, 1992; Hoffman and Kelley, 1996; Sundaram et al., 1996; Tax et al., 1998).</p> <p>- Procedural justice is defined as the decision-making procedures utilized by which the ends are accomplished (Tax et al., 1998) (e.g. decision control, accessibility, timing/speed, process control, and flexibility to adapt to the customer's recovery needs (Tax et al., 1998).</p> <p>- Interactional justice is defined as ``dealing with interpersonal behavior in the enactment of procedures and the delivery of outcomes (Tax et al., 1998) (e.g. politeness exhibited by personnel, empathy, effort observed in resolving the situation, and the firm's willingness to provide an explanation why the situation occurred (Blodgett et al., 1997; Tax et al., 1998).</p>	Equity theory
Maxham and Netemeyer, (2002)	<p>- Distributive justice is defined as the extent to which customers feel they have been treated fairly with respect to the final recovery outcome (refunds, discounts, and other forms of atonement).</p> <p>- Procedural justice is defined as the perceived justice of policies and procedures involving the recovery effort, and there is anecdotal evidence suggesting that procedural justice affects service recovery outcomes.</p> <p>- Interactional justice is defined as the extent to which customers feel they have been treated fairly regarding their personal interaction with service agents throughout the recovery process includes elements of courtesy, honesty, interest in fairness, and effort perceived by the complainant (Smith et al., 1999; Tax et al., 1998).</p>	Social exchange theory
Schoefer and Ennew, (2002)	<p>- Distributive justice is defined as the perceived justice of the outcome of the service encounter. In other words, what specifically did the offending firm offer the customer to recover from the service failure (Tax and Brown, 2000; Tax et al., 1998; Blodgett et al., 1997).</p>	Justice theory, Cognitive appraisal theory

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension (continue)

Author	Definition	Theory
	<p>- Procedural justice is defined as operationalized as the delay in processing the complaint, process control, accessibility, timing/speed, and flexibility to adapt to the customer 's recovery needs.</p> <p>- Interactional justice is defined as the manner in which people are treated during the complaint handling process including elements such as courtesy and politeness exhibited by personnel, empathy, effort observed in resolving the situation, and the firm 's willingness to provide an explanation as to why the failure occurred.</p>	
Schoefer and Ennew, (2005)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to the perceived justice of the outcome of the service encounter (i.e. what specifically did the offending firm offer the customer to recover from the service failure.</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to operationalized as the delay in processing the complaint, process control, accessibility, timing/speed, and flexibility to adapt to the customer's recovery needs.</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the manner in which people are treated during the complaint handling process including elements such as courtesy and politeness exhibited by personnel, empathy, effort observed in resolving the situation, and the firm's willingness to provide an explanation as to why the failure occurred. (Tax and Brown, 2000; Tax et al., 1998; Blodgett et al., 1997).</p>	Justice theory, Cognitive appraisal theory,
Kim et al., (2009)	<p>- Distributive justice is defined as the allocation of costs and benefits in achieving equitable exchange relationships (Smith et al. 1999).</p> <p>- Procedural justice is defined as the perceived fairness of policies, procedures, and criteria used by decision makers to arrive at the outcome of a dispute or negotiation (Blodgett et al., 1997).</p> <p>- Interactional justice is defined as the way customers involved in a failed service are handled, and it means the evaluation of the degree to which the customers have experienced justice in human interactions from the employees of service firms during the recovery process (Sparks and McColl-Kennedy, 2001).</p>	Justice theory

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension (continue)

Author	Definition	Theory
Nikbin et al., (2011)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to the assignment of tangible resources by the firm to rectify and compensate for a service failure (del Río-Lanza, 2009).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to the methods the firm uses to deal with the problems arising during service delivery in aspects such as accessibility, timing/speed, process control, delay and flexibility to adapt to the consumer's recovery needs (del Río-Lanza et al., 2009).</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the evaluation of the degree to which the customers have experienced justice in human interactions from the employees of service firms during the recovery process (Sparks and McColl-Kennedy, 2001).</p>	Justice theory, Equity theory,
Chang et al., (2012)	<p>- Distributive justice relates to the fairness of compensation and transaction-specific judgments, which is the locus of customer satisfaction formation (Anderson and Fornell, 1994).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to the fairness of service recovery procedures and policies (Smith et al., 1999).</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the degree to which customers evaluate fairness in terms of the service representatives' manners during and after recovery of online service (Smith et al., 1999).</p>	Justice theory
Ghalandari, (2013)	<p>- Distributive justice relates to receiving monetary compensation by the failed customer received. Most failed customers can perceive distributive justice of a recovery action after they have received a discount, coupons, refund, free giveaways or alternative goods as compensation from the offending service provider (Blodgett et al., 1997; Tax et al., 1998; Hoffman and Kelley, 2000).</p> <p>- Procedural justice which means customer perceptions of the recovery process concentrates on the flexibility and efficiency of the recovery policies or rules. Procedural justice can generally be assessed based on whether customers can freely express their opinions, recovery efficiency of the offending company, control the outcome, of making complaints easily, flexibility, instantaneity, transparency of the recovery process and suitability of the recovery action or policy (Tax et al., 1998; Smith et al., 1999; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2003; Wirtz and Mattila, 2004; Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005).</p>	Justice theory, Equity theory

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension (continue)

Author	Definition	Theory
	<p>- Interactional justice refers to the extent of fairness in which service providers interact with and address failed customers. Most failed customers perceive interactional justice of a service recovery action when the offending service providers show their willing to interact with them respectfully, honestly and empathetically whilst trying to solve a problem and communicate with customers (Tax et al., 1998; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2003; Wirtz and Mattila, 2004). Interactional justice is generally assessed by reliability, clear explanation of the problem, sincerity, apologetic attitude, communication, politeness, respect, detailed attention to problems, willingness to hear complaints and willing to solve the problem (Smith et al., 1999; Wirtz and Mattila, 2004).</p>	
Nikbin et al., (2014)	<p>- Distributive justice is defined as “the allocation of costs and benefits in achieving equitable exchange relationships (Smith et al., 1999).</p> <p>- Procedural justice is defined as the perceived fairness of policies, procedures, and criteria used by decision makers to arrive at the outcome of a dispute or negotiation. (Blodgett et al., 1997).</p> <p>- Interactional justice is defined as the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment that people receive during the enactment of procedures. (Tax et al., 1998).</p>	Justice theory, Equity theory, Social exchange theory
Jha and Balaji, (2015)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to the fairness of resource distribution (transaction) and includes redress strategies such as refund, replacements, coupons, free-of-charge, repair, or discounts (Wang et al., 2011).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to the service providers’ policies and procedures that are ethical, consistent and unbiased. It facilitates a smooth complaint handling process and enables customers to achieve equitable outcomes (Patterson et al., 2006).</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the perceived fairness of the interpersonal treatment customers receive from the service provider/employee during the complaint handling process (Tax et al., 1998).</p>	Justice theory, Expectancy disconfirmation theory, Mental accounting theory

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension (continue)

Author	Definition	Theory
Bao, 2016	<p>- Distributive justice refers to the consumer's perceived justice for the specific compensation enterprise provided. Because consumer's evaluation depends on whether the compensation customer got meets his needs. It does not mean more substantial compensation, more perceived justice of customer.</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to the flexibility of the policies and procedures, and the efficiency of the time spent in the process. In the recovery process, if the consumer waits longer, it will lead to negative emotions and post dissatisfaction.</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the perception of the attitude and behavior of the serviceman in the process of solving service failure.</p>	Justice theory, Social transaction theory, Fair theory, Attribution theory.
Ding and Lii, (2016)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness and equality that the firm adopts to allocate the resources to rectify and compensate for a service failure. It has generally focused on the tangible compensation given to the customers during the service recovery, including monetary rewards as refunds, discounts on future purchase, coupons, and exchanging the good or service (Blodgett et al., 1997; Homburg and Fürst, 2005; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002; Tax et al., 1998).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the specific policies, processes, and methods adopted by the firm to handle the service problem and recover the failed service (Blodgett et al., 1997; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002), including timeliness, accessibility, process control, and flexibility to adapt to the consumer's recovery needs.</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the manner in which consumers are treated during the complaint handling process, including elements such as interpersonal sensitivity, treating consumers with courtesy and respect, or providing appropriate explanations for the service failure (Blodgett et al., 1993; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2003; McColl-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003; Smith et al., 1999).</p>	Equity theory, Expectation confirmation theory, Social exchange theory

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension (continue)

Author	Definition	Theory
Ortiz et al, (2017)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to the perception of justice toward the outcomes of controversy, mediation, or a decision among the parties involved in a transaction (Blodgett et al., 1997).</p> <p>- Procedural justice to responding to customers' complaints through procedures, policies, and means.</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the employee's attitudes and interpersonal relationships in dealing with the process of customer complaints.</p>	Social exchange theory, Prospect theory
Cai and Qu, (2018)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to "the allocation of costs and benefits in achieving equitable exchange relationships" (Smith, Bolton, and Wagner, 1999).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to perceived justice of policies, procedures, and criteria used by decision-makers to arrive at the outcome of a dispute or negotiation" (Blodgett, Hill, and Tax, 1997).</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the evaluation of the degree of which customers have experienced justice in interpersonal interactions with the service organization during the enactment of procedures (Blodgett et al., 1997; McColl-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003).</p>	Justice theory, Social exchange theory, Cognitive appraisal theory
Kussusanti et al., (2019)	<p>- Distributive justice is defined as the fairness in giving compensation in accordance to customers' losses (Tax, Brown, and Chandrashekar, 1998) and can both be in a form of monetary and non-monetary (Smith, Bolton, and Wagner, 1999).</p> <p>- Procedural justice is defined as the fairness in the process of delivering a result, relating to policies and procedures used to solve problems (Leventhal, 1976).</p> <p>- Interactional justice is defined as the fairness on the given and provided information (Colquitt, 2001), that has to be trustworthy, reliable (Greenberg, 1990), and sincerely delivered (Bies, Shapiro, and Cummings, 1988).</p>	Justice theory, Disconfirmation theory

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension (continue)

Author	Definition	Theory
Muhammad, (2020)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to outcome fairness of a complaint (Petzer et al., 2017).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to the fairness of procedures leading to final decision (Ladeira et al., 2016).</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the perception of fair interaction of employee with the Complainant (Ladeira et al., 2016).</p>	Sense making theory
Chi et al. (2020)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to customers' perceived justice of the outcomes received from a service exchange (Blodgett et al., 1997).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to concerns customers' opinions on a service company's process and procedures used in arriving at the outcomes (Blodgett et al., 1997).</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to addresses customers' views on the attitude and behavior with which the service company and its staff treat them (Blodgett et al., 1997).</p>	Justice theory, Equity theory, Agent theory
Kayamba, (2020)	<p>- Distributive justice refers to the fairness shown by the institution concerning the tangible outcome of the service recovery process and is used to pacify a dissatisfied student. Distributive justice may include monetary and non-monetary compensation, viz. credit, discounts, refunds, replacement, coupons and an apology (Boshoff, 2014).</p> <p>- Procedural justice refers to the fairness of the process used to address student complaints or problems. Thus, Procedural justice encompasses policies and structural considerations that may influence the outcome (McColl-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003).</p> <p>- Interactional justice refers to the fairness of the interaction between the student and employees of the institution during the service recovery process (Ngahu et al., 2016).</p>	Social Exchange, Equity Theory

Table 1 Summary the definition of justice dimension (continue)

Author	Definition	Theory
Bakar et al., (2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Distributive justice refers to returning results in the form of discounts or granting compensation (Crisafulli and Singh, 2016), - Procedural justice refers to service recovery methods, such as accessibility, timeliness, fast response, and flexibility to adjust to customer needs (Vázquez-casielles, Alvarez, and Martin, 2010). - Interactional justice refers to the company's attitude when handling customer complaints in the form of an apology (Ha and Jang, 2009). 	Cognitive appraisal theory
Yoo, (2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Distributive justice refers to the role of equity, where complaining customers perceive the fairness of an exchange by comparing their inputs to the outputs (Maxham and Netemeyer 2002). - Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of policies and procedures involving the recovery effort. - Interactional justice refers to the extent to which customers feel they have been treated fairly regarding their personal interaction with service agents throughout the recovery process. 	Justice theory, Service recovery theory

The literature review reveals that researchers have provided various definitions of the three dimensions of justice, such as Tax et al., 1998, and Smite et al., 1999. They specify that distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes customers receive in terms of recovery results (such as refunds, discounts, and other forms of compensation). Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of policies and procedures efforts in service recovery. There is general evidence indicating that the justice process impacts the outcomes of service recovery. Interactive justice refers to the level at which customers feel they have been treated fairly in their personal interactions with service representatives throughout the recovery process. This includes elements such as politeness, honesty, concern for fairness, and perceived effort by the service provider as perceived by the complainant. Anderson & Fornell (1994) indicate that distributive justice is associated with the fairness of compensation and specific transaction outcomes, which contribute to the

creation of customer satisfaction. On the Interactional justice as discussed by Blodgett et al., 1997 and McColl-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003, refers to the assessment of the level at which customers perceive fairness in the interactions between individuals and the service-providing organization during the enforcement of various processes or the company's attitudes in managing customer complaints in the form of apologies (Ha and Jang, 2009). For this research, distributive justice refers to the extent to which customers perceive fairness in the outcomes related to compensation in various forms. Procedural justice refers to the perception of policies and processes in service recovery, such as the promptness of response and flexibility to meet customer needs. Meanwhile, interactive justice refers to the level at which customers perceive fairness in their interactions with the service provider during the service recovery process. Additionally, it has been found that the theories most widely used in studying service recovery are justice theory, equity theory, cognitive appraisal theory, and social exchange theory in that order. In addition to the meaning of each dimension of justice, researchers have conducted a literature review to confirm the supporting evidence for which dimensions of justice are widely used. The details have been presented in a table 2

Table 2 Dimension construct of perceived justice

Author	Title	Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	Industry
Teo and Lim, (2001)	The effects of perceived justice on satisfaction and behavioral intentions: the case of computer purchase	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Retail Satisfaction	Repatronage intentions, Negative word of mouth intentions	Retail
Schoefer and Ennew, (2002)	Emotional Responses to Service Complaint Experiences: The Role of Perceived Justice	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	-	Positive emotion, Negative emotion	Airline

Table 2 Dimension construct of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	Industry
Davidow, (2003)	Have you heard the word? The effect of word of mouth on perceived justice, satisfaction and repurchase intention complaint handling	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Word of mouth valance, Word of mouth Dissemination, Satisfaction	Repurchase intention	Retail
Wirtz and Mattila, (2004)	Consumer responses to compensation, speed of recovery and apology after a service failure	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Service attribution, Service recovery satisfaction	Repatronage, word of mouth	Restaurant
Schoefer and Ennew, (2005)	The impact of perceived justice on consumers' emotional responses to service complaint experiences	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Cognitive, Emotion	Satisfaction	Airline
Chebat and Slusarczy, (2005)	How emotions mediate the effects of perceived justice on loyalty in service recovery situations: an empirical study	Timeliness Distributive justice Interactional justice	Negative emotion, Positive emotion	Loyalty, Exit	Bank
Aurier and Siadou-Martin, (2007)	Perceived justice and consumption experience evaluations A qualitative and experimental investigation	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Service evaluation, Satisfaction	Relationship quality [credibility, benevolence, commitment]	Restaurant.
Dayan et al., (2008)	Perceived justice and customer loyalty in the retail banking sector in the UAE	Timeliness Distributive justice Interactional justice	Positive feeling, Negative feeling	Loyalty intention, exit	Bank
del Río-Lanza et al., (2009)	Satisfaction with service recovery: Perceived justice and emotional responses	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Negative emotions with the SR	Satisfaction with the service recovery (SSR)	Mobile

Table 2 Dimension construct of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	Industry
Kim et al., (2009)	The effects of perceived justice on recovery satisfaction, trust, word-of-mouth, and revisit intention in upscale hotels	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Recovery Satisfaction	Trust, word of mouth, Revisit intention	Hotel
Fan et al., (2010)	The impacts of online retailing service recovery and perceived justice on consumer loyalty	Distributive justice Procedural justice	Recovery Satisfaction	Repatronage intention, Positive word of mouth, Negative word of mouth	Retail
Nikbin, et al., (2011)	The effects of perceived justice in service recovery on firm reputation and repurchase intention in airline industry	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	- [Moderator: Firm reputation]	Repurchase intention	Airline
Chang, et al., (2012)	Recovery of online service: Perceived justice and transaction frequency	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Satisfaction with Recovery [Moderator: transaction frequency]	Repurchase intention	Online service
Kuo and Wu., (2012)	Satisfaction and post-purchase intentions with service recovery of online shopping websites: Perspectives on perceived justice and emotions	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Emotion, Satisfaction	Purchase intention	Online shopping
Nikbin et el., (2012)	Perceived justice in service recovery and switching intention evidence from Malaysian mobile telecommunication industry	Distributive justice Procedural justice Informational justice Interpersonal justice	-	Switching Intentions	Mobile telecommu nication

Table 2 Dimension construct of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	Industry
Ellyawati et al., (2012)	The effect of perceived justice on customer satisfaction in the service recovery context: Testing mediating variables	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Positive emotion, Negative emotion	Recovery satisfaction	Retail [B2B]
Ghalandari, (2013)	Perceived Justice's Influence on Post-Purchase Intentions and Post-Recovery Satisfaction in Online Purchasing: The Moderating Role of Firm Reputation in Iran	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	- [Moderator: firm reputation]	Post recovery Satisfaction, Post purchase intention	Online shopping
Xu et al., (2014)	Show you care: initiating co-creation in service recovery	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Satisfaction	Repurchase intention	Hotel
Jha and Balaji, (2015)	Perceived justice and recovery satisfaction: the moderating role of customer-perceived quality	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Telecom
Nikbin et al., (2015)	Relationships of Perceived Justice to Service Recovery, Service Failure Attributions, Recovery Satisfaction, and Loyalty in the Context of Airline Travelers	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice Informational justice	Recovery Satisfaction Moderator: stability, controllability	Customer loyalty	Airline

Table 2 Dimension construct of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	Industry
Ding and Lii, (2016)	Handling online service recovery: effects of perceived justice on online games	Distributive justice Procedural justice Informational justice Interpersonal justice	Satisfaction, Trust	Electronic word of mouth, Repurchase intention	Online games
Ortiz et al., (2017)	Perceived justice, emotions, and behavioral intentions in the Taiwanese food and beverage industry	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Emotion: Empathy, Anger	Positive word of mouth, Repurchase intention, Revenge, Avoidance	Restaurant
Ozkan-Tektas, (2017)	Pre-recovery emotions and satisfaction: A moderated mediation model of service recovery and reputation in the banking sector	Pre-recovery Emotion	Distributive justice, Procedural justice	Post recovery Satisfaction	Bank
Balaji et al., (2017)	Customers' emotion regulation strategies in service failure encounters	Perceived justice	Positive emotions, Negative emotions	Satisfaction, Negative word of mouth, Repurchase intention	Hotel
Cai and Qu, (2018)	Customers' perceived justice, emotions, direct and indirect reactions to service recovery: moderating effects of recovery efforts	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Emotions	Revisit intention, Positive word of mouth, Intention of Condemn, Intention of praise	Restaurants

Table 2 Dimension construct of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	Industry
Cheng et al., (2018)	Service recovery, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty: evidence from Malaysia's hotel industry	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Satisfaction	Loyalty	Hotel
Tsao, (2018)	Star power: the effect of star rating on service recovery in the hotel	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Post-recovery Satisfaction	Loyalty, Defection	Hotel
Bahri-Ammari and Bilgihan, (2019)	Customer retention to mobile telecom-munication service providers: the roles of perceived justice and customer loyalty program	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice Satisfaction with loyalty program	-	Relationship Satisfaction, Loyalty/commitment, Retention	Telecom
Carrillo et al., (2019)	The impact of perceived justice on satisfaction and behavioral intentions in service encounters – a comparison and validation study	Distributive justice Interactional justice	Service Satisfaction	Behavioural intention	Telecom
Kussusanti et al., (2019)	Informational Justice and post-recovery satisfaction in E-commerce: The role of service failure severity on behavioral intentions	Informational justice	Post-recovery Satisfaction	Repurchase intention, Positive word of mouth	Retail B2C
Liu and Ouyang, (2021)	How trust mediate the effects of perceived justice on loyalty: A study in the context of automotive recall in China	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Trust	Loyalty	Automotive industry
Ampong et al., (2021)	Exploring customer loyalty following service recovery: a replication study in the Ghanaian hotel industry	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Satisfaction, Trust	Loyalty	Hotel

Table 2 Dimension construct of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Independent Variable	Mediator	Dependent Variable	Industry
Rifi and Mostafa, (2022)	Brand credibility and customer-based brand equity: a service recovery perspective	Distributive justice Procedural justice Interactional justice	Satisfaction with service recovery	Brand Credibility, Customer based-brand equity	Bank

In the study of service recovery, different dimensions of justice have been examined. For instance, Kussusanti et al. (2019) investigated one dimension, namely informational justice. Fan et al. (2010) explored two dimensions, namely distributive justice and procedural justice. Petzer et al. (2017) and Carrillo et al. (2019) studied two dimensions, specifically distributive justice and interactional justice. Nikbin et al. (2012), Nikbin et al. (2015), and Ding and Lii (2016) examined four dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, informational justice, and interpersonal justice. A literature review indicates that the three dimensions of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice are most commonly used in the study of service recovery (Schoefer and Ennew, 2002; Aurier and Siadou-Martin, 2007; del Río-Lanza et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2014; Ampong et al., 2021). It is noteworthy that the selection of justice dimensions for study depends on the context and research questions. This research examines the context of hotels, where service providers need to have significant interactions with customers. Therefore, all three dimensions are studied, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Furthermore, it was found that service recovery investigations are most prevalent in the context of hotels, followed by banks, telecommunications, retail stores, online shopping, and airlines. Results from the previous studies indicate that each dimension of service recovery influences consequence behavior at varying levels, which will be presented in the table 3.

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Teo and Lim, (2001)	The effects of perceived justice on satisfaction and behavioral intentions: the case of computer Purchase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distributive justice indirect effect to repatronage intention thru retail SAT, Distributive justice direct effect to repatronage, • Distributive justice indirect effect to Negative word of mouth thru retail satisfaction. 	Under graduates
Maxham and Netemeyer, (2002)	Modeling customer perceptions of complaint handling over time: the effects of perceived justice on satisfaction and intent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedural and interactional justice are more influential in forming overall firm satisfaction than distributive justice. • Satisfaction with recovery was a stronger predictor of the likelihood of spreading positive word-of-mouth (WOM intent) than overall firm satisfaction, and overall firm satisfaction was a stronger predictor of purchase intent than satisfaction with recovery. The results also suggest that satisfaction partially mediates the effects of justice on WOM intent and purchase intent. 	Customers
Smith and Bolton, (2002)	The effect of customers' emotional responses to service failures on their recovery effort evaluations and satisfaction judgments.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Customer emotional responses to service failures impact efforts at recovery and satisfaction judgments in certain situations. The influence of emotions varies depending on the industry environment. 	Restaurants and hotels
Schoefer, and Ennew, (2002)	Emotional Responses to Service Complaint Experiences: The Role of Perceived Justice	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived justice evaluations were predictive of the type of emotion (i.e. positive or negative) elicited. Low levels of perceived justice (i.e. interactional, procedural and distributive) elicit higher levels of negative emotions such as anger or rage. Conversely, high level of perceived justice increases the likelihood of positive emotions such as happiness and joy being elicited. 	Airline customers

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Davidow, (2003)	Have you heard the word? The effect of word of mouth on perceived justice, satisfaction and repurchase intentions following complaint handling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All three fairness dimensions have a strong, positive impact on WOM valance and also to favorably impact overall satisfaction om the complainant. Increasing procedural fairness has the added benefit of decreasing the dissemination of WOM. 	University Students
Wirtz and Mattila. (2004)	Consumer responses to compensation, speed of recovery and apology after a service failure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Recovery outcomes (e.g. compensation), procedures (e.g. speed of recovery) and interactional treatment (e.g. apology) have a joint effect on post-recovery satisfaction. 	Working adults [scenario]
Schoefer and Ennew. (2005)	The impact of perceived justice on consumers' emotional responses to service complaint experiences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emotions occur as a result of the cognitive appraisal of the person environment situation. Perceived justice represents a cognitive appraisal dimension, which helps to explain the elicitation of positive and negative emotions during and/or after service recovery encounters. Low levels of perceived justice (i.e. interactional, procedural and distributive) elicit higher levels of negative emotions. High level of perceived justice increases the likelihood of positive emotions 	Students
Chebat and Slusarczy, (2005)	How emotions mediate the effects of perceived justice on loyalty in service recovery situations: an empirical study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interactional justice (e.g., courtesy) impacts both positive and negative emotions and the exit-loyalty behavior. Distributive justice (e.g., compensation offered to the complaining customers) affects the behavior through the symmetrical mediating effects of negative and positive emotions. Procedural justice (i.e., timeliness), which has asymmetric effects on emotions and behavior, plays the role of a "basic requirement" 	Complainer

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Aurier and Siadou-Martin, (2007)	Perceived justice and consumption experience evaluations A qualitative and experimental investigation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slight direct effect of justice on satisfaction, but rather indirect impacts through perceived quality (outcome and interaction) and value. Moreover, perception of justice has substantial effects on trust (credibility and benevolence) but not on commitment. 	Customers
Liao, (2007)	Do It Right This Time: The Role of Employee Service Recovery Performance in Customer-Perceived Justice and Customer Loyalty After Service Failures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The dimensions of SRP—making an apology, problem solving, being courteous, and prompt handling—positively influenced customer satisfaction and then customer repurchase intent through the mediation of customer-perceived justice. Service failure severity and repeated failures reduced the positive impact of some dimensions of SRP on customer satisfaction. 	Graduate students
Dayan et al., (2008)	Perceived justice and customer loyalty in the retail banking sector in the UAE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interactional justice (e.g. courtesy) and distributive justice (e.g. refund) play predominant roles, since they impact both positive and negative emotions and the exit-loyalty behaviour of customers regardless of the type of bank (conventional or Islamic). • Procedural justice (e.g. timeliness) has no impact on either negative or positive emotions and the exit-loyalty behaviour of either conventional bank customers or Islamic bank customers. 	Customers
del Río-Lanza et al., (2009)	Satisfaction with service recovery: Perceived justice and emotional responses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All three justice dimensions affect satisfaction, with procedural justice showing the strongest relative influence, as well as being the only dimension affecting the emotions. Results also show that negative emotions mediate the effects of justice on satisfaction with SR. 	cell-phone users
Kim et al., (2009)	The effects of perceived justice on recovery satisfaction, trust, word-of-mouth, and revisit intention in upscale hotels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice have significant effects on trust, WOM, and revisit intention through recovery satisfaction, recovery satisfaction was found to be an important mediating variable. In addition, the mediational role of trust between recovery satisfaction and WOM/revisit intention is substantial. 	Customers

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Fan et al., (2010)	The impacts of online retailing service recovery and perceived justice on customer loyalty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived distributive justice positively affects recovery satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth; and that procedural justice has a positive impact on recovery satisfaction and repatronage intention. 	Customers
Nikbin, et al., (2011)	The effects of perceived justice in service recovery on firm reputation and repurchase intention in airline industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The effect of distributive justice on repurchase intention was stronger than procedural and interactional justice. Firm reputation plays a moderating role between perceived justice and repurchase intention in the distributive and interactional justice dimensions. 	Airline customers
Chang et al., (2012)	Recovery of online service: Perceived justice and transaction frequency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distributive justice, interactional justice and procedural justice can positively lead to satisfaction with recovery of online service and repurchase intention toward online service. Customers with low transaction frequency tend to focus more on interactional justice to establish their satisfaction with recovery of online service. On the other hand, customers with high transaction frequency focus more on procedural justice. 	Customers
Kuo and Wu, (2012)	Satisfaction and post-purchase intentions with service recovery of online shopping websites: Perspectives on perceived justice and emotions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> To enhancing post-purchase intentions and post-recovery satisfaction among customers, distributive justice increases positive emotions and decreases negative. Procedural justice enhances post-recovery satisfaction as well as increases positive emotions and decreases negative ones, interactional justice only increases post-recovery satisfaction of customers. Positive emotions increase post-recovery satisfaction. Post-recovery satisfaction positively affects post-purchase intentions. 	Graduate students
Nikbin et al., (2012)	Perceived justice in service recovery and switching intention Evidence from Malaysian mobile telecom industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The effects of procedural justices on switching intentions were stronger than distributive and informational justices. However, the results did not indicate a significant relationship between interpersonal justice and switching intentions. 	Mobile subscribers

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Ellyawati et al., (2012)	The effect of perceived justice on customer satisfaction in the service recovery context: Testing mediating variables	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived justice also significantly and indirectly affects customer satisfaction. Positive emotions influence the effect of perceived justice on customer satisfaction. Negative emotions only mediate between perceived procedural justice and satisfaction. 	Retailers [owners, managers]
Lii and Lee, (2012)	The joint effects of compensation frames and price levels on service recovery of online pricing error	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The higher consumer perceptions of compensation fairness are, the more likely consumers are to have positive post-recovery satisfaction and trust. 	Student [Scenario]
Ghalandari, (2013)	Perceived Justice's Influence on Post-Purchase Intentions and Post-Recovery Satisfaction in Online Purchasing: The Moderating Role of Firm Reputation in Iran	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived justice Dimensions influences on post-purchase intentions and post-recovery satisfaction and in addition to it, variable of firm reputation moderates these influences. 	Students [Scenarios]
Nikbin et al., (2014)	Effects of Perceived Justice for Coaches on Athletes' Trust, Commitment, and Perceived Performance: A Study of Futsal and Volleyball Players	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All three dimensions of perceived justice were positively and significantly related to commitment and trust. In addition, commitment was significantly related to individual performance and team performance. Further, there was a positive relationship between trust and the three dimensions of perceived performance. 	Athletes
Xu et al., (2014)	Show you care: initiating co-creation in service recovery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When a service employee initiates a co-recovery, customers perceive higher justice, greater satisfaction and a higher tendency to repurchase in the future. But if the customer initiates such a co-recovery, little improvement on these outcomes is found compared to a recovery entirely managed by the company. 	Students [experiment]

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Jha and Balaji, (2015)	Perceived justice and recovery satisfaction: the moderating role of customer-perceived quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distributive justice enhances recovery satisfaction for low perceived quality services, the procedural justice resulted in greater satisfaction in high perceived quality services. 	Customers
Nikbin et al., (2015)	Relationships of Perceived Justice to Service Recovery, Service Failure Attributions, Recovery Satisfaction, and Loyalty in the Context of Airline Travelers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The relationship between perceived justice and recovery satisfaction in terms of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Recovery satisfaction had a significant effect on customer loyalty. The lower the stability and controllability of service failure, the stronger the positive relationship between procedural and informational justice and recovery satisfaction. 	Airline customers
Ding and Lii, (2016)	Handling online service recovery: effects of perceived justice on online games	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All four dimensions influenced satisfaction and trust, with distributive justice producing the strongest relative effect in the online game context. Positive perceptions of online service recovery efforts not only left customers satisfied and trusting, also generated positive e-WOM about their service experiences. 	Player online games
Crisafulli and Singh, (2016)	Service guarantee as a recovery strategy: The impact of guarantee terms on perceived justice and firm motives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Customers show greater perceptions of distributive justice when receiving payout in the form of full refund, rather than 10% discount on the next purchase. The benefits associated with guarantee payout in the form of a discount do not outweigh perceived sacrifices related to the inconvenience caused by the service failure and the process of lodging a complaint. As a result, customers show low perceptions of distributive justice. 	Customers
Lee, (2016)	Online Service Recovery in the Hospitality Industry: Consumers' Perceptions and Preferences on Social Media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The guests have stronger positive satisfaction through emotions when they receive a response from management. The guests' attitudes regarding online service recovery, such as a sense of justice, emotion, trust, and satisfaction, are influenced by the service failure types through emotion. This research revealed that an affective attitude can be influenced by emotion. 	Customers

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Ortiz et al., (2017)	Perceived justice, emotions, and behavioral intentions in the Taiwanese food and beverage industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived justice has a significant effect on empathy, anger, positive word-of-mouth, repurchase intention, and revenge. Empathy has a significant and positive effect on positive word-of-mouth. Anger has a significant and positive effect on revenge and avoidance. Empathy is a mediator between perceived justice and positive word-of-mouth. 	Consumers
Petzer et al., (2017)	Perceived justice, service satisfaction and behavior intentions following service recovery efforts in a South African retail banking context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interactional and distributive justice experienced in response to the service recovery efforts of a bank significantly and positively influence service satisfaction, and that service satisfaction in turn significantly and positively influences the behavioral intention of these customers. Interactional and distributive justice had no direct effect on behavioral intention. 	Customers
Balaji et al., (2017)	Customers' emotion regulation strategies in service failure encounters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Positive and negative emotions mediate the relationship between perceived injustice and customer satisfaction. The emotion regulation of customers through suppression and reappraisal influences the effects of satisfaction on negative word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions. 	Students
Ozkan-Tektas., (2017)	Pre-recovery emotions and satisfaction: A moderated mediation model of service recovery and reputation in the banking sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distributive, procedural, and interactional justice mediate the relationship between pre-recovery emotions and satisfaction. Firm reputation moderates the relationship between emotions and satisfaction via distributive and interactional justice, but not via procedural justice. 	Customers
Liat et al., (2017)	Hotel Service Recovery and Service Quality: Influences of Corporate Image and Generational Differences in the Relationship between Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Service recovery and service quality had a significant impact on customer satisfaction. Customer satisfaction induced customer loyalty towards the hotel operator. The result also showed that corporate image mediated partially between the relationship of customer satisfaction and customer loyalty. 	Tourists

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Cai and Qu, (2018)	Customers' perceived justice, emotions, direct and indirect reactions to service recovery: moderating effects of recovery efforts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distributive justice and procedural justice influence customers' indirect reactions both directly and indirectly via emotions. Interactional justice influences customers' direct reactions both directly and indirectly through its prior effects on emotions. 	Customers
Cheng et al., (2018)	Service recovery, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty: evidence from Malaysia's hotel industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Service recovery dimensions are significantly related to customer satisfaction and have a positive relationship between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty. 	Tourists
Tsao, (2018)	Star power: the effect of star rating on service recovery in the hotel industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice were all shown to have a significantly positive effect on post-recovery satisfaction, which in turn has a significantly positive effect on customer loyalty and significantly negative effect on customer defection. 	Customers
La and Choi, (2019)	Perceived justice and CSR after service recovery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The severity of a service failure intensifies the impact of distributive and procedural justice perceptions on perceived CSR, and perceived CSR serves as a partial mediator in the path from recovery satisfaction to repatronage intentions. 	Students at a university, USA
Bahri-Ammari and Bilgihan, (2019)	Customer retention to mobile telecommunication service providers: the roles of perceived justice and customer loyalty program	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Greater levels of satisfaction toward loyalty program lead to greater customer retention. The satisfaction of loyalty program positively impacts customer relationship satisfaction. The mediating effect of relationship satisfaction is supported. 	Customers
Carrillo et al., (2019)	The impact of perceived justice on satisfaction and behavioral intentions in service encounters – a comparison and validation study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> There are significant relationships between international/distributive justice and service satisfaction, as well as between service satisfaction and behavioral intention. 	Customers

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Kussusanti et al., (2019)	Informational Justice and post-recovery satisfaction in E-commerce: The role of service failure severity on behavioral intention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Informational justice and post-recovery satisfaction have positive effect, while service failure severity acts as a moderator between post-recovery satisfaction and behavioral intentions. 	Online customers
Chi et al., (2020)	Developing relationship quality in economy hotels: the role of perceived justice, service quality, and commercial friendship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Customers' perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice contribute to the evaluation of service quality and the development of commercial friendship, which ultimately results in higher relationship quality. 	Customers
Kayamba, (2020)	The Impact of Perceived Justice on Students' Negative Emotional Responses during SR.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All the dimensions of justice, viz. procedural, distributive and interactional justice, have a negative and significant impact on negative emotions. 	Students
Yoo, (2020)	An Exploration of the Role of Service Recovery in Negative Electronic Word-of-Mouth Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived justice, service failure severity and service recovery expectation significantly influence service recovery satisfaction. And it leads to intention to revise EWOM and repurchase intention. 	Customers
Liu and Ouyang, (2021)	How trust mediate the effects of perceived justice on loyalty: A study in the context of automotive recall in China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distributive justice and procedural justice positively affect cognitive trust, IJ positively affects affective trust, and cognitive trust can exert positive impact on affective trust. Furthermore, both cognitive and affective bases of trust affect attitudinal loyalty, whereas affective trust merely affects attitudinal loyalty. 	Customers
Ampong et al., (2021)	Exploring customer loyalty following service recovery: a replication study in the Ghanaian hotel industry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived distributive justice has no effect on customer satisfaction with service recovery. Interactional justice had the greatest effect on customer satisfaction with service recovery. No significant relationship was found between procedural justice and trust. 	Customers

Table 3 Summary of the key empirical research of perceived justice (continue)

Author	Title	Result	Sample
Rifi and Mostafa, (2022)	Brand credibility and customer-based brand equity: a service recovery perspective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Perceived justice strongly influences satisfaction with service recovery. Satisfaction with service recovery affects both Lebanese banks' brand credibility and customer-based brand equity. The regression analysis demonstrates that satisfaction with service recovery partially mediates the relationship between perceived justice and brand credibility and customer-based brand equity. 	Customers

The results shown in table 3 clarify the implementation of each dimension of perceived justice in service recovery depends on the influence of the level of interaction between service providers and customers, cultural differences, and industry characteristics. Different strategies will affect the company's performance. Specifically, the perception of justice in service recovery plays a crucial role in the success of the hospitality industry. If consumers perceive high justice in service recovery, it positively influences satisfaction, trust, commitment, and ultimately leads to positive outcomes such as positive word-of-mouth (WOM) and intention behavior. Previous studies indicate that distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice have varying effects on subsequent behavior. For example, a study by Kuo and Wu (2012) found that distributive justice and procedural justice increased positive emotions, while interactional justice did not significantly affect emotions. This was attributed to the study's context, which focused on online shopping where the interaction between service providers and customers is limited. On the other hand, research by Chang et al. (2012), Tsao (2018) suggested that distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice positively influence satisfaction. However, Ampong et al. (2021) contradicted this finding, stating that distributive justice has no influence on satisfaction because in customer service, processing is prioritized over tangible outcomes. In summary, the impact of each dimension of perceived justice on subsequent behavior varies, and the context of the study, the nature of the service interaction, and the emphasis on processing versus tangible outcomes all play significant roles.

Hospitality industry often have frequent interactions with customers, making service failures unavoidable. Service recovery is an organizational process to address customer complaints regarding service failures (Gronroos, 1990). Generally, in the hospitality industry, service recovery as a tool to regain dissatisfied customers, eliciting both positive and negative emotions, increasing satisfaction, loyalty, positive word-of-mouth, and trust (Schoefer and Ennew, 2002; Nikbin et al., 2014; Ding and Lii, 2016; Liat et al., 2017; Tsao, 2018), enhance efficiency, increase market share, improve financial performance, and contribute to overall success (Han and Jeong, 2013). Service-oriented companies are pioneers in utilizing service recovery to ensure customer satisfaction. Previous evidence related to 'conflict in service recovery' indicates that customers tend to be more satisfied after an excellent service recovery compared to those who have not experienced service failures (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). Nevertheless, not every effort in service recovery will successfully win back customers. Customers may not become reconcile with an organization that provided a dissatisfactory service recovery. In such situations, the service organization stands to lose the customer for the second time, creating a negative perception that leads customers to turn against the service provider (Sharifi et al., 2017).

This study contributes to an increased understanding of the relationship between perceived justice components in service recovery and the nature of consumer emotional responses within the context of service recovery. The heightened recognition of the significant influence of perceived justice on consumer evaluative judgments regarding the recovery process (e.g., Tax et al., 1998) has been emphasized. While emotions have been deemed important in consumer assessments (Bagozzi et al., 1999), their role in the context of service recovery has received less attention. This may be surprising for two reasons. First, it has been increasingly recognized that one of the key outcomes of service recovery, namely satisfaction, is influenced by both emotions and perceptions. Second, there is a contention that customers often experience intense emotional reactions in response to service failure and subsequently decide whether to continue their relationship with the organization (Smith and Bolton, 2002).

In this context, this study examines the relationship between the components of perceived justice in service recovery and the nature of emotional responses and subsequent behaviors, including silence, satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth communication. The study employs a survey approach within the context of the service industry. The analysis is based on consumers who have previously stayed in 4 and 5-star hotels, experienced service failure, and subsequently received service recovery efforts. This article begins with an overview of the foundational framework of the study. A brief description of the methodology. The study of service recovery in the hotel context of Shofer & Ennew (2005) revealed that the three dimensions of perceived fairness in service recovery at a high-level influence positive emotion. Meanwhile, Balaji et al. (2017) specified that the perception of fairness in service recovery has both positive and negative effects on emotions through recovery satisfaction. Additionally, Kim et al. (2009) and Cheng et al. (2018) found that all three dimensions of perceived fairness in service recovery positively impact trust, word-of-mouth (WOM) recommendations, and revisit intention, while negative effects involve customer defection through recovery satisfaction. The results are then presented and discussed in the third section. The article concludes with summaries and implications of the findings regarding the management of perceived justice.

Perceived justice in Tourism and Hotel Rating

Global tourism has seen significant growth, with 356.67 million international travelers worldwide. This represents a 219.67% expansion; this growth has generated substantial income from the tourism-related services. This expansion can be attributed to several factors, including economic influences, digital technology advancements, and passport facilitation. For Thailand, the situation for foreign tourists has improved, with an increase of 5.04% in the number of foreign tourists visiting Thailand, totaling 2,079,950 people. Meanwhile, domestic tourism by Thai nationals has also seen continuous growth, with 65.53 million people traveling within the country, representing a 166.40% increase. The spending by Thai travelers on domestic tourism is valued at 297,600 million Baht, reflecting a 142.33% increase. The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is estimated at approximately 407,682.56 million Baht (Tourism Economic, 2022). Due to the growth in the tourism industry, hotel operators, who are

among the primary beneficiaries in the hospitality industry, must maintain innovation and strive for excellence in the face of rapidly growing competition. They need to place a greater emphasis on customer satisfaction as customer expectations continue to rise, hotels should be prepared to accommodate these differing needs. Customers often tend to be dissatisfied when the perceived service quality does not meet their expectation. Without appropriate service recovery processes and a well-structured approach to addressing service failures, companies risk losing customers. Due to being unable to meet customer expectations (Giese and Cote, 2000; Mansori et al., 2014).

Hotel ratings are often used to classify hotels according to their quality. From the initial purpose of informing travelers on basic facilities that can be expected, the objectives of hotel rating have expanded into a focus on the hotel experience as a whole (Hensens et al., 2011). A diverse rating system, often utilized by various organizations, where a higher number of stars indicates increased luxury. Various aspects such as food service, entertainment, scenery, room diversity, and additional amenities are considered in establishing hotel standards (Vine, 1981). The hotel rating serves as an indicator of the hotel's commitment to service, implying the expected level of service for guests (Bhavani, 2013; Ariffin and Maghzi, 2012). Generally, higher ratings correlate with higher prices and increased expectations for service quality (Mattila & O'Neill, 2003; Tefera & Govender, 2015). Due to the diverse nature of the hospitality industry, with variations in business culture, environmental factors, and operational types across different countries each country or region may have its own set of criteria or ranking systems tailored to its specific industry and cultural context. As a result, there is still no single standard generally acknowledged by ranking organization or systems as of now (Hung & Lin, 2012).

Hotels are typically classified into different star ratings based on their overall quality, services, and facilities. Here's a general overview of the distinctions between 1 to 5-star hotels:

1-Star hotels: basic accommodations with minimal services, limited amenities, often no on-site restaurant, modest room furnishings and décor, and suitable for budget-conscious travelers seeking the most basic accommodations.

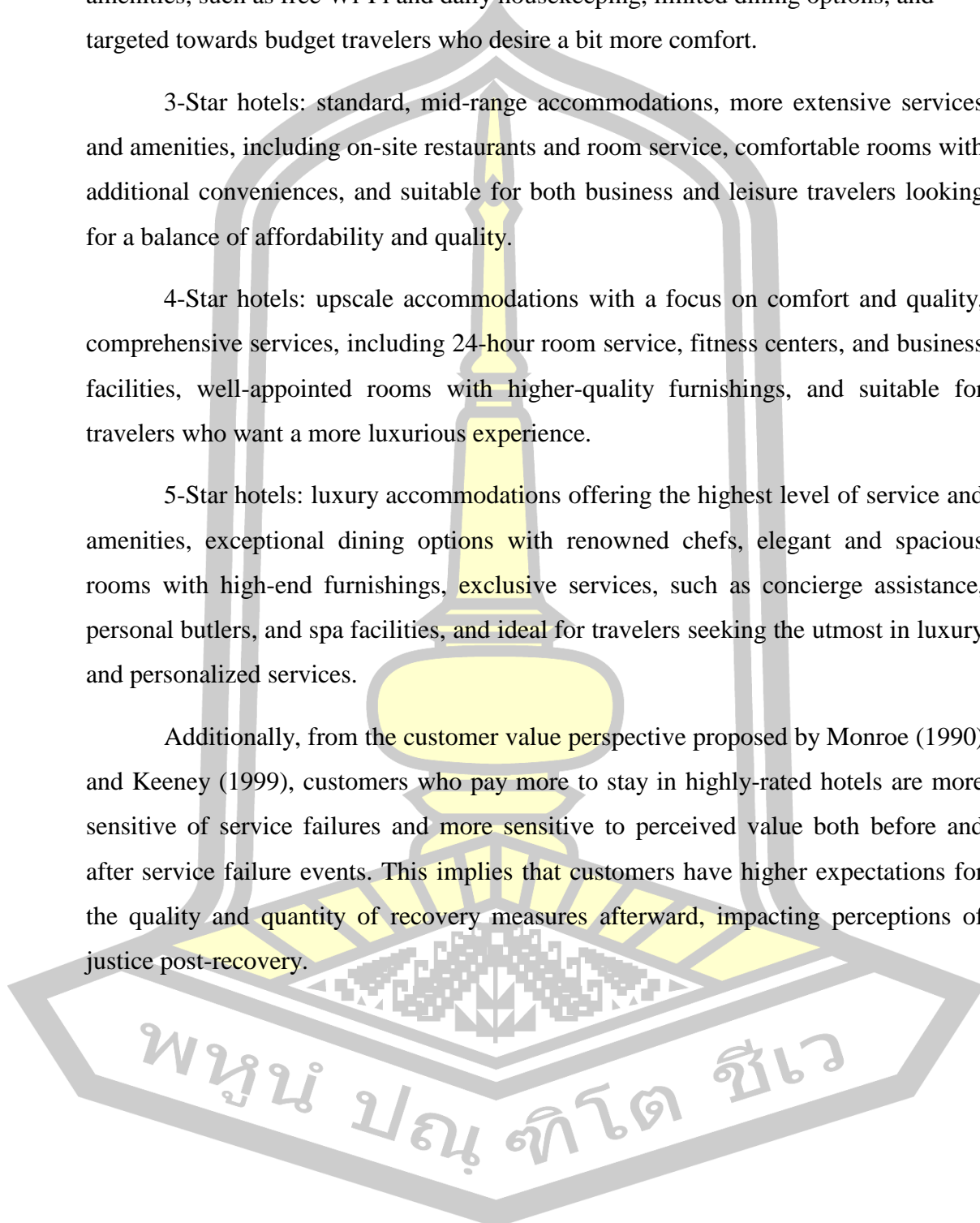
2-Star hotels: slightly more comfortable than 1-star hotels, basic services and amenities, such as free Wi-Fi and daily housekeeping, limited dining options, and targeted towards budget travelers who desire a bit more comfort.

3-Star hotels: standard, mid-range accommodations, more extensive services and amenities, including on-site restaurants and room service, comfortable rooms with additional conveniences, and suitable for both business and leisure travelers looking for a balance of affordability and quality.

4-Star hotels: upscale accommodations with a focus on comfort and quality, comprehensive services, including 24-hour room service, fitness centers, and business facilities, well-appointed rooms with higher-quality furnishings, and suitable for travelers who want a more luxurious experience.

5-Star hotels: luxury accommodations offering the highest level of service and amenities, exceptional dining options with renowned chefs, elegant and spacious rooms with high-end furnishings, exclusive services, such as concierge assistance, personal butlers, and spa facilities, and ideal for travelers seeking the utmost in luxury and personalized services.

Additionally, from the customer value perspective proposed by Monroe (1990) and Keeney (1999), customers who pay more to stay in highly-rated hotels are more sensitive of service failures and more sensitive to perceived value both before and after service failure events. This implies that customers have higher expectations for the quality and quantity of recovery measures afterward, impacting perceptions of justice post-recovery.



The Relationship between Each Dimension of Perceived Justice and Emotions

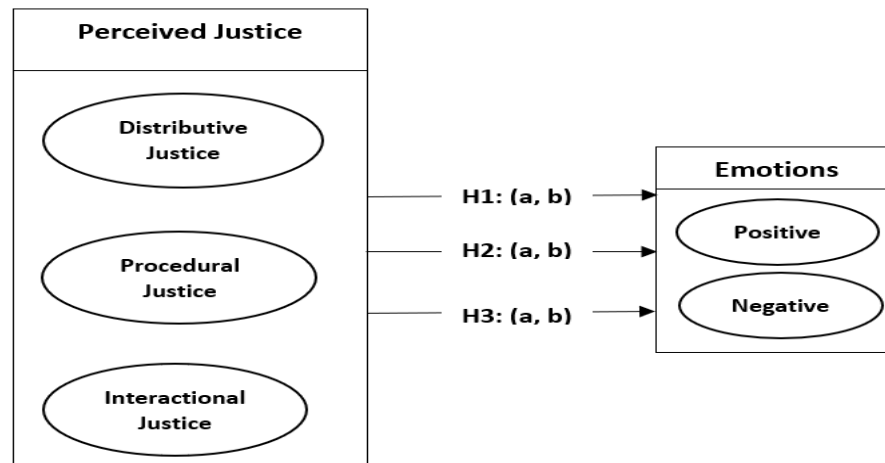


Figure 1 The relationship between each dimension of perceived justice on emotion

In 1991, Westbrook and Oliver asserted that emotions are a primary source of human motivation, significantly influencing satisfaction, loyalty, and future behavior. In 1998, Bagozzi and Rusbult contributed to defining emotions by specifying that they are rooted in 1) biological and cognitive factors, 2) heavily influenced by societal and interpersonal sources, and 3) often subject to substantial changes due to psychophysiological alterations. In the customer environment, individuals' emotional states can also be subject to change based on their perceptions of situations, such as service failures or effective service recovery experiences. Despite the numerous definitions, the emotional state of each individual can vary based on their perception of the situation. Numerous researchers (Schoefer and Ennew, 2002; Balaji et al., 2017; Cai and Qu, 2018; Kayamba, 2020) have conducted studies on consumer emotions in the service industry. In their research efforts, consumer emotions are defined as a set of emotion-specific responses that occur during the consumption of services. Each research attempt aims to examine various components of emotions, categorized according to specific types of emotional experiences, expressions (happiness, anger, and fear), or structural dimensions within the emotional categories, such as relaxation/action satisfaction/dissatisfaction, or calmness /excitement emotions (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Previous studies clearly demonstrate that

customers strongly associate emotions, both positive and negative, with the service encounter. Emotions play a significant role in influencing customer satisfaction levels, loyalty, and future behavioral intentions (Oliver, 1993; Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Ortiz et al., 2017; Ozkan, 2017). Smith & Bolton (2002) examined the role of customer emotional responses in the context of service failure and recovery encounters by investigating customers' judgments of satisfaction in two service settings: restaurants and hotels. The results indicated that customer emotional responses to service failures influence evaluations of recovery efforts and satisfaction judgments in certain situations. The impact of emotions varies based on the industry environment. It is evident that the emotions arising from the perception of the fairness of recovery services have a significant impact on the subsequent behavior of consumers, which in turn affects the sustainable growth of the business. Therefore, it is essential to conduct a detailed study on the impact of perceived justice on consumer emotions.

There are numerous theories related to the formation of perceived satisfaction. However, justice theory and cognitive appraisal theory seem particularly relevant in the context of service recovery (SR). This is because consumers generally perceive some degree of inequality in responses to service failures (Maxham, 2001). Therefore, Konovsky (2000) argues that the concept of perceived justice is crucial for understanding individual reactions in conflict situations. Service failure is a common scenario in conflict situations, so perceived justice is relevant to explaining consumer behavior in response to service recovery (Blodgett et al., 1997). Although some studies do not differentiate between different dimensions of perceived justice (Pathak et al., 1994) or do not analyze all three components (Oliver and Swan, 1989), other researchers (Smith et al., 1999; Varela-Neira et al., 2008) suggest including all components of perceived justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) in service recovery research.

Additionally, some researchers argue that the perception of fairness influences emotions. According to Bagozzi et al., (1999) "emotions arise in response to evaluations that construct about something relevant to the quality of human being." In other words, individuals generate emotions in response to their assessments, not the

events themselves. From this perspective, Schoefer and Ennew (2005) conclude that perceived justice represents a dimension of cognitive appraisal that triggers emotional responses in handling complaints. Similarly, Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005) argue that emotions are a way consumer deal with fairness. They contend that it depends on the level of perceived justice, and each individual experience emotion and participates in behavior consistent with the impressions and feelings they encounter in service recovery. Researchers also use this sequence of perception and emotion to attempt to understand various aspects of consumer behavior, such as satisfaction (Mattila and Wirtz, 2000) and attributions when faced with service failures (Szymanski and Henard, 2001). However, when considering the nature of services and the situations arising from service failures, emotions play a crucial role for consumers. Nevertheless, most studies on service recovery do not consider that perceived justice triggers emotional responses beyond the evaluation. There are only a few studies that have examined emotions.

Previous research examining the effects of perceived justice—specifically distributive justice, interactional justice, and procedural justice—on emotional responses has consistently shown that perceived justice is associated with positive emotions (Weiss et al., 1999; Klaus & Ennew, 2002). Furthermore, studies of emotions and tangible efforts found that perceived justice, tangible efforts, influenced positive emotions, and psychological efforts influenced both positive and negative emotions (Hee, 2016). In terms of the impact of perceived justice, existing literature reveals a significant negative relationship between perceived justice and negative emotions (William, 1999; Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; del Rio-Lanza et al., 2013). Notably, insightful investigations by del Rio-Lanza et al. (2013), Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005), and Schoefer and Ennew (2005) have provided important evidence on the role of perceived justice in examining negative emotional responses during service recovery. A substantial portion of service recovery research emphasizes the role of negative emotions, given that service failures are typically linked to adverse consequences (Kayamba, 2020). Specifically, consumer dissatisfaction is often associated with emotions such as anger, disappointment, and sadness. As a result, customers are likely to experience negative emotions (Voorhees,

Brady, & Horowitz, 2006). Concurrently, research has been found that when service providers are able to meet customers' needs during the service recovery process, there is a significant likelihood that customers' negative emotions may decrease while positive emotions may increase (DeWitt et al., 2008). Based on these findings, the following hypothesis is posited:

Hypothesis 1a: Distributive Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.

Hypothesis 1b: Distributive Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.

Hypothesis 2a: Procedural Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.

Hypothesis 2b: Procedural Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.

Hypothesis 3a: Interactional Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.

Hypothesis 3b: Interactional Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.

The Relationship between Emotions and Post-Recovery Satisfaction

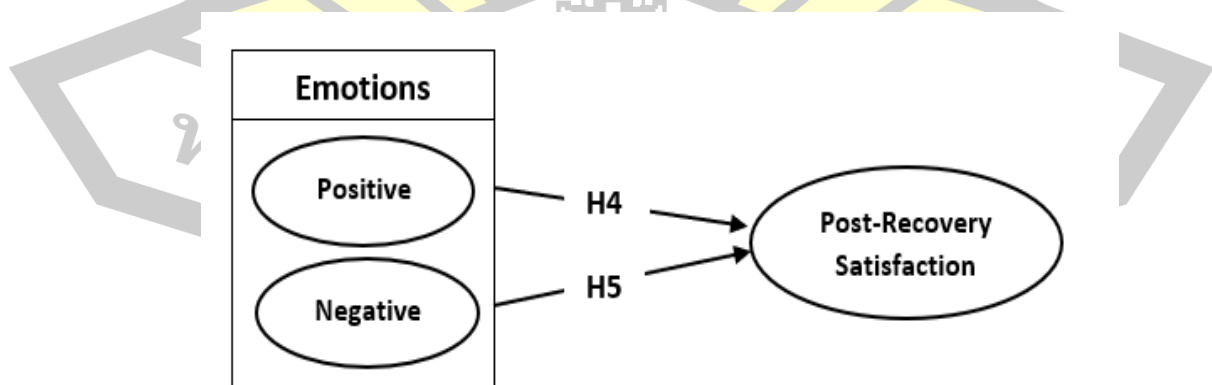


Figure 2 The relationship between emotions and post-recovery satisfaction

Satisfaction is a post-purchase evaluative judgment process regarding specific purchasing selection (Patterson and Johnson, 1993). The idea of satisfaction is separated from attitudes towards the brand or product. Satisfaction is considered the primary cause responsible for changes in attitudes based on experiences (Oliver, 1980). The general nature of satisfaction evaluation typically begins with comparing the performance levels, quality, or other outcomes of products or services that consumers are aware of against evaluation standards. These evaluation standards consist of the set of pre-purchase expectations in consumer. They are compared against the perceived performance levels of the product. These factors collectively contribute to the formation of satisfaction judgments (Oliver, 1980; Bearden and Teel, 1983). Customer satisfaction is a key factor in retaining customers and preventing them from switching to other companies. Importantly, post-recovery satisfaction will differ from assessing customer satisfaction before receiving a service that might fail (Ghalandari, 2013). Due to the fact that post-recovery satisfaction is a concept based on the match/mismatch between customer expectations and the performance of the service provider, it is related to the post-service failure attitudes and behaviors of the service provider, also known as service recovery performance (Smith et al., 1999; McCollough et al., 2000). Therefore, customer expectations regarding service recovery significantly influence the level of post-recovery satisfaction assessment. When a service failure occurs, expectations tend to develop in the customer's mind. In response to these expectations, service providers must take some action or demonstrate efforts to address the problem. These expectations are referred to as "recovery expectations," distinct from the expectations existing before the service failure (Chih et al., 2012). When recovery expectations exceed the effectiveness of the recovery efforts, negative evaluations ensue. Consequently, dissatisfaction arises after the service recovery process.

The service evaluation process is not just about perception, but also about emotions. Service errors can lead to negative emotions (Dalci and Kosan, 2012; Crawford, 2013). Effective and fair service recovery can eliminate negative emotions and foster positive feelings, subsequently stimulating satisfaction. Conversely, unfair and poor service recovery can amplify negative emotions, leading to dissatisfaction

and adversely affecting the customer-company relationship (Kim et al., 2012). Most previous studies assessed service and service recovery from the perspective of perception (Tax et al., 1998; Smith et al., 1999; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). They mainly examined the effect of cognitive factors (perceived justice/fairness) on customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions. They mainly studied have investigated the influence of perception and emotion on satisfaction and post-complaint behavior in the context of service recovery (Schofer and Ennew, 2005; Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; del Río-Lanza et al., 2009). These studies demonstrate that fairness in service recovery is a driving force behind emotions, which in turn, influences customer evaluations, such as satisfaction. Various customer emotions may arise during consumption (before, during, and after). These emotions influence evaluations, such as satisfaction, of the service provider (Oliver, 1997). Clear emotional responses from customers facilitate service providers in improving post-recovery customer satisfaction (Smith and Bolton, 2002) and recovering from service failures (del Río-Lanza et al., 2009). Balaji et al. (2017) and Davidow (2003) found that positive and negative emotions serve as mediators in the relationship between the perception of fairness and customer satisfaction. Customer emotion control through suppression and reappraisal influences the impact of satisfaction, negative word-of-mouth and the intention to repurchase. Schoefer and Ennew (2005) affirmed that customer emotions precede post-recovery satisfaction. Other studies also indicate that PE_{mo} have been found to influence recovery satisfaction, while NE_{mo} do not have a significant effect on satisfaction (Hee, 2016). In contrast, existing literature indicates that PE_{mo} exerts a positive impact on satisfaction (Schoefer, 2008; Wen & Chi, 2013; Balaj et al., 2017), whereas NE_{mo} negatively affects satisfaction (Smith & Bolton, 2002; Schoefer, 2008; del Rio-Lanza et al., 2009; Balaj et al., 2017; Wen & Chi, 2013), thus, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Positive emotions have positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Negative emotions have negative influence on post-recovery satisfaction

Electronic Word of Mouth

Word-of-Mouth (WOM) refers to individuals' perceptions of things that spread to others (Richins, 1983). These perceptions are influenced by experiences (Richins, 1983). When comparing WOM to eWOM, WOM involves sharing information with small groups of people, whereas eWOM incorporates various methods of disseminating information at the speed of communication channels on the internet (Steffes & Burgee, 2009). Furthermore, eWOM is easily accessible for individuals with internet access (Dellarocas, 2003; Steffes & Burgee, 2009). Moreover, internet access provides opportunities for the general public to share their experiences with products or services by participating in eWOM (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). Yoon and Uysal (2005) consider Word of Mouth (WOM) as 'one of the most significant sources of information for frequent travelers.' Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM), often referred to as online reviews, online recommendations, or online comments, has gained importance with the emergence of new technological tools. The key distinction between WOM and eWOM can be identified through the impact of reviews (the number of people influenced) and the speed of response. Sun et al. (2006) concluded that 'when comparing traditional WOM with eWOM, eWOM is more influential due to its speed, convenience, accessibility to a broader audience, and the absence of human confrontation.' Schiffman and Kanuk (2000) provide additional reasons why consumers are interested in both WOM and eWOM, citing the expectation of obtaining information that may save time and effort in decision-making, contributing to more satisfying decision outcomes. The diverse scope of eWOM and the convenience of accessing reviews can profoundly impact the operational performance of companies. Therefore, companies are increasingly attempting to understand the factors influencing the use of eWOM, including the impacts resulting from its use. The tourism industry, in particular, has been significantly affected by eWOM, with hotels likely experiencing the most pronounced effects (Antoni Serra & Fabiana, 2014).

The Relationship between Post-Recovery Satisfaction and Electronic Word of Mouth

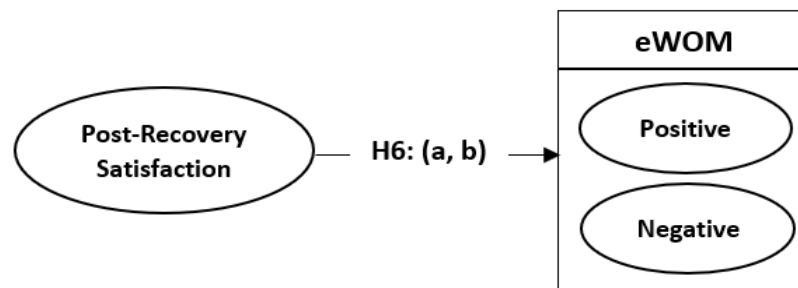


Figure 3 The relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and electronic word of mouth

Service recovery is an action taken by a service provider, which is necessary to address a failure or an event that deviates from the customer's expectations (Grönroos, 1988). Post-recovery satisfaction refers to the customer's satisfaction after receiving the corrective action for a service failure from the service provider. This satisfaction may differ from the customer's initial satisfaction with the original service encounter (Kuo and Wu, 2012; Mattila, 2001). After experiencing a service failure and lodging a complaint, customers expect to receive good service once again. This expectation depends on individual values and perspectives regarding effective service recovery (Singh and Widing, 1991). If customers encounter negative service recovery or denial, customer dissatisfaction may occur (Oliver, 1993; Singh and Widing, 1991; Swan and Trawick, 1981). Customer evaluations of service are measured by behavioral intentions, such as the intention to repurchase and the intention to spread positive word-of-mouth (Jeon and Kim, 2020). Word of mouth refers to the communication from one party to another; this involves sharing feedback about the assessment of a product or service, whether positive or negative (Goyette, Ricard, and Bergeron, 2010). Currently, personal experiences related to word-of-mouth can spread rapidly and may even become viral conversation topics in the realm of social media. Word of mouth behaviors encompass activities such as disseminating information about products, offering recommendations, and advising others through electronic media (Lii and Lee, 2012).

Previous studies have examined the impact of appropriate service recovery on customer satisfaction (Blodgett et al., 1997, Smith et al., 1999, and Tax et al., 1998). Research indicates a significant relationship between satisfaction with complaint handling and both trust and commitment (Kelley and Davis, 1994). It can also link perceptions of fairness to post-complaint behaviors and attitudes. Furthermore, satisfaction with complaint handling can enhance the evaluation of the service experience and increase customer retention. It was also found that post-recovery satisfaction influences word-of-mouth intentions, both positively and negatively (Gohary et al., 2016; Wirtz and Mattila, 2004). Multiple studies have shown that satisfaction with service recovery significantly and positively influences positive word of mouth (Spreng et al., 1995; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002; Jung and Seock, 2017; Liu et al., 2019; Jeon and Kim, 2020; Schlesinger et al., 2023). In the context of online services, Swansons and Kelley (2001) demonstrated that post-recovery satisfaction impacts electronic word-of-mouth. Conversely, Holloway et al. (2005) found negative effects of post-recovery service satisfaction on negative word-of-mouth. Anaza (2014) supports that satisfied customers are more inclined to recommend online shopping websites to family or peers. When consumers share eWOM on review websites, they expect their voices to be heard and not ignored (Wu et al., 2016). In the post-complaint stage, the responsiveness of the service provider reflects the effectiveness of handling service failure reports through the complaint management system (Filip and Anghel, 2009). Therefore, taking no action to address negative online criticism not only affects consumers' evaluations of the service provider, but also influences their intention to continue engaging in eWOM on review websites. According to social exchange theory, consumers engage in a cost-benefit analysis to decide whether to engage in certain behaviors or not. A satisfying service recovery can enhance the perceived psychological benefits and awareness of online reviews, which may encourage consumers to be more actively involved in eWOM communication (Kim et al., 2009; Ro and Wong, 2012). Thus, it can be observed that satisfaction is inverse relationship with word-of-mouth behavior. Furthermore, it was found that dissatisfied consumers are more likely to engage in WOM activities than their satisfied counterparts (Swan & Oliver, 1989; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Hence, the hypotheses are proposed as follows:

Hypothesis 6a: Post-recovery satisfaction have positive influence on positive eWOM.

Hypothesis 6b: Post-recovery satisfaction have negative influence on negative eWOM.

The Relationship between Each Dimension of Perceived Justice and Post-Recovery Satisfaction

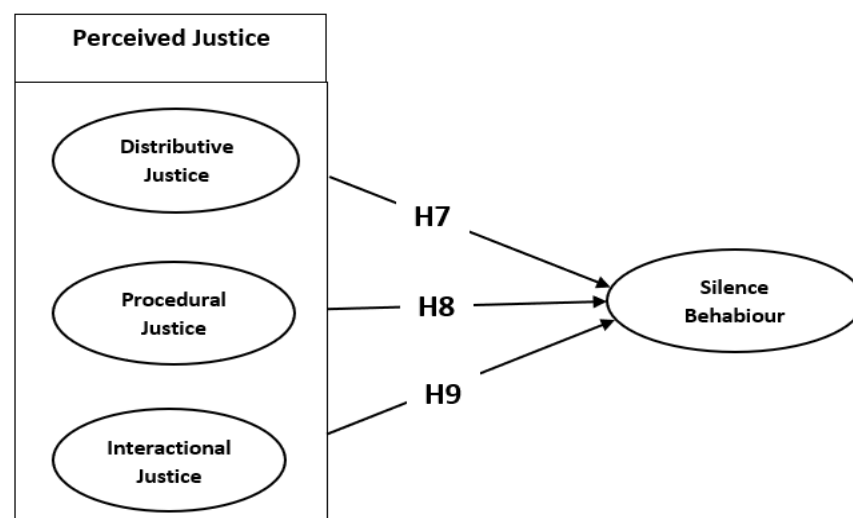


Figure 4 The relationship between each dimension of perceived justice and post-recovery satisfaction

The justice theory framework seems to be gaining popularity in explaining how customer evaluate the provider's response to service failure/recovery. Applying the justice framework enhances a deeper theoretical understanding of service providers and the dynamics of their relationship with customers (Collie et al., 2000). Despite recent advancements regarding the impact of perceived justice on post-recovery behavior, there is still room to explore how the service provider's recovery efforts affect the subsequent customer-company relationship. The overall customer satisfaction with an organization's services depends not only on regular service delivery but also on the measures taken in service recovery following a service failure. Berry and Parasuraman et al. (1991) support the notion that effective service

recovery can enhance customers' perceived quality of the purchased product or service. It can also improve customers' perceptions of the organization's capabilities, create a positive image for the organization, and ultimately enhance post-recovery customer satisfaction. Perceived justice can be categorized into three types. Distributive justice focuses on the outcomes received from service recovery. When consumers receive compensation or redress that they perceive as fair, they tend to be satisfied with the organization after the recovery process. Procedural justice is associated with the process of service recovery, involving factors like speed, customer perception, and responsiveness to customer complaints. Smith et al. (1999) propose that response speed and procedural justice are positively related, and procedural fairness positively influences post-recovery satisfaction. Interactive justice relates to communication between customers and service providers. The interaction between the organization and the consumer directly impacts the consumer's perception. If the service provider is unable to provide care during the service recovery process, customers' negative emotions will increase, leading to a decrease in satisfaction (Tax et al., 1998). Additionally, previous research has emphasized that post-recovery satisfaction has been widely utilized in assessing perceived levels of fairness (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002, 2003; Mattila and Patterson, 2004; Schoefer, 2008; Del Rio-Lanza et al., 2009; Ozkan-Tektas and Basgoze, 2017). In their investigation of service recovery in the banking sector, Maxham and Netemeyer (2002) found that customer satisfaction after recovery increased when perceiving both distributive and interactional justice. This finding aligns with the research of Mattila and Patterson (2004) regarding recovery measures in different cultures. In addition, Maxham and Netemeyer (2003) found that both distributive and procedural justice processes contribute to increased satisfaction after service recovery. Schoefer (2008) and Del Rio-Lanza et al. (2009) suggested that distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice can enhance post-recovery satisfaction. When service providers consider the components of perceived justice from the customer's perspective, they can better understand customer perceptions of justice and improve customer satisfaction after recovery efforts, as well as Sabharwal et al. (2010) have also demonstrated that all three dimensions of fairness have a positive impact on

satisfaction with service recovery. Building on the above integration, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Distributive justice have positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8: Procedural justice have positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.

Hypothesis 9: Interactional justice have positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.

The Relationship between Perceived Justice and Silence Behaviour

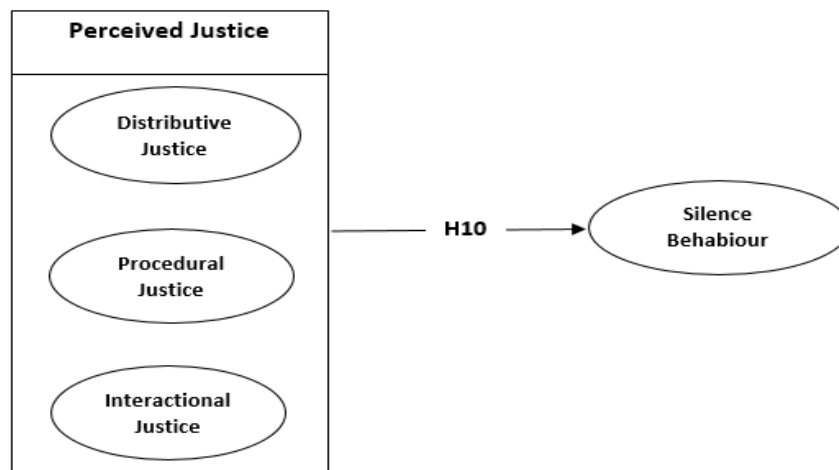


Figure 5 The relationship between perceived justice on silence behaviour

Silence behavior refers to a behavioral state in which a consumer chooses to internalize issues with a service rather than immediately complaining or expressing dissatisfaction to the service provider. This involves withholding feedback or concerns about the service. This behavior may lead to a lack of awareness within the organization about the issues that have arisen, potentially hindering the organization's ability to make improvements. Silence behavior can manifest in various forms, such as resistance, acceptance, affection, anger, surprise, or fear (Bruneau, 1973; Pinder

and Harlos, 2001). Silence customers are a type of customer who have enough influence on the future of your business. They are conscious enough about their service experience to pay attention. They are also influential enough to pass on their dissatisfaction to their friends and family. However, they don't provide feedback or suggestions when they encounter problems. They simply walk away. Voorhees et al (2006) confirmed that the factors influencing silence customer may differ from those that tend to predict complaining behavior. This suggests that individuals who complain are more likely to repurchase than those who do not complain. The theory of equity and preliminary findings in the service recovery literature indicate that consumers who choose not to complain and remain under a negative incident may signal an intention to repurchase better than consumers who complain and do not receive redress. Some reasons for not complaining may stem from a lack of time, an inability to contact customer service, or an inability to access appropriate complaint channels (Tronvoll, 2007). Meanwhile, Tulubas, T., & Celep, C. (2012) determined that faculty silence behavior was affected by perceptions of organizational justice. Kolodinsky (1995) identified that female consumers are more likely to complain than males. At the same time, consumers who experience recovery initiated by the organization show significantly lower negative impact levels than consumers who receive efforts to recover after complaining. Important research indicates that effective service recovery can restore customer perception and positive behavior after a service failure. Existing service recovery literature has acknowledged customer complaints (Singh, 1988) as crucial information for successful service recovery efforts (Kim et al., 2010; Ro and Mattila, 2015). However, relying on customer complaints can be a limitation in implementing service recovery, as customers experiencing service failures may not voice their concerns to the service provider (Tax and Brown, 1998). This results in major service failures going unaddressed, leaving consumers dissatisfied with their negative service experiences. It is apparent that much of the research on service recovery predominantly employs a research design linking service recovery efforts to consumer complaint behavior (e.g., Kim et al., 2010; Ro and Mattila, 2015; Voorhees et al., 2006). It appears that dissatisfied customers who do not voice their concerns may not experience service recovery and

may exhibit other types of negative responses, such as resistance, fear, or anger, which can be detrimental to developing a sustainable relationship.

The previous studies on consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction have focused mostly on complainants who are dissatisfied with the service recovery process and it was found that there is still a lack of research on satisfaction/dissatisfaction non-complaining customers or acceptance in service recovery, as well as dissatisfied non-complaining customers or resistance in relation to service recovery efforts by the service provider (Kau and Wan-Yiun, 2006). A significant amount of empirical research has utilized perceived justice as a key factor in examining consumer responses to complaints. Blodgett et al. (1997) employed a retailing context to demonstrate the importance of interactive justice in influencing post-complaint consumer behavior. Tax et al. (1998) presented evidence indicating the significance of perceiving fairness in generating positive evaluations in managing complaints. Most research has focused on the generality of service recovery in response to complaints/non-complaints or silence (Voorhees et al., 2006; Augusto et al., 2009; FitzPatrick et al., 2012). This is despite previous studies providing insight into why customers do silence (non-complaint) after receiving service failures. An empirical survey of silence after service restoration could help researchers better understand the customer silence behaviour phenomenon. From the above relationship, thus, the following hypothesis was proposed:

Hypothesis 10: Perceived justice has a positive influence on silence behaviour.

พหุ ประถมศึกษา

The Relationship between Silence Behaviour and Electronic Word of Mouth

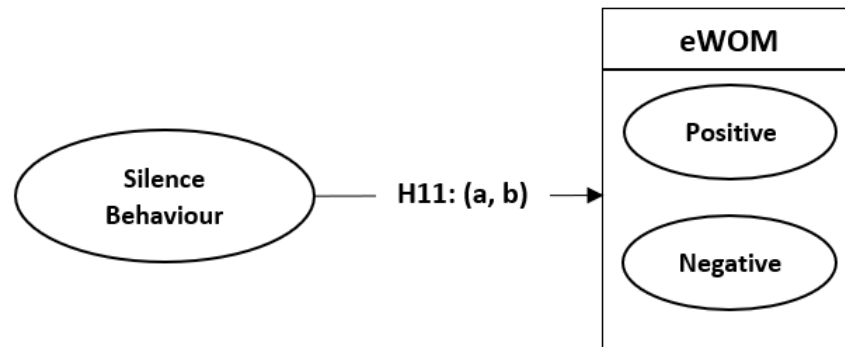


Figure 6 The relationship between silence behaviour on electronic word of mouth

In the digital age, dissatisfied consumers are turning to social media more often to voice their complaints and opinions about their service experiences through online public complaints, consumers are motivated to post negative feedback with the intention of harming the company. This negative electronic word-of-mouth has detrimental effects on brand perception and consumer behavior (Wattegama and Qing, 2014). However, in the era of social networking and electronic communication, it is anticipated that these numbers will be even higher. According to TARP (Technical Assistance Research Programs, Inc.), in cases where service failures occur, up to 95 percent of customers may choose to remain silent and not complain. Simultaneously, there is a tendency to switch to a competing service provider. Even though consumers may stay silent to suppress direct complaints to the service business because they feel that complaining doesn't help, and they have no time or energy for it (Downton, 2002). Meanwhile, negative word-of-mouth may still spread to third parties (Davidow and Dacin, 1997). Particularly with the rapid development of the Internet, online negative information continues to proliferate. Therefore, a strategy to mitigate word-of-mouth is to prioritize the resolution of service failures. Dissatisfied customers who share their service experiences often receive widespread recognition as valuable sources of information for improving service quality. Silence indicates missed opportunities to rectify service failures. A significant loss of customers may result from negative word-of-mouth. Limited past research on silently

dissatisfied and non-complaining customers has led to an increased demand for exploratory research methods. The phenomenon of silence and dissatisfied consumers applies to both academics and practitioners in the service industry. The feedback of unsatisfied customers who choose to remain silent is considered a crucial key to service improvement. This is because customers who quietly voice their displeasure may represent a loss, as the underlying silence may indicate a deep-seated lack of trust, a willingness to engage in negative word-of-mouth, and low loyalty. Negative service experiences can trigger negative emotions, feelings of frustration, and a desire for catharsis (Smith et al., 1999). The more negative the experience, the more intense the negative emotions tend to be. To alleviate these negative emotions, individuals may engage in spreading negative word-of-mouth (Andreasson et al., 2017). While, researchers have noted that customer reactions tend to become more positive after receiving service and expressing satisfaction concurrently. This also plays a role in positive word-of-mouth and recommendations to their relatives.

However, up until now, research on the relationship between silence and willingness to spread both positive and negative word-of-mouth has not been entirely consistent. Some studies suggest a positive relationship (Richins, 1983), while others find no significant correlation). Furthermore, even though there is widespread dissemination of information on the internet, there is relatively little research that considers the willingness of individuals to actively engage in spreading eWOM. Therefore, the hypotheses are proposed as follows:

Hypothesis 11a: Silence behaviour have positive influence on positive eWOM.

Hypothesis 11b: Silence behaviour have negative influence on negative eWOM.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 7 shows the conceptual model that drawing the relationships among perceived justice, emotions, silence behavior, post-recovery satisfaction, and eWOM. The model of perceived justice is based on the framework proposed by Hoffman and Kelley (2000), while the emotional constructs are adapted from Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005). Silence behavior is conceptualized from Kau and Wan-Yiun (2006), and post-recovery satisfaction is derived from the study by Ellyawati et al. (2012). The construct of eWOM is informed by the research of Fan et al. (2010). The subsequent section reviews the relevant literature and develops hypotheses regarding the role of perceived justice in service rehabilitation.

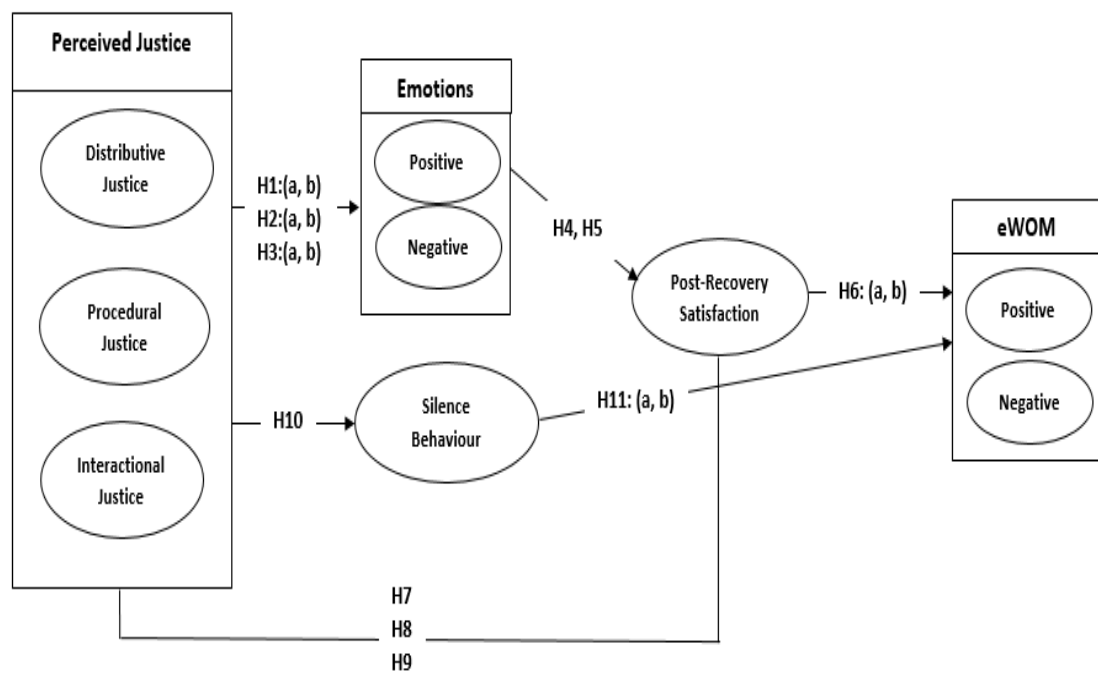


Figure 7 Conceptual model of the effects of perceived justice toward service recovery on electronic word of mouth on 4-5-star hotels in Thailand

Definitions

The operational definitions of each variable studied in this study are shown in table 4 to enhance clarity, systematic, and easy to understand for readers or those who can develop it further effectively.

Table 4 Summary the definition of all variables in this research

Variable	Definition
Distributive Justice	Perceived justice and fairness regarding the final recovery outcome that the firm uses to allocate resources for rectifying and compensating for failures in service.
Procedural Justice	Perceived fairness of policies, processes, and methods that a company employs to address issues that arise during service provision in various aspects.
Interactional Justice	Perceived fairness in which service providers interact with and address service failed customers.
Emotion	Emotion is a complex psychological state that involves a variety of positive and negative feelings, behaviors, and physiological responses.
Silence Behaviour	The behavioral state in which consumers keep to themselves the problems in service instead of complaining to the service businesses or voicing their complaints
Post-recovery Satisfaction	Overall customer satisfaction with the secondary service provided by the service provider after experiencing a service failure.
Electronic word of mouth	Informal communications, both positive and negative directed at consumers through Internet-based technology related to the usage or characteristics of particular goods and services, or their sellers.

Hypotheses

In this study, the research hypotheses were developed based on the conceptual framework, relevant theories, and previous studies. These hypotheses articulate predictions regarding the relationships among the variables under investigation, as summarized in the table below:

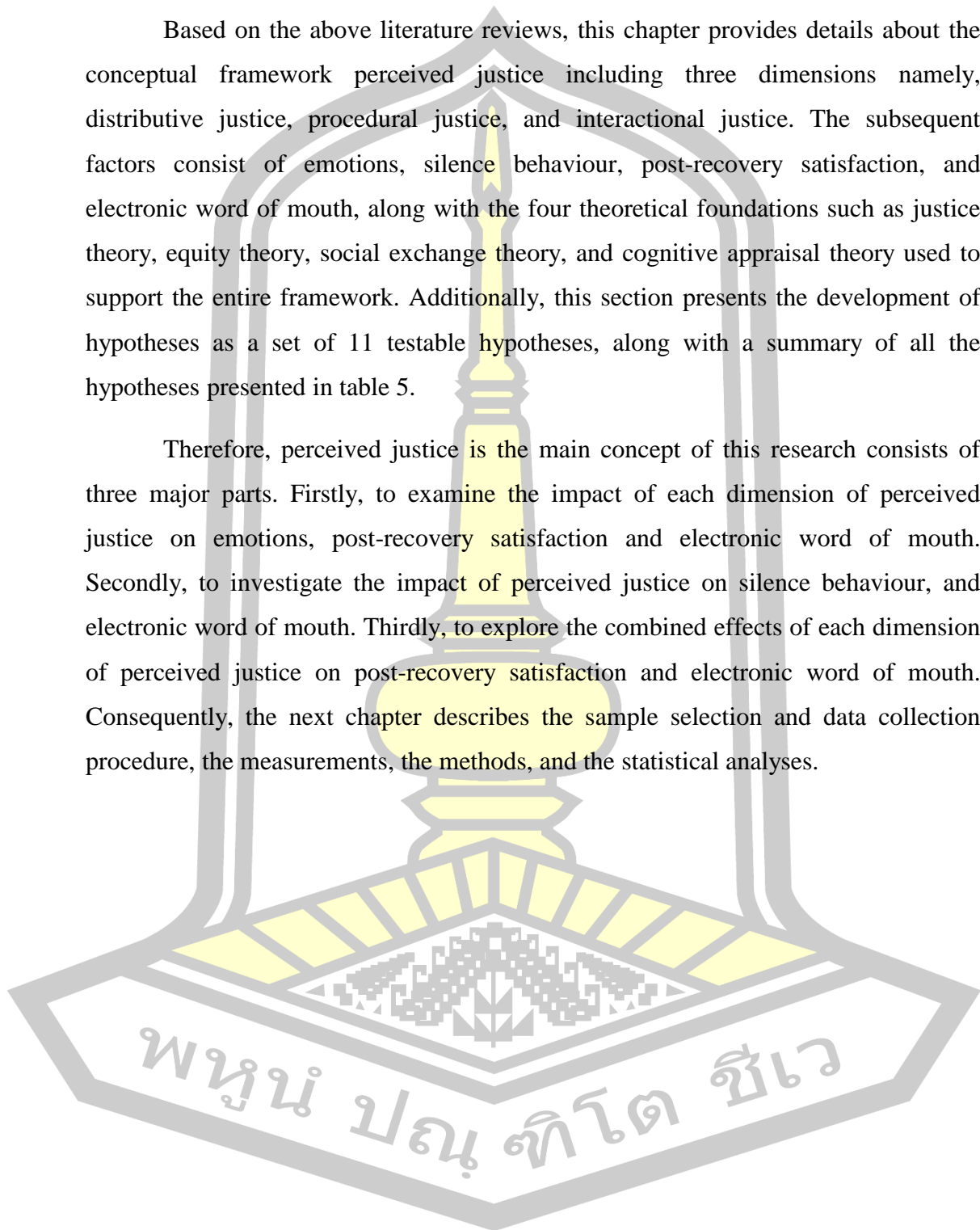
Table 5 Summary of hypothesized relationships

Hypotheses	Description of Hypothesized Relationships
H1a	Distributive Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.
H1b	Distributive Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.
H2a	Procedural Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.
H2b	Procedural Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.
H3a	Interactional Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.
H3b	Interactional Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.
H4	Positive emotions have positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.
H5	Negative emotions have negative influence on post-recovery satisfaction.
H6a	Post-recovery satisfaction has positive influence on positive eWOM.
H6b	Post-recovery satisfaction has negative influence on negative eWOM
H7	Distributive justice has positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.
H8	Procedural justice has positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.
H9	Interactional justice has positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.
H10	Perceived justice has a positive influence on silence behaviour.
H11a	Silence behaviour have positive influence on positive eWOM.
H11b	Silence behaviour have negative influence on negative eWOM.

Summary

Based on the above literature reviews, this chapter provides details about the conceptual framework perceived justice including three dimensions namely, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. The subsequent factors consist of emotions, silence behaviour, post-recovery satisfaction, and electronic word of mouth, along with the four theoretical foundations such as justice theory, equity theory, social exchange theory, and cognitive appraisal theory used to support the entire framework. Additionally, this section presents the development of hypotheses as a set of 11 testable hypotheses, along with a summary of all the hypotheses presented in table 5.

Therefore, perceived justice is the main concept of this research consists of three major parts. Firstly, to examine the impact of each dimension of perceived justice on emotions, post-recovery satisfaction and electronic word of mouth. Secondly, to investigate the impact of perceived justice on silence behaviour, and electronic word of mouth. Thirdly, to explore the combined effects of each dimension of perceived justice on post-recovery satisfaction and electronic word of mouth. Consequently, the next chapter describes the sample selection and data collection procedure, the measurements, the methods, and the statistical analyses.



CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The previous chapter provided a detailed literary review of perceived justice on service recovery and electronic word of mouth in the 4 and 5-star hotels industry, the theoretical foundations, and the hypothesis development for investigation. Chapter 2 demonstrated the definition of each component within the framework covering the relationships among perceived justice on its consequences by a review of the relevant literature and the theoretical foundations application with hypotheses development. Accordingly, this chapter explained the research methodology used to address the research objectives, research questions, and test the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 1. Therefore, this chapter consisted of four parts: methodology and research design, measurements, methods, and statistical techniques. The first part of the chapter described the research methodology, elucidating the sources of the population, the sampling procedure, the development of the questionnaire, and data collection. The second part of this chapter addressed the measurement of the entire structure within the context of dependent variables, independent variables, and mediating variables. The third section explained the methods utilized in this research, which encompassed validity and reliability tests for measuring the questionnaire. The last section of the chapter delineated the statistical techniques employed in this research, primarily involving the structural equation model (SEM).

Population and Sample

Population

The population for this research consisted of consumers who had previously experienced service failures and service recovery efforts at 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand within the year prior to the survey. Due to the high level of interaction between employees and consumers in the hotel industry, there was a significant opportunity for service failures to occur (Lewis and McCann, 2004). From the customer's perspective, when they spent more to stay in a highly-ranked hotel, they

were likely to be more sensitive to service failures and had higher expectations for both the quality of service and the subsequent recovery measures. The study by Hargraves et al. (2019) found that there was a slight difference between the 6-month and 12-month recall periods. The duration of the recall may have depended on the type of usage and significance, with shorter durations being used for frequently occurring events. If the recall period was too short, survey respondents might not have had enough experience to provide accurate answers. Previous research found that the average frequency of travel was approximately 2 times per year (Prempreeda and Kulintornprasit, 2020; Thammaratr, Yhunnasarn, and Kanjanamaneesathian, 2017; Cheng et al., 2018; Liat et al., 2017).

Sample

A sample is a subset drawn from the broader population that meets to specific criteria, ensuring that it accurately represents the characteristics of the larger group. The sample size in this study required a minimum sample size to construct a structural equation model (SEM) as recommended by Hair et al. (2010) stating that if the data fit a normal distribution, the sample size must be 10-20 times greater than the number of measured variables or indicators to construct an appropriate SEM model. In this study, there were 34 observed variables. Therefore, an appropriate and sufficient sample size ranged from 340 (10 x 34 observed variables) to 680 (20 x 34 observed variables). Based on these calculations, the minimum sample size suitable for analysis using the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) technique was 340 samples, and the maximum was 680 samples. Thus, in this study, it was specified to have a total of 400 samples. This number was both adequate and greater than the minimum required sample size for conducting the analysis using the structural equation model technique.

Measurements and Questionnaire Development

Measurements

The development of multiple items for measuring each structure in the conceptual model was undertaken because all variables were latent constructs that could not be directly measured. Therefore, several items were added to enhance the

accuracy and reliability of the measures (Churchill, 1979). These structures were transformed into operational variables for true measurement. In measuring each structure in the conceptual model, the content of the questionnaire was modified according to relevant literature to align with the actual situation. A self-administered questionnaire comprised six main sections. The first section included screening questions that asked respondents whether they had stayed at a hotel within the past 12 months and whether they had encountered problems with services or received service recovery efforts from the hotel. The second section collected personal information such as gender, age, marital status, occupation, education level, average income, travel category, average length of stay, and travel frequency. The third part addressed the hotel stay behavior of the survey respondents. Parts four to seven assessed the level of perception of fairness in the behaviors that followed. The measurement scale used was a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. This psychometric response scale was primarily used in the questionnaire to obtain participants' preferences or degrees of agreement with statements. Likert scales are a non-comparative scaling technique and are unidimensional, measuring only a single trait. In each question, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with a given statement using an ordinal scale (Likert, 1961). The content of the measurement variables consisted of independent variables, mediating variables, and dependent variables, described as follows:

Independent Variables

Perceived justice refers to the level of “fairness” or “rightness” of the recovery efforts (de Matos et al., 2012), representing an individual's subjective assessment or evaluation of the fairness, equity, and impartiality of a situation or process. It was not necessarily based on objective facts or legal standards, but rather on a person's own perceptions and beliefs about what was just and right. Perceived justice could apply to various contexts, including legal proceedings, social interactions, organizational decisions, and more. It encompassed three main components: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Perceived justice was crucial in various aspects of society, as it influenced people's satisfaction with and acceptance of decisions, rules, and institutions. When individuals perceived a situation as just, they

were more likely to comply with rules and decisions and feel a sense of trust and confidence in the system. Conversely, perceived injustice could lead to resentment, dissatisfaction, and a reduced willingness to comply with rules or accept decisions.

Distributive justice refers to perceived justice and fairness regarding the final recovery outcome that the firm used to allocate resources for rectifying and compensating for service failures (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). It generally focused on tangible compensation (such as refunds, discounts, and other forms of restitution). This construct was developed as a scale from definitions and literature reviews and was adopted from del Río-Lanza et al. (2009). This research measured distributive justice with five items. The measurements of this variable used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the policies, processes, and methods that a company employed to address issues arising during service provision, including aspects such as time/speed, accessibility, process control, flexibility, and delays in adapting to consumer recovery needs (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). This construct was developed as a scale from definitions and literature review, and was adopted from del Río-Lanza et al. (2009). This research measured procedural justice with five items. The measurements of this variable used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Interactional justice refers to the perceived fairness in how service providers interacted with and addressed failed customers (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002). This included aspects such as apology, courtesy, honesty, respect, empathy, interest, communication, explanation, and effort. This construct was developed as a scale from definitions and literature reviews and was adopted from del Río-Lanza et al. (2009). This research measured interactional justice with six items. The measurements of this variable used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Mediating Variables

Emotions refers to a state of mental readiness that arose from the assessment of events or intellectual considerations. They had a phenomenological tone and were accompanied by psychophysiological processes. Emotions were often manifested in

bodily expressions (such as posture, gestures, and facial expressions) and could lead to specific actions aimed at confirming or coping with the emotion, depending on the nature and meaning of the emotion for the individual experiencing it (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Emotions could be positive (such as happiness, warmth, love, feeling valued, or contentment) or negative (such as anger, bad mood, upset, fear, or sadness). This construct was developed as a scale from definitions and literature review, and was adopted from Schoefer and Ennew (2005) and Schoefer and Diamantopoulos (2008). This research measured each emotion with three items. The measurements of this variable used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Silence behavior refers to the behavioral state in which consumers kept to themselves problems with service instead of complaining to the service businesses or voicing their complaints (Wang Wenfeng, 2015). It involved a range of cognitions and emotions such as love, anger, surprise, fear, shyness, avoiding conflict, or intentions such as objection or endorsement. Silence could be active, conscious, intentional, and purposeful. It could occur for various reasons and convey different meanings depending on the context and the individuals involved (Zehir and Erdogan, 2011; Pinder and Harlos, 2001; Bruneau, 1973). This construct was created from definitions and literature reviews. This research measured silence behavior with two items. The measurements of this variable used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Post-recovery satisfaction refers to overall customer satisfaction with the secondary service (secondary satisfaction) provided by the service provider after experiencing a service failure, which differed from customer satisfaction with the initial service (Harris et al., 2006; McCollough et al., 2000; Smith et al., 1999; Tax et al., 1998). This construct was developed as a scale from definitions and literature review, and was adopted from McCollough et al. (2000) and Maxham and Netemeyer (2002). This research measured post-recovery satisfaction with four items. The measurements of this variable used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Dependent Variable

Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM) refers to all informal communications directed at consumers through Internet-based technology related to the usage or characteristics of particular goods and services, or their sellers (Litvin et al., 2008). In general, electronic word of mouth included comments on product performance, service quality, product impressions, and reliability shared by current or previous consumers (Arroyo and Pandey, 2010). Positive electronic word of mouth (PeWOM) refers to the likelihood that a dissatisfied customer would revise their negative electronic word of mouth in a favorable direction after the recovery process (Choi and Choi, 2014). Negative electronic word of mouth (NeWOM) refers to the likelihood that a dissatisfied customer would revise their negative electronic word of mouth in a more negative direction after an inadequate recovery process. In reality, customers often posted updates expressing their dissatisfaction after receiving inadequate treatment following a service failure during the initial phase (Burke, 2016). This construct was developed as a scale from definitions and a literature review and was adapted from Gvili and Levy (2018). This research measured each PeWOM and NeWOM with three items. The measurements of these variables used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Table 6 Definition and operational variable of all constructs

Constructs	Definitions	Operational Variables	Scale Sources
Dependent Variable			
Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	All informal communications directed at consumers through Internet-based technology related to the usage or characteristics of particular goods and services, or their sellers.	The likelihood that customer would revise her/his positive or negative eWOM in a more positive or negative direction by recommend, spread, and encourage.	Gvili and Levy, (2018)

Table 6 Definition and operational variable of all constructs (continue)

Constructs	Definitions	Operational Variables	Scale Sources
Mediating Variables			
Emotion (EM)	Emotion refers to a complex psychological state that involves a range of feelings, behaviors, and physiological responses.	The likelihood that customer would revise her/his positive or negative emotion in a more positive or negative direction by feel happy, warm, being valued, angry, bad mood, and upset after service recovery encounters of hotel.	Schoefer and Ennew, (2005); Schoefer and Diamantopoulos, (2008)
Silence Behaviour (SB)	The behavioral state in which consumers keep to themselves the problems in service instead of complaining to the service businesses or voicing their complaints	Consumers holding to themselves the problems in service instead of complaining for different reasons.	Based on Wang Wenfeng, 2015
Post-recovery Satisfaction (PRS)	Post-service satisfaction refers to overall customer satisfaction with the secondary service provided by the service provider after experiencing a service failure.	Consumer satisfaction in the form how the hotel is handling the service failure.	McCollough et al., 2000; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002

Table 6 Definition and operational variable of all constructs (continue)

Constructs	Definitions	Operational Variables	Scale Sources
Independent Variable			
Distributive Justice (DJ)	Perceived justice and fairness regarding the final recovery outcome that the firm uses to allocate resources for rectifying and compensating for failures in service.	Perceived rectifying and compensating for failures in service from hotel. It generally focuses on tangible compensation.	del Río-Lanza et al., (2009)
Procedural Justice (PJ)	Perceived fairness of policies, processes, and methods that a company employs to address issues that arise during service provision in various aspects.	Perceived methods during service recovery, time/speed, accessibility, process control, flexibility, and delays in adapting to consumer recovery needs.	del Río-Lanza et al., (2009); Schoefer and Ennew, (2002)
Interactional Justice (IJ)	Perceived fairness in which service providers interact with and address service failed customers.	Perceived the interest that hotel showed in being fair when solving the problem, apology, courtesy, honest, empathy, explanation, and effort.	del Río-Lanza et al., (2009)

Questionnaire Development

To develop the instrument employed for data collection, the researcher followed the following steps:

First, a review of relevant literature, theoretical concepts, and definitions of terms related to justice perception, emotions, post-recovery satisfaction, silence behaviour, and electronic word-of-mouth were conducted, resulting in the questionnaire for this research (table 7).

Table 7 The question item of all constructs

Variable	Question Item
Distributive justice (DJ)	DJ1 - You agree with the compensation received from the hotel when comparing the problem to the time lost. DJ2 - The hotel has taken good compensation measures to resolve the problem. DJ3 - The hotel is trying to offer satisfactory compensation. DJ4 - The hotel is fair in compensating for the problems that have occurred. DJ5 - The hotel provided adequate compensation to resolve the issues that occurred.
Procedural justice (PJ)	PJ1 - Your problem has been solved in the right way. PJ2 - The hotel has good policies and practices for dealing with problems. PJ3 - The hotel is able to respond to problem solving to the fullest extent. PJ4 - The hotel is flexible in its approach to problem solving. PJ5 - The hotel was able to resolve the issue quickly.
Interactional justice (IJ)	IJ1 - The hotel staff showed interest in your problem. IJ2 - This hotel staff did everything they could to resolve your issue. IJ3 - The hotel staff will handle your problem sincerely. IJ4 - The hotel staff are capable enough to solve problems. IJ5 - The hotel staff treated you politely while solving the problem. IJ6 - The hotel staff showed interest in resolving your problem fairly.
Positive emotion (PEmo)	PEmo1 - You feel happy after the hotel solves your problem. PEmo2 - You feel a warm feeling after service recovery encounters at this hotel. PEmo3 - You feel valued after service recovery encounters at this hotel.
Negative emotion (Nemo)	NEmo1 - You feel angry after service recovery encounters of this hotel. NEmo2 - You feel frustrated after service recovery encounters of this hotel. NEmo3 - You feel disappointed after service recovery encounters of this hotel.
Silence behaviour (SB)	SB1 - You are silence because you agree with the hotel's solution. SB2 - You are silence because you feel indifferent about the hotel's problem solving

Table 7 The question item of all constructs (continue)

Variable	Question Item
Post-recovery satisfaction (PSAT)	PSAT1 - You are satisfied after the hotel has dealt with the problem that occurred. PSAT2 - The hotel can handle the problem according to your needs. PSAT3 - The hotel handled the problem beyond your expectations.
Positive electronic word of mouth (PeWOM)	PeWOM1 - You will recommend this hotel to my friends and relatives. PeWOM2 - You will spread positive eWOM of this hotel to my friends and relatives. PeWOM3 - You will encourage my friends and relatives to choose this hotel for their next trip.
Negative electronic word of mouth (NeWOM)	NeWOM1 - You will not recommend this hotel to my friends and relatives. NeWOM2 - You will spread negative eWOM of this hotel to my friends and relatives. NeWOM3 - You will not encourage my friends and relatives to choose this hotel for their next trip.

Second, the questionnaire was structured and developed to encompass the objectives to be assessed. The questionnaire was developed using forward translation. In this process, the instrument was initially translated from English to Thai, followed by a back translation from Thai to English. Both translation procedures were carried out by scholars with native proficiency in English and a high level of expertise in the Thai language.

Third, assess the validity of the questionnaire. In research and measurement, refers to the degree to which a tool or instrument (such as a questionnaire, test, or assessment) accurately measured what it was intended to measure (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham, 2010). It was a critical aspect of research design, used to verify whether the measure addressed absoluteness and accuracy, which were necessary to examine the quality of the questionnaire as a predictor of future behaviors (Wainer, 1988; Piercy and Morgan, 1994). In this research, validity was deemed appropriate for accurately confirming the concept or construct of the study.

Two types of validity, content validity and construct validity (Bearden et al., 1993) were tested.

Content validity refers to the extent to which the items of the scales adequately reflected the interrelated theoretical domains (Green, Tull, and Albaum, 1988) based on the relevant theory and literature review (Rosier, Morgan, and Cadogan, 2010). The item-to-Objective Congruence (IOC) was used to approach assess to evaluate the validity of a measurement instrument by determining the extent to which each item is appropriate and relevant with the research objectives or intended constructs and also the inclusion of suitable wording, phrases, and statements that were scrutinized for allocation within context. The IOC was tested by a panel of five experts in the field. The experts rated each item on a scale of -1 to 1, with -1 = not relevant and 1 = very relevant. After the experts rated each item, an IOC score was calculated for each item by adding up the scores of all the panel members and dividing by the number of experts as detailed in table 8.

Table 8 Lists of experts to ensure construct validity

No.	Expert	Institute
E1	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Danupol Hoonsopon	Marketing Department, Chulalongkorn University
E2	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Wanlee Putsom	Research Director and Business Administration, Asia-Pacific International University
E3	Asst. Prof. Dr. Pongnarin Pitjatturat	Marketing Department, Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Nakhon Ratchasima
E4	Asst. Prof. Dr. Prathanporn Jhundra-indra	Marketing Department, Mahasarakham University
E5	Asst. Prof. Dr. Areerat Pansuppawatt	Marketing Department, Mahasarakham University

The results demonstrated that, subsequent to the review of the questionnaire by five experts, all item-objective congruence (IOC) ratings of 0.79 (≥ 0.5) were considered satisfactory (Turner & Carlson, 2003). To obtain the most appropriate measurement scale consistent with the conceptual definition, the questions were revised as advised by experts.

Construct validity was a type of validity in research that assessed the extent to which a measurement or test accurately measured the theoretical construct or concept it was intended to represent. In other words, it examined whether the instrument (e.g., questionnaire, test, scale) was actually measuring what it was supposed to measure. Furthermore, construct validity also referred to a set of measured items that reflected the latent theoretical constructs that those items were designed to measure (Hair et al., 2010). This research aimed to test the accuracy of the measurement tools to confirm that the measures or sets of measures accurately represented the study's theoretical concepts. In this study, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the accuracy of the structure developed from previous research (Carlo and Randall, 2002). This research employed CFA to examine the accuracy of the structure. The rationale for the study was the existence of nine structures and 34 items modified from the literature. The convergent validity of the items was assessed using factor loadings, with a criterion of loading greater than 0.40 as suggested by J. F. Hair et al. (2010). Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criteria were generally used to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the model, and analysis of average variance (AVE) was conducted to examine the construct validity of the questionnaire data (Fischer, Rudick, Cutter & Reingold, 1999). The cutoff value of AVE at 0.50 was considered acceptable. Discriminant analysis refers to a statistical technique used to determine group membership based on a set of metric predictors that were independent variables. The main function of this technique was to assign each observation to a specific group or category based on independent characteristics of the data, or to assess the extent to which a construct was intrinsically different from other constructs (Hair et al., 2010). A scale could be distinguished from other scales measuring distinct constructs by its accuracy.

Fourth, ethical considerations are essential to the conduct of research, helping to ensure the integrity of the study. Ethical procedures in research typically involve adherence to established ethical standards and principles that govern the treatment of participants, data management, and the overall execution of the research process. These procedures are designed to uphold the rights and dignity of research participants while ensuring the reliability and credibility of the study's findings. Once the appropriate questionnaire for the research was developed, submit the finalized questionnaire that has passed the content validity test by assessing the item-to-Objective Congruence (IOC), along with the complete research project, evidence of human research ethics training, a copy of the thesis outline examination report (T1), and a DC or DVD containing all research project information submitted as documents to the Research Promotion and Academic Services Division, Maha Sarakham University, to request expedited human research ethics (expedited review). The submitted documents on January 23, 2024, and approval was granted on March 13, 2024, resulting in a total processing time of 51 days.

Fifth, test the quality of the instruments through pretesting was a process in survey research where questionnaires and survey instruments were tested with study participants or members of the target population. The purpose of a pretest is to identify potential issues, assess the clarity and relevance of the items, and determine the instrument's reliability and validity. Pretesting helps researchers refine their tools and procedures to ensure the main study runs smoothly and yields accurate, reliable data. The pre-test also provided a good indication of whether the data collection processes were feasible before they actually took place. Cronbach's alpha needed to be more than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010).

In this study, researchers collected data from 30 samples of guests staying at four- and five-star hotels. They obtained permission from the hotel to gather data using questionnaires from guests relaxing in the hotel's lobby. Importantly, they ensured that the respondents had encountered service failures and recovery to confirm that they understood the questions. Then, the obtained data is tested for reliability.

Sixth, test the quality of the instruments through reliability refers to the level at which the measurement in the questionnaire was true, and observed variables were error-free, indicating the degree of internal consistency between the multiple variables (Hair et al., 2010). Cronbach's alpha was a method used to assess reliability by comparing the amount of shared variance, or covariance, between the items that made up an instrument to the amount of overall variance. If the instrument was reliable, there should have been a high degree of covariance among the items. Cronbach's alpha coefficient measured the reliability of subjects' answers regarding all items on the questionnaire, producing values that ranged from 0.00 to 1.00 (Hernandez, Fernandez, and Baptista, 2010). Thus, it was applied to evaluate reliability. As recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the value of Cronbach's alpha coefficient was between 0.00 and 1.00, with 0.70 and above indicating acceptable reliability (Hair et al., 2010). The reliability of the questionnaires collected from the pre-test are shown in table 9.

Table 9 Reliability coefficients of the main constructs

Variables	Item	Cronbach's Alpha
Independent variables		
Distributive Justice	5 Items	0.87
Procedural Justice	5 Items	0.88
Interactional Justice	6 Items	0.90
Dependent variables		
Positive Emotion	5 Items	0.91
Negative Emotion	3 Items	0.93
Silence Behaviour	3 Items	0.88
Post-recovery Satisfaction	3 Items	0.90
Positive Electronic Word of mouth	3 Items	0.88
Negative Electronic Word of mouth	3 Items	0.90
Overall Variables		0.94

Note N = 30

The results presented indicated that assessments were performed to evaluate the dependability of each variable and construct. The reliability indices for perceived justice, emotion, silence behavior, post-recovery contentment, and electronic word of mouth ranged from 0.87 to 0.93, the reliability of the overall construct was 0.94. Thereby suggesting that the questionnaire demonstrated acceptable reliability.

Following the completion of the above steps, the questionnaire is fully prepared for implementation in actual data collection. These procedures contribute to enhancing the validity and reliability of the data to be subsequently obtained.

Sampling Design

The methodological approach comprised a cross-sectional study of consumer perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the service recovery process employed by 4 and 5-star hotel groups located in Thailand. The quantitative research aimed at evaluating the role of perceived justice in service recovery and identifying its potential components, in comparison with those developed in the service recovery literature. The online questionnaire was distributed to the target sample utilizing a non-probability sampling method, using the snowball sampling technique. Due to the difficulty in identifying consumers with experiences of service recovery and because it is a widely-used method for large-scale data collection in a geographical area (Neuman, 2006), this approach enabled the collection of data from a broad and representative sample of populations across various locations. It was also cost-effective, convenient, and efficient for soliciting responses from questionnaire participants (Winston, David, Kwok, and Sharp, 1998). The advantages of collecting data using online questionnaires include giving respondents more time to answer questions. In this research, participants did not receive incentives to encourage their participation. To ensure respondents were confident that their answers would not be disclosed, measures were implemented to protect privacy and prevent personal information from being revealed to third parties. This involved using cautious and controlled processes in data collection, storage, and access that aligned with privacy, human rights, and other relevant laws. Respect for the dignity and confidentiality of

respondents was upheld. At the conclusion of the survey process, the collected documents were securely disposed of using standard methods.

Data Collection

After 30 pre-test questionnaires were tested for reliability and an acceptable value was obtained. The online questionnaire was distributed to the target sample group. The online survey used to collect data was conducted in a Google Form. The advantages of collecting data using online questionnaires include giving respondents more time to answer questions. This process begins by randomly selecting the initial ten individuals who meet the specified criteria. Afterward, ask them to forward the questionnaire to who are known to have experienced service recovery. Data collection began on March 25, 2024, and 439 responses were received on May 13, 2024. The total data collection period is 50 days. However, because the respondents did not pass the screening questions, Therefore, 28 questionnaires were eliminated and data from the respondent's number 1-400 was used as a sample for the final analysis.

Statistic Techniques

This study used structural equation modeling (SEM) to analyze the data obtained from respondents for several reasons.

- SEM was suitable for analyzing data with a sufficiently large number of participants (N).
- SEM allowed researchers to easily specify and test hypothetical relationships between theoretical constructs and observable indicators.
- SEM was an efficient statistical technique for constructing measurement models and structural models, and it could also be used to examine the overall effect of external variables on other variables within a structural model.
- SEM was a statistical technique used for analyzing the relationships among multiple variables, particularly for relatively complex models (Akter & Ray, 2011). It not only facilitated a detailed analysis of the model but also aided in making more precise inferences for model improvement and

helped alleviate issues related to multicollinearity in some cases. A two-step approach was used to test the structural model as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988).

The statistical analysis of the data involves the following steps:

First, all raw data were examined, encoded, and saved in data files. Subsequently, the basic assumptions of structural equation modeling (SEM) were evaluated, including an assessment of normal distribution through skewness and kurtosis. Furthermore, a range of descriptive and inferential statistical methods, such as mean, standard deviation, t-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and correlation analysis, were employed to assess the completeness and validity of the data.

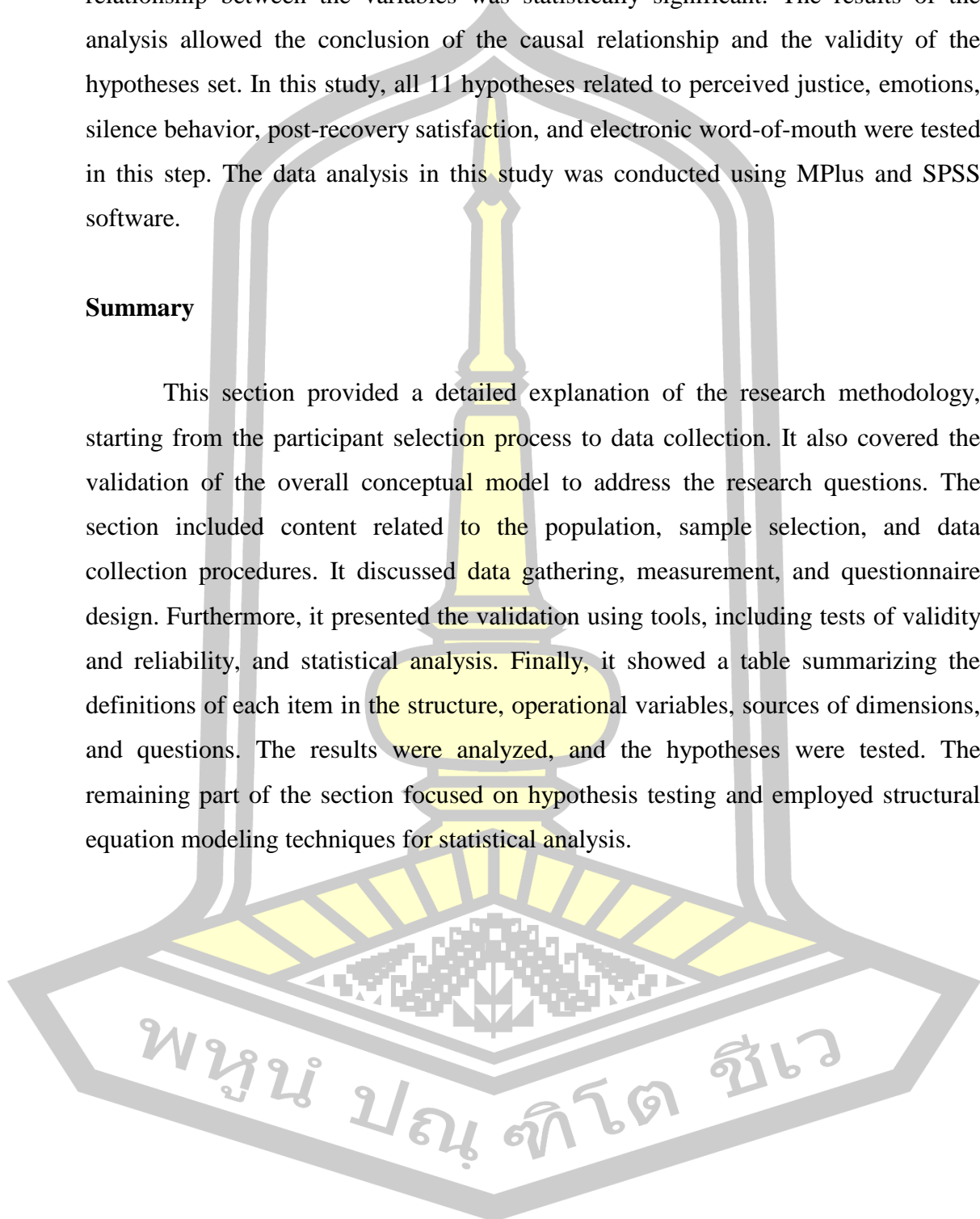
Second, the measurement model testing procedure focuses on examining the model's validity in several aspects, including convergent validity, discriminant validity, and construct validity. Additionally, the model's goodness-of-fit is analyzed by comparing the observed covariance matrix with the estimated covariance matrix derived from the model. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) technique was used to evaluate both the fit and validity of the model. The process began by defining the latent variables and their corresponding indicators, specifying which observed variables were used to measure each latent construct. A measurement model was constructed in accordance with the hypotheses, establishing the relationships between the latent variables and their indicators. The model was visualized through path diagrams using the Mplus software to assess the goodness-of-fit of the measurement model. The evaluation metrics included factor loadings, chi-square, relative chi-square, RMSEA, CFI, TLI, and SRMR.

Last, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) begins with the use of a confirmed model from Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to examine the structural relationships among the variables. This process also includes assessing the goodness-of-fit of the model using the same fit indices employed in the CFA, including chi-square, relative square, RMSEA, CFI, TLI, and SRMR, to confirm the model's goodness of fit. Subsequently, the effects of the various variables are analyzed, including direct effects, indirect effects, and total effects. The significance test of the

paths in the model was performed by considering the p-value to confirm that the relationship between the variables was statistically significant. The results of the analysis allowed the conclusion of the causal relationship and the validity of the hypotheses set. In this study, all 11 hypotheses related to perceived justice, emotions, silence behavior, post-recovery satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth were tested in this step. The data analysis in this study was conducted using MPlus and SPSS software.

Summary

This section provided a detailed explanation of the research methodology, starting from the participant selection process to data collection. It also covered the validation of the overall conceptual model to address the research questions. The section included content related to the population, sample selection, and data collection procedures. It discussed data gathering, measurement, and questionnaire design. Furthermore, it presented the validation using tools, including tests of validity and reliability, and statistical analysis. Finally, it showed a table summarizing the definitions of each item in the structure, operational variables, sources of dimensions, and questions. The results were analyzed, and the hypotheses were tested. The remaining part of the section focused on hypothesis testing and employed structural equation modeling techniques for statistical analysis.



CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS

The previous chapter discussed research methods related to populations, sample selection, and data collection. The research method helped clarify the hypotheses that could be tested to achieve the research objectives and questions. This chapter detailed the results of the hypothesis testing and the characteristics of the respondents, including descriptive statistics. These were presented in the following order: first, the characteristics of the respondents, normality test, comparison of the mean differences of each variable, and correlation analysis, followed by the measurement model evaluation; second, the hypotheses and results were tested in detail. Finally, the results of all hypothesis tests in this study were summarized.

Respondent Characteristics

The sample of respondents in this study consisted of consumers who had previously experienced service failures and service recovery efforts at 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand within the year prior to the survey. Respondents' characteristics were divided according to demographic factors, including gender, age, status, occupation, education, average monthly income, and hotel-staying behavior such as travel purpose, average length of stay at a hotel, frequency of travel, and overnight stays.

Table 10 Characteristics of respondents

Variables	Scale	Frequencies	Percent
1. Gender	Male	171	42.75
	Female	229	57.25
	Total	400	100.00
2. Age	Less than 20 years	7	1.75
	20 - 30 years	32	8.00
	31 - 40 years	109	27.25
	41 - 50 years	164	41.00
	More than 50 years	88	22.00
Total		400	100.00

Table 10 Characteristics of respondents (continue)

Variables	Scale	Frequencies	Percent
3. Status	Single	123	30.75
	Married	191	47.75
	Divorced	86	21.50
	Total	400	100.00
4. Occupation	Businessman	125	31.25
	Government Official	75	18.75
	State enterprise employee	64	16.00
	Company employee	121	30.25
	Student	15	3.75
	Total	400	100.00
5. Education	Less than bachelor's degree	47	11.75
	Bachelor's degree	211	52.75
	Master's degree or higher	142	35.50
	Total	400	100.00
6. Average monthly income	Less than 50,000 baht	86	21.50
	50,000 - 60,000 baht	78	19.50
	60,001 - 70,000 baht	66	16.50
	70,001 - 80,000 baht	64	16.00
	80,001 - 90,000 baht	46	11.50
	90,001 - 100,000 baht	15	3.37
	More than 100,000 baht	45	11.25
	Total	400	100.00

The results of the study found that the participant's characteristics of 400 respondents as follows. Approximately 229 (57.25 percent) of respondents were female and the majority of respondents were between 41-50 years old 164 (41.00 percent). Most of the participant's status were married 191 (47.75 percent). The occupation with the highest number of respondents was businessman 125 (31.25 percent). 211 (52.75 percent) of participants graduated with a degree of bachelor.

Additionally, most participants had an average monthly income Less than 50,000 baht 86 (21.50 percent). Table 10 provided the respondents' statistical characteristics information.

Table 11 Respondents of hotel-staying behavior

Variables	Scale	Frequencies	Percent
1. Travel purpose	Pleasure	282	70.50
	Business	23	5.75
	Pleasure and business	95	23.75
Total		400	100
2. Average length of stay at a hotel	1 night	73	18.25
	2 night	253	63.25
	3 night	42	10.50
	More than 3 night	32	8.00
Total		400	100
3. Frequency of travel and stay over night	1 - 3 times per year	259	64.75
	4 - 6 times per year	84	21.00
	More than 6 times per year	57	14.25
Total		400	100

Hotel-staying behavior of respondents the results of the study found that most of them intend to stay in hotels for pleasure 282 (70.50 percent). The average length of each hotel stay was 2 nights 253 (63.25 percent). The most frequent travel and overnight stay pattern was 1-3 times per year 259 (64.75 percent) provides the respondents of hotel-staying behavior information.

Preliminary Analysis

The goal of the preliminary analysis was to examine every variable in the conceptual framework. The findings from the validation of the variables in this study were presented in table 12.

Table 12 Abbreviations of independent latent and dependent latent constructs and variables

Constructs	Abbreviation	
	Construct	Observed Variables
Independent variables		
Distributive Justice	DJ	DJ1, DJ2, DJ3, DJ4, and DJ5
Procedural Justice	PJ	PJ1, PJ2, PJ3, PJ4 and PJ5
Interactional Justice	IJ	IJ1, IJ2, IJ3, IJ4, IJ5, and IJ6
Dependent variables		
Positive Emotion	PEmo	PEmo1, PEmo2, PEmo3
Negative Emotion	NEmo	NEmo1, NEmo2, Eemo3
Silence Behaviour	SB	SB1, SB2, SB3
Post-Recovery Satisfaction	PSAT	PSAT1, PSAT2, PSAT3
Positive Electronic Word of Mouth	PeWOM	PeWOM1, PeWOM2, PeWOM3
Negative Electronic Word of Mouth	NeWOM	NeWOM1, NeWOM2, NeWOM3

This study comprised a total of 34 observed variables, which were categorized into two distinct types: 16 variables were classified as exogenous, while 18 variables were classified as endogenous. The exogenous variables were further organized into four constructs: distributive justice, encompassing five variables; procedural justice, also comprising five variables; and interactional justice, which included six variables. The endogenous variables were organized into six constructs as follows: positive emotion (3 variables), negative emotion (3 variables), silence behavior (3 variables),

post-recovery satisfaction (3 variables), positive electronic word of mouth (3 variables), and negative electronic word of mouth (3 variables).

Normality Test

Formal tests of normality, such as the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests, were suitable for small to medium-sized samples ($n < 300$), though their reliability could diminish with larger samples. To address this limitation, an alternative method was employed, which assessed normality by examining skewness and kurtosis of the distribution. This approach demonstrated reasonable accuracy for both small and large samples (Kim, 2013). This study had a large sample size (more than 300), so normality was tested using skewness and kurtosis. Skewness was a measure of the unevenness of the distribution of a variable. The skewness of a normal distribution was zero, indicating a symmetrical distribution. A positive skew value indicated that the right tail of the distribution was longer than the left, with most of the values concentrated to the left of the average. Conversely, a negative skew value signified that the left tail of the distribution was longer than the right, with the majority of values positioned to the right of the mean. Kurtosis quantified the peak of the distribution. The term "original kurtosis" was sometimes used to refer to this measure. Distributions exhibiting higher positive kurtosis were classified as leptokurtic, characterized by sharper peaks, whereas distributions with negative kurtosis were identified as platykurtic, indicative of a flatter peak. According to Kline (2005), a skewness value exceeding 3.00 was considered indicative of significant skewness. Additionally, Neumann et al. (2006) established that skewness values within the range of ± 2 were considered acceptable. In contrast, absolute values of kurtosis greater than ± 2.00 were deemed problematic (Chua Yan Piaw, 2008; George & Mallery, 2010; Garson, 2012; Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). For sample sizes exceeding 300, skewness was utilized as a measure of normality. Normality assessments could be conducted through histograms, as well as by evaluating skewness and kurtosis values independently of Z-values. According to Kim (2013), a skewness value of less than 2.0 and a kurtosis value not exceeding 7.0 were deemed indicative of normal distribution.

Descriptive Statistics

In this section, the study provided descriptive statistics for all variables, constructs, and conceptual frameworks. These statistics elucidated the characteristics of the empirical data in quantitative terms. Furthermore, correlation matrices of the variables were analyzed to assess the relationships between the constructs.

Description of the Variable

Descriptive statistics include mean (\bar{x}), standard deviation (S.D.), skewness (Skew), standard error of skewness (S.E. skew), kurtosis, and standard error of kurtosis (S.E.kur) Shown in table 13

Table 13 Description of the variable

Construct	\bar{x}	S.D.	Skewness	S.E. skew	Kurtosis	S.E. kur
DJ	4.04	0.67	-0.89	0.12	1.086	0.24
DJ1	4.09	0.77	-0.68	0.12	0.65	0.24
DJ2	4.07	0.78	-0.66	0.12	0.44	0.24
DJ3	4.06	0.86	-0.78	0.12	0.52	0.24
DJ4	3.97	0.83	-0.67	0.12	0.66	0.24
DJ5	4.02	0.81	-0.61	0.12	0.31	0.24
PJ	4.01	0.66	-0.71	0.12	0.07	0.24
PJ1	4.01	0.79	-0.038	0.12	-0.46	0.24
PJ2	4.04	0.82	-0.54	0.12	-0.10	0.24
PJ3	3.88	0.84	-0.36	0.12	-0.32	0.24
PJ4	4.01	0.80	-0.33	0.12	-0.63	0.24
PJ5	4.16	0.83	-0.64	0.12	-0.41	0.24
IJ	4.10	0.65	-0.84	0.12	0.72	0.24
IJ1	4.21	0.79	-0.76	0.12	0.21	0.24
IJ2	4.13	0.82	-0.75	0.12	0.39	0.24
IJ3	4.02	0.82	-0.55	0.12	0.08	0.24
IJ4	4.93	0.80	-0.56	0.12	0.49	0.24
IJ5	4.3	0.75	-0.79	0.12	-0.16	0.24
IJ6	4.0	0.87	-0.54	0.12	0.11	0.24

Table 13 Description of the variable (continue)

Construct	\bar{x}	S.D.	Skewness	S.E. skew	Kurtosis	S.E. kur
PEmo	3.97	0.69	-0.70	0.12	0.68	0.24
PEmo1	3.9	0.82	-0.43	0.12	-0.09	0.24
PEmo2	3.9	0.80	-0.33	0.12	-0.30	0.24
PEmo3	4.0	0.82	-0.55	0.12	0.08	0.24
NEmo	3.96	0.81	1.29	0.12	2.16	0.24
NEmo1	4.16	0.87	1.22	0.12	1.80	0.24
NEmo2	3.94	0.92	0.82	0.12	0.63	0.24
NEmo3	3.80	0.94	0.72	0.12	0.55	0.24
SB	3.88	0.69	-0.51	0.12	-0.30	0.24
SB1	4.06	0.90	-1.02	0.12	1.28	0.24
SB2	3.79	1.09	-0.75	0.12	0.03	0.24
SB3	3.79	1.03	0.671	0.12	-0.05	0.24
PSAT	3.78	0.69	-0.35	0.12	0.10	0.24
PSAT1	3.99	0.74	-0.45	0.12	0.32	0.24
PSAT2	4.00	0.80	-0.42	0.12	-0.22	0.24
PSAT3	3.39	1.00	-0.04	0.12	-0.66	0.24
PeWOM	3.94	0.71	-0.88	0.12	1.11	0.24
PeWOM1	3.89	0.845	-0.56	0.12	0.23	0.24
PeWOM2	3.96	0.819	-0.62	0.12	0.47	0.24
PeWOM3	3.97	0.907	-0.50	0.12	-0.34	0.24
NeWOM	4.07	0.80	1.43	0.12	1.99	0.24
NeWOM1	4.02	0.88	0.878	0.12	0.59	0.24
NeWOM2	4.05	0.92	0.958	0.12	0.76	0.24
NeWOM3	4.13	0.94	1.024	0.12	0.70	0.24

The results presented in Table 13 offer descriptive statistics, encompassing the mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values for all variables examined in the study. The means for all constructs varied between 1.93 (NeWOM) and 4.10 (IJ), while the means for all individual variables ranged from 1.87 (NeWOM3) to 4.93 (IJ4). To assess the normality of the data distribution, which is a critical prerequisite for conducting inferential statistical analyses, normality tests were performed. Specifically, skewness and kurtosis indices were utilized to evaluate the normality of the data. Data normalization was performed using SPSS (Pallant, 2005; Pallant, 2013). The accepted range for skewness was -2 to +2, and for kurtosis, it was -7 to +7 (Kim, 2013). As per Hoyle (1995), absolute skewness values exceeding 2 or absolute kurtosis values exceeding 7 were utilized as indicators of significant non-normality for sample sizes larger than 300. The results revealed that the skewness index ranged from -1.02 to 1.43, and the kurtosis index ranged from -0.46 to 2.16. Accordingly, it was concluded that the data were normally distributed, as both skewness and kurtosis indices were within the accepted ranges for normal distribution.

Correlation Analysis

In this study, bivariate analyses of each variable pair were performed using Pearson correlation. The results of the correlation analysis assessed the relationships among the variables and identified a multicollinearity issue. Table 13 presents the correlation matrices for the conceptual frameworks encompassing perceived justice, emotion, silence behavior, post-recovery satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth. The correlation matrix displayed eight constructs along with their correlations, which illustrated the relative strength and direction of the linear relationships between the components.

Table 14 Correlation matrix of all constructs

	DJ	PJ	IJ	PEmo	NEmo	SB	PSAT	PeWOM	NeWOM
DJ	0.89								
PJ	0.76**	0.87							
IJ	0.76**	0.76**	0.90						
PEmo	0.66**	0.68**	0.74**	0.81					
NEmo	-0.30**	-0.29**	-0.31**	-0.27**	0.86				
SB	0.50**	0.53**	0.46**	0.36**	0.32**	0.75			
PSAT	0.58**	0.64**	0.63**	0.62**	0.23**	0.30**	0.74		
PeWOM	0.62**	0.64**	0.63**	0.62**	0.28**	0.42**	0.66**	0.78	
NeWOM	-0.36**	-0.38**	-0.36**	-0.27**	-0.53**	-0.45**	-0.22**	-0.39**	0.85
Mean	4.04	4.01	4.10	3.97	3.96	3.88	3.78	3.94	4.07
S.D.	0.68	0.66	0.65	0.69	0.81	0.70	0.69	0.71	0.80

Note: ** is significant at the .01 level

The results indicated that the correlation matrix illustrated the relationships among all variables and identified a multicollinearity issue among the independent variables. Nevertheless, the evidence revealed significant positive and negative correlations between all constructs ($r = 0.22$ to 0.77 , $P < 0.01$), which were below the critical threshold of 0.8 (Hair et al., 2010). Consequently, these findings suggested that multicollinearity was not a problem in this research.

Comparison of the Mean Difference of Each Variable

This section addressed the mean difference test for six variables: gender, age, status, occupation, education, and average monthly income. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to assess whether there were significant differences in the means of these variables. In cases where the findings did not reveal significant differences in the means across the variables, these six variables were excluded from the framework to mitigate model complexity.

Differences of Gender

The analysis of gender differences in this study encompassed two groups: 1) male and 2) female. Consequently, the mean differences between these two groups were assessed, and the results were detailed in table 15.

Table 15 Mean difference among gender

Construct	Gender	Number	\bar{x}	SD	t	p-value
DJ	Male	171	4.09	0.66	1.18	0.24
	Female	229	4.01	0.69		
PJ	Male	171	4.07	0.65	1.39	0.16
	Female	229	3.98	0.66		
IJ	Male	171	4.16	0.64	1.33	0.19
	Female	229	4.07	0.65		
PEmo	Male	171	3.96	0.75	-0.15	0.88
	Female	229	3.97	0.64		
NEmo	Male	171	2.10	0.91	1.43	0.15
	Female	229	1.99	0.72		
SB	Male	171	3.37	0.75	0.73	0.46
	Female	229	3.34	0.64		
PSAT	Male	171	3.79	0.75	0.13	0.89
	Female	229	3.78	0.66		
PeWOM	Male	171	3.95	0.73	0.39	0.70
	Female	229	3.93	0.70		
NeWOM	Male	171	1.93	0.81	0.07	0.94
	Female	229	1.93	0.79		

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

To assess mean differences between genders in this study, two groups were considered: 1) male and 2) female. The fundamental assumption was that the variances should be equal across both groups. The results from Levene's test for equality of variances demonstrated that, at the 0.05 significance level, all nine constructs, with the exception of PEmo, displayed equal variances between the groups. The results of the mean difference analysis revealed that none of the nine constructs demonstrated significant gender differences at the 0.05 significance level.

Consequently, it was concluded that different types of gender did not influence the model. As a result, this variable was excluded from the model.

Differences of Age

The analysis of age differences in this study included five groups: 1) less than 20 years, 2) 20–30 years, 3) 31–40 years, 4) 41–50 years, and 5) more than 50 years. Subsequently, mean differences among these five age groups were examined, and the results were documented in table 16.

Table 16 Structure with equal variances by age groups

Construct		SS	df	MS	F	<i>p</i> -value
DJ	Between Groups	14.14	4	3.53 0.43	8.23	0.00*
	Within Groups	169.66	395			
	Total	183.80	399			
PJ	Between Groups	6.39	4	1.60 0.42	3.77	0.01*
	Within Groups	167.43	395			
	Total	173.82	399			
IJ	Between Groups	11.49	4	2.87 0.39	7.27	0.00*
	Within Groups	156.18	395			
	Total	167.68	399			
NEmo	Between Groups	4.10	4	1.03 0.65	1.58	0.18
	Within Groups	255.80	395			
	Total	259.91	399			
SB	Between Groups	6.48	4	1.62 0.46	3.49	0.01*
	Within Groups	183.24	395			
	Total	189.71	399			

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

To assess mean differences across various age groups, this study categorized participants into five groups: 1) less than 20 years, 2) 20–30 years, 3) 31–40 years, 4) 41–50 years, and 5) more than 50 years. Consequently, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to assess mean differences among the five age groups. A key assumption of ANOVA is the equality of variances across groups. Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that DJ, PJ, IJ, NEmo, and SB demonstrated equal

variances among the groups at the 0.05 significance level. Thus, the ANOVA results were deemed applicable. Of the five constructs with equal variance, only NEMO did not exhibit a significant mean difference between age groups at the 0.05 significance level. For DJ, PJ, IJ, and SB, the mean differences across age groups indicated that each construct had at least one pair of age groups with statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level. Accordingly, multiple comparisons were performed using the least significant difference (LSD) method.

Table 17 Differences between means by age groups

Constructs	Age groups	Less than 20 years	20 - 30 years	31 - 40 years	41 - 50 years	More than 50 years
DJ	Less than 20 years	-				
	20 - 30 years	0.02	-			
	31 - 40 years	-0.26	-0.27*	-		
	41 - 50 years	-0.56*	-0.57*	-0.30*	-	
	More than 50 years	-0.26	-0.27*	-0.00	0.30*	-
PJ	Less than 20 years	-				
	20 - 30 years	0.08	-			
	31 - 40 years	-0.01	-0.09	-		
	41 - 50 years	-0.25	-0.33*	-0.24*	-	
	More than 50 years	-0.01	-0.09	0.00	0.24*	-
IJ	Less than 20 years	-				
	20 - 30 years	-0.27	-			
	31 - 40 years	-0.51*	-0.24	-		
	41 - 50 years	-0.76*	-0.48*	-0.25*	-	
	More than 50 years	-0.51*	-0.24	-0.01	0.24	-
SB	Less than 20 years	-				
	20 - 30 years	0.11	-			
	31 - 40 years	-0.28	-0.39*	-		
	41 - 50 years	-0.30	-0.41	-0.01	-	
	More than 50 years	-0.10	-0.21	0.18	0.20*	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

The results revealed that, for DJ, respondents under 20 years of age exhibited significantly different mean values compared to those aged 41–50 years. Moreover, respondents aged 20–30 years demonstrated mean values that diverged from those of respondents aged 31–40 years, 41–50 years, and over 50 years. Additionally, respondents aged 41–50 years showed mean values that were distinct from those of respondents over 50 years. For PJ, respondents aged 20–30 years displayed significantly different mean values relative to those aged 41–50 years and 31–40 years. Furthermore, mean values for respondents aged 31–40 years also differed from those of respondents aged 41–50 years. Furthermore, respondents aged 41–50 years demonstrated distinct mean values compared to respondents aged over 50 years. For IJ, respondents under 20 years of age exhibited mean values that significantly diverged from those of respondents aged 31–40 years, 41–50 years, and over 50 years. Additionally, respondents aged 41–50 years presented mean values that differed from those of respondents aged 20–30 years and 31–40 years. For SB, respondents aged 20–30 years displayed mean values that significantly varied from those of respondents aged 31–40 years. Moreover, respondents aged 41–50 years exhibited mean values that were notably distinct from those of respondents aged over 50 years.

Table 18 Constructs with unequal variances by age groups

Construct	Statistic	df1	df2	<i>p</i> -value	
PEmo	Welch	3.27	4	38.60	0.02*
PSAT	Welch	2.70	4	38.85	0.05
PeWOM	Welch	5.45	4	38.75	0.00*
NeWOM	Welch	2.36	4	38.76	0.07

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

For PEmo, PSAT, PeWOM, and NeWOM, which exhibited unequal variances, the Welch test results indicated that the mean values for PSAT and NeWOM were not significantly different across age groups at the 0.05 significance level. Conversely, for PEmo and PeWOM, significant differences in means were detected, indicating that these constructs had at least one pair of age groups with substantially differing mean values. Therefore, multiple comparisons were conducted using the Games-Howell method.

Table 19 Differences between means by age groups

Construct	Age groups	Less than 20 years	20 - 30 years	31 - 40 years	41 - 50 years	More than 50 years
PEmo	Less than 20 years	-				
	20 - 30 years	-0.21	-			
	31 - 40 years	-0.291	-0.08	-		
	41 - 50 years	-0.54	-0.33	-0.24*	-	
	More than 50 years	-0.36	-0.15	-0.07	0.17	-
PeWOM	Less than 20 years	-				
	20 - 30 years	0.46	-			
	31 - 40 years	0.16	-0.30*	-		
	41 - 50 years	-0.07	-0.54*	-0.23*	-	
	More than 50 years	0.26	-0.20	0.09	0.33*	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

The study's results revealed that for PEmo, respondents aged 31–40 years exhibited mean values that were significantly different from those of respondents aged 41–50 years. For PeWOM, respondents aged 20-30 years demonstrated distinct mean values compared to those aged 31-40 years and 41-50 years. Furthermore, respondents aged 31-40 years presented mean values that differed from those of respondents aged 41-50 years, and respondents aged 41-50 years showed mean values that were significantly different from those of respondents aged over 50 years. Consequently, the analysis determined that age did not affect the model. Therefore, this variable was excluded from the model.

Differences of Status

The analysis of status differences in this study encompassed three groups: 1) single, 2) married, and 3) divorced. Accordingly, mean differences among these groups were assessed, and the results were presented in table 20.

Table 20 Structure with equal variances by status groups

Construct		SS	df	MS	F	<i>p</i> -value
DJ	Between Groups	4.52	2	2.26	5.01	0.01*
	Within Groups	179.27	397	0.45		
	Total	183.80	399			
PJ	Between Groups	2.94	2	1.49	3.41	0.03*
	Within Groups	170.88	397	0.43		
	Total	73.82	399			
IJ	Between Groups	2.32	2	1.16	2.78	0.06
	Within Groups	165.36	397	0.42		
	Total	167.68	399			
PSAT	Between Groups	3.02	2	1.51	3.17	0.04*
	Within Groups	189.12	397	0.48		
	Total	192.14	399			
PeWOM	Between Groups	3.096	2	1.548	1.548	0.04*
	Within Groups	199.979	397	0.50		
	Total	203.075	399			

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

To evaluate mean differences across various statuses, the study groups respondents into three groups: 1) single, 2) married, and 3) divorced. ANOVA was utilized to compare mean differences among these groups. A fundamental assumption of ANOVA is the homogeneity of variances across groups. Levene's test for equality of variances confirmed that DJ, PJ, IJ, PSAT, SB and PeWOM adhered to this assumption, demonstrating equal variances among the groups at the 0.05 significance level. Consequently, ANOVA results were deemed valid. Among the five constructs with equal variances, only IJ did not exhibit significant mean differences between status groups at the 0.05 level. In contrast, DJ, PJ, PSAT, and PeWOM revealed significant mean differences among status groups, suggesting that each of these constructs had at least one pair of status groups with significantly different means. Therefore, pairwise comparisons were performed using Post Hoc analysis with the least significant difference (LSD) method.

Table 21 Differences between means by status groups

Construct	Status groups	Single	Married	Divorced
DJ	Single	-		
	Married	-0.23*	-	
	Divorced	-0.23*	-0.00	-
PJ	Single	-		
	Married	-0.19*	-	
	Divorced	-0.17	0.02	-
IJ	Single	-		
	Married	-0.14	-	
	Divorced	-0.19**	-0.06	-
SB	Single	-		
	Married	-0.29**	-	
	Divorced	-0.33**	0.04	
PSAT	Single	-		
	Married	.19**	-	
	Divorced	-0.07	0.12	-
PeWOM	Single	-		
	Married	-0.19**	-	
	Divorced	-0.18	0.02	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

The study's results revealed that for DJ and SB, single respondents exhibited significantly different mean values compared to both married and divorced respondents. For PJ, PSAT, and PeWOM, single respondents demonstrated mean values that were markedly distinct from those of married respondents. Additionally, for IJ, single respondents presented mean values that differed from those of divorced respondents.

Table 22 Constructs with unequal variances by status groups

Construct		Statistic	df1	df2	p-value
PEmo	Welch	2.48	2	207.90	0.09
NEmo	Welch	1.13	2	211.31	0.33
SB	Welch	2.06	2	217.40	0.13
NeWOM	Welch	4.74	2	212.82	0.01*

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

For PEmo, NEmo, and NeWOM, which displayed unequal variances, the Welch test results indicated that mean values for PEmo and NEmo were not significantly different across status groups at the 0.05 significance level. Conversely, NeWOM exhibited significant mean differences, indicating that at least one pair of status groups had substantially different means. Accordingly, pairwise comparisons were performed using Post Hoc analysis with the Games-Howell method.

Table 23 Differences between means by status groups

Constructs	Age groups	Single	Married	Divorced
NeWOM	Single	-		
	Married	0.24*	-	
	Divorced	0.34*	0.09	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

The study's results indicated that single respondents exhibited significantly different mean values compared to married and divorced respondents. Consequently, the analysis concluded that status did not exert an impact on the model. Therefore, this variable was excluded from the model.

Differences of Occupation

The analysis of occupational differences in this study encompassed five groups: 1) businessman, 2) government official, 3) state enterprise employee, 4) company employee, and 5) student. Accordingly, mean differences among these categories were assessed, and the findings were presented in table 24.

Table 24 Construct with equal variances by occupation groups

Construct		SS	df	MS	F	p-value
DJ	Between Groups	12.003	4	3.00	6.90	0.00*
	Within Groups	171.79	395	0.43		
	Total	183.80	399			
PJ	Between Groups	9.17	4	2.29	5.49	0.00*
	Within Groups	164.65	395	0.42		
	Total	173.82	399			
IJ	Between Groups	8.30	4	2.08	5.14	0.00*
	Within Groups	159.37	395	0.40		
	Total	167.68	399			
PEmo	Between Groups	5.21	4	1.30	2.77	0.03*
	Within Groups	185.85	395	0.47		
	Total	191.06	399			
Nemo	Between Groups	3.84	4	0.96	1.48	0.21
	Within Groups	256.06	395	0.65		
	Total	259.91	399			
PSAT	Between Groups	4.51	4	1.10	2.37	0.05
	Within Groups	187.64	395	0.47		
	Total	192.14	399			
PeWOM	Between Groups	7.41	4	1.85	3.74	0.00*
	Within Groups	195.67	395	0.49		
	Total	203.07	399			
NeWOM	Between Groups	4.82	4	1.21	1.91	0.11
	Within Groups	249.90	395	0.63		
	Total	254.73	399			

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

To assess mean differences across various occupations, the study encompassed five groups: 1) businessman, 2) government official, 3) state enterprise employee, 4) company employee, and 5) student. Accordingly, a mean comparison test was conducted among these categories. A fundamental assumption of ANOVA is the homogeneity of variances across groups. Levene's test for equality of variances

revealed that DJ, PJ, IJ, PE_{mo}, NE_{mo}, PSAT, PE_{WOM}, and NE_{WOM} satisfied this assumption, exhibiting equal variances among the groups at the 0.05 significance level. Therefore, the ANOVA results were considered valid. Of the eight constructs with equal variance, NE_{mo}, PSAT, and NE_{WOM} did not demonstrate mean differences between occupation groups at the 0.05 significance level. Conversely, DJ, PJ, IJ, PE_{mo}, and PE_{WOM} exhibited significant mean differences among occupation groups, indicating that each of these five constructs had at least one pair of occupation groups with significantly differing means at the 0.05 level. Consequently, multiple comparisons were performed using the least significant difference (LSD) method.

Table 25 Differences between means by occupation groups

Construct	Occupation groups	Businessman	Government official	State enterprise employee	Company employee	Student
DJ	Businessman	-				
	Government official	0.31*	-			
	State enterprise employee	0.40*	0.84	-		
	Company employee	0.34*	0.03	-0.05	-	
	Student	0.58*	0.27	0.19	0.24	-
PJ	Businessman	-				
	Government official	0.25*	-			
	State enterprise employee	0.31*	0.06	-		
	Company employee	0.36*	0.11	-0.05	-	
	Student	0.23	-0.02	-0.08	-0.13	-
IJ	Businessman	-				
	Government official	0.14	-			
	State enterprise employee	0.35*	0.21	-		
	Company employee	0.26*	0.12	-0.09	-	
	Student	0.50*	0.36*	0.15	0.24	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. 0

Table 25 Differences between means by occupation groups (continue)

Construct	Occupation groups	Businessman	Government official	State enterprise employee	Company employee	Student
PEmo	Businessman	-				
	Government official	0.07	-			
	State enterprise employee	0.27*	0.20	-		
	Company employee	0.24*	0.16	-0.04	-	
	Student	0.24	0.17	-0.03	0.00	-
PeWOM	Businessman	-				
	Government official	0.31*	-			
	State enterprise employee	0.20	-0.11	-		
	Company employee	0.29*	-0.02	0.08	-	
	Student	-0.02	-0.33	0.22	-0.30	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. 0

The results revealed that for DJ, businessman respondents exhibited significantly different mean values compared to government officials, state enterprise employees, company employees, and students. For PJ, businessman respondents demonstrated distinct mean values relative to government officials, state enterprise employees, and company employees. For IJ, businessman respondents had mean values that differed from those of state enterprise employees, company employees, and students. Government officials also had mean values that were significantly different from those of students. In the case of PEmo, businessman respondents showed significantly different mean values compared to state enterprise employees and company employees. For PeWOM, businessman respondents exhibited mean values that were distinct from those of government officials and company employees.

Table 26 Constructs with unequal variances by occupation groups

Construct	Statistic	df1	df2	p-value	
SB	Welch	4.66	4	88.29	0.00*

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

For SB, which displayed unequal variances, the Welch test results indicated significant mean differences, suggesting that SB had at least one pair of status groups with markedly distinct means. Consequently, multiple comparisons were carried out using the Games-Howell method.

Table 27 Differences between means by occupation groups

Construct	Occupation groups	Businessman	Government official	State enterprise employee	Company employee	Student
SB	Businessman	-				
	Government official	0.34*	-			
	State enterprise employee	0.08	-0.26	-		
	Company employee	0.27*	-0.07	0.19	-	
	Student	0.37	0.03	0.29	0.10	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

The results indicated that for SB, businessman respondents exhibited mean values that were significantly different from those of government officials and company employees. Consequently, the analysis concluded that occupation did not influence the model. Therefore, this variable was excluded from the model.

Differences in Education

The analysis of educational differences in this study encompassed three groups: 1) less than a bachelor's degree, 2) bachelor's degree, and 3) master's degree or higher. Accordingly, mean differences among these categories were evaluated, and the results were detailed in table 28.

Table 28 Construct with equal variances by education groups

Construct		SS	df	MS	F	<i>p</i> -value
DJ	Between Groups	0.36	2	0.18	0.39	0.67
	Within Groups	183.43	397	0.46		
	Total	183.80	399			
PJ	Between Groups	0.43	2	0.21	0.49	0.61
	Within Groups	173.39	397	0.44		
	Total	173.82	399			
IJ	Between Groups	0.42	2	0.23	0.54	0.58
	Within Groups	167.22	397	0.42		
	Total	167.68	399			
PEmo	Between Groups	0.09	2	0.04	0.09	0.91
	Within Groups	190.98	397	0.48		
	Total	191.06	399			
Nemo	Between Groups	0.85	2	0.43	0.65	0.52
	Within Groups	259.05	397	0.65		
	Total	259.91	399			
PSAT	Between Groups	0.31	2	0.16	0.33	0.72
	Within Groups	191.83	39	0.48		
	Total	192.14	399			
PeWOM Groups	Between	1.12	2	0.56	1.10	0.33
	Within Groups	201.95	397	0.51		
	Total	203.08	399			
PeWOM Groups	Between	2.44	2	1.22	1.92	0.15
	Within Groups	252.29	397	0.64		
	Total	254.73	399			

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

To assess mean differences across educational levels, the study categorized respondents into three groups: 1) less than a bachelor's degree, 2) bachelor's degree, and 3) master's degree or higher. Consequently, a mean comparison test was performed among these categories. A fundamental assumption of ANOVA is the

homogeneity of variances across groups. Levene's test for equality of variances revealed that DJ, PJ, IJ, PEmo, NEmo, PSAT, PeWOM, and NeWOM demonstrated homogeneity of variances among the groups at the 0.05 significance level. Thus, the ANOVA results were deemed valid. It was determined that, for the eight constructs with equal variance, there were no significant mean differences among the educational groups at the 0.05 significance level.

Table 29 Constructs with unequal variances by education groups

Construct	Statistic	df1	df2	p-value
SB Welch	1.59	2	131.70	.21

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

For SB, which displayed unequal variances, the Welch test results indicated that no significant mean differences existed among the educational groups.

Differences in Average Monthly Income

The analysis of average monthly income differences in this study encompassed seven groups: 1) less than 50,000 baht, 2) 50,000 - 60,000 baht, 3) 60,001 - 70,000 baht, 4) 70,001 - 80,000 baht, 5) 80,001 - 90,000 baht, 6) 90,001 - 100,000 baht, and 7) more than 100,000 baht. Consequently, mean differences among these seven categories were examined, with the results detailed in table 30.

Table 30 Construct with equal variances by average monthly income groups

Construct	SS	df	MS	F	p-value	
DJ	Between Groups	23.04	6	3.84	9.39	0.00*
	Within Groups	160.76	393	0.41		
	Total	183.79	399			
PJ	Between Groups	20.54	6	3.42	8.77	0.00*
	Within Groups	153.28	393	0.39		
	Total	173.82	399			

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

Table 30 Construct with equal variances by average monthly income groups
(continue)

Construct		SS	df	MS	F	p-value
IJ	Between Groups	15.79	6	2.63	6.81	0.00*
	Within Groups	151.89	393	0.39		
	Total	167.68	399			
PEmo	Between Groups	12.77	6	2.13	4.69	0.00*
	Within Groups	178.29	393	0.45		
	Total	191.604	399			
Nemo	Between Groups	17.57	6	2.93	4.75	0.00*
	Within Groups	242.33	393	0.62		
	Total	259.97	399			
SB	Between Groups	28.18	6	4.69	6.320	0.00*
	Within Groups	292.07	393	0.74		
	Total	320.25	399			
PSAT	Between Groups	8.87	6	1.48	3.17	0.00*
	Within Groups	183.28	393	0.47		
	Total	192.14	399			
PeWOM	Between Groups	19.29	6	3.21	6.87	0.00*
	Within Groups	183.78	393	0.47		
	Total	203.07	399			
NeWOM	Between Groups	22.23	6	3.70	6.26	0.00**
	Within Groups	232.50	393	0.59		
	Total	254.73	399			

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

To assess mean differences in average monthly income, the study categorized respondents into seven groups: 1) less than 50,000 baht, 2) 50,000 - 60,000 baht, 3) 60,001 - 70,000 baht, 4) 70,001 - 80,000 baht, 5) 80,001 - 90,000 baht, 6) 90,001 - 100,000 baht, and 7) more than 100,000 baht. Accordingly, a comparison of means was conducted among these categories. A fundamental assumption of ANOVA is the homogeneity of variances across groups. Levene's test for equality of variances

indicated that nine constructs demonstrated unequal variances among the groups at the 0.05 significance level. Consequently, the results of the ANOVA were deemed invalid.

Table 31 Constructs with unequal variances by average monthly income groups

Construct		Statistic	df1	df2	p-value
DJ	Welch	9.69	6	113.42	0.00*
PJ	Welch	9.85	6	114.25	0.00*
IJ	Welch	7.47	6	113.81	0.00*
PEmo	Welch	5.26	6	113.91	0.00*
NEmo	Welch	2.97	6	114.76	0.01*
SB	Welch	2.07	6	113.65	0.00*
PSAT	Welch	3.53	6	113.10	0.00*
PeWOM	Welch	8.32	6	112.99	0.00*
NeWOM	Welch	5.12	6	114.69	0.00*

Note: * is significant at the .05 level.

The results of the Welch test revealed that all constructs, the mean values varied significantly, indicating that each of these constructs had at least one pair of income groups with statistically significant differences in means. Therefore, multiple comparisons were performed using the Games-Howell method.

Table 32 Differences between means by average monthly income groups

Construct	Average monthly income (Baht)	<50,000	50,000 - 60,000	60,001 - 70,000	70,001 - 80,000	80,001- 90,000	90,001- 100,000	>100,000
DJ	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	-0.21	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	-0.42*	-0.21	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	-0.59*	-0.38*	-0.17	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	-0.71*	-0.50*	-0.29	-0.12	-		
	90,001- 100,000	-0.47	-0.26	-0.06	0.11	0.23	-	
	>100,000	-0.48*	-0.27	-0.06	0.10	0.23	-0.01	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

Table 32 Differences between means by average monthly income groups (Continue)

Construct	Average monthly income (Baht)	<50,000	50,000 - 60,000	60,001 - 70,000	70,001 - 80,000	80,001- 90,000	90,001- 100,000	>100,000
PI	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	-0.23	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	-0.36*	-0.13	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	-0.61*	-0.38*	-0.25	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	-0.65*	-0.42*	-0.29	-0.03	-		
	90,001- 100,000	-0.34	-0.10	0.02	0.28	0.31	-	
	>100,000	-0.44	-0.21	-0.08	0.17	0.21	-0.10	-
IJ	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	-0.21	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	-0.25	-0.04	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	-0.52*	-0.31*	-0.26	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	-0.56*	-0.34*	-0.30	-0.04	-		
	90,001- 100,000	-0.28	-0.07	-0.03	0.23	0.27	-	
	>100,000	-0.46*	-0.25	-0.21	0.06	0.09	-0.18	-
PEmo	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	-0.13	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	-0.50	0.07	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	-0.44*	-0.31*	-0.39*	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	-0.42*	-0.29	-0.36*	.03	-		
	90,001- 100,000	-0.24	-0.11	-0.18	.21	.18	-	
	>100,000	-0.38	-0.25	-0.33	.06	.03	-0.15	-
NEmo	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	0.49*	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	0.42	-0.08	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	0.53*	0.03	0.11	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	0.55*	0.05	0.13	0.02	-		
	90,001- 100,000	0.24	-0.25	-0.18	-0.29	-0.31	-	
	>100,000	0.53*	0.03	0.11	0.00	-0.02	0.29	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

Table 32 Differences between means by average monthly income groups (Continue)

Construct	Average monthly income (Baht)	<50,000	50,000 - 60,000	60,001 - 70,000	70,001 - 80,000	80,001- 90,000	90,001- 100,000	>100,000
SB	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	-0.42*	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	-0.54*	-0.17	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	-0.72*	-0.30*	-0.19	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	-0.77*	-0.35*	-0.23	-0.04	-		
	90,001- 100,000	-0.40	0.02	0.14	0.33	0.37	-	
	>100,000	-0.57	-0.15	-0.04	0.15	0.19	-0.18	-
PSAT	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	-0.19	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	-0.08	0.12	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	-0.40*	-0.20	-0.32	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	-0.35	-0.16	-0.27	0.05	-		
	90,001- 100,000	-0.41	-0.22	-0.34	-0.01	-0.06	-	
	>100,000	-0.30	-0.07	-0.18	0.14	0.09	0.15	-
PeWOM	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	-0.22	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	-0.26	-0.04	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	-0.54*	-0.32*	-0.28	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	-0.68*	-0.46*	-0.42*	-0.14	-		
	90,001- 100,000	-0.48	-0.26	-0.22	0.06	0.20	-	
	>100,000	-0.35	-0.13	-0.10	0.19	0.33	0.12	-
NeWOM	<50,000	-						
	50,000 - 60,000	0.42*	-					
	60,001 - 70,000	0.50*	0.07	-				
	70,001 - 80,000	0.66*	0.23	0.15	-			
	80,001 - 90,000	0.61*	0.18	0.11	0.05	-		
	90,001- 100,000	0.28	-0.14	-0.22	-0.37	-0.33	-	
	>100,000	0.58*	0.15	0.08	-0.08	-0.03	0.30	-

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

The results demonstrated that for DJ, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht exhibited mean values that were significantly different from those of respondents with incomes of 60,001-70,000 baht, 70,001-80,000 baht, 80,001-90,000 baht, and more than 100,000 baht. Additionally, respondents with an income of 50,000-60,000 baht showed mean values that were significantly different from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht and 80,001-90,000 baht. For PJ, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht had mean values that significantly differed from those of respondents with incomes of 60,001-70,000 baht, 70,001-80,000 baht, and 80,001-90,000 baht. Furthermore, respondents with an income of 50,000-60,000 baht demonstrated mean values that significantly differed from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht and 80,001-90,000 baht. IJ, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht exhibited mean values that differed from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht, 80,001-90,000 baht, and more than 100,000 baht. Additionally, respondents with an income of 50,000-60,000 baht demonstrated mean values that diverged from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht and 80,001-90,000 baht. For PEmo, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht showed mean values that were distinct from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht and 80,001-90,000 baht. Respondents with an income of 50,000-60,000 baht also exhibited mean values that were significantly different from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht. Furthermore, respondents with an income of 60,001-70,000 baht had mean values that were markedly different from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht and 80,001-90,000 baht. NEmo, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht exhibited mean values that were significantly different from those of respondents with incomes of 50,000-60,000 baht, 70,001-80,000 baht, 80,001-90,000 baht, and more than 100,000 baht. SB, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht had different averages from those with an income of 50,000-60,000 baht, 60,001-70,000, 70,001-80,000 and 80,001-90,000 baht, and more than 100,000 baht. For PSAT, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht demonstrated mean values that were significantly distinct from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-

80,000 baht. For PeWOM, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht showed mean values that differed from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht and 80,001-90,000 baht. Respondents with an income of 50,000-60,000 baht also exhibited mean values that diverged from those of respondents with incomes of 70,001-80,000 baht and 80,001-90,000 baht. Additionally, respondents with an income of 60,001-70,000 baht displayed mean values that were significantly different from those of respondents with incomes of 80,001-90,000 baht. For NeWOM, respondents with an average monthly income of less than 50,000 baht had mean values that were distinct from those of respondents with incomes of 50,000-60,000 baht, 60,001-70,000 baht, 70,001-80,000 baht, 80,001-90,000 baht, and more than 100,000 baht.

Measurement Model Assessment

Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which a test consistently and dependability measured its intended construct, implying that a test was deemed reliable if it exhibited consistency both internally and over time. It assessed the internal consistency of a set of latent construct variables. High reliability of a construct signified a strong likelihood that all variables within the construct were measuring the same underlying attribute (Hair et al., 2006). Reliability was quantified on a scale from 0 to 1. The reliability of all constructs in the study was evaluated. Cronbach's alpha (α) was employed for this assessment (Cronbach, 1951). According to established conventions, Cronbach's alpha should exceed 0.7 to ensure adequate internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010). The reliability from 400 samples of data are shown in table 33.

Table 33 Reliability coefficients of the main constructs

Variables	Item	Cronbach's Alpha
Independent		
Distributive Justice	5 Items	0.89
Procedural Justice	5 Items	0.87
Interactional Justice	6 Items	0.90
Dependent		
Positive Emotion	5 Items	0.81
Negative Emotion	3 Items	0.86
Silence Behaviour	2 Items	0.75
Post-recovery Satisfaction	3 Items	0.74
Positive Electronic Word of mouth	3 Items	0.78
Positive Electronic Word of mouth	3 Items	0.85
Overall Variables		0.91

Note N = 400

The research results assessed the reliability of each variable and construct. It was found that the SB had a reliability of 0.42 (less than 0.7), and the reliability of the overall construct was 0.70. Therefore, the items deleted were considered to increase the reliability. It was found that deleting SB3 would increase the reliability to 0.75. Therefore, this item was deleted, resulting in the reliability index for perceived justice, emotion, indifference behavior, post-recovery satisfaction, and electronic word-of-mouth referrals being in the range of 0.74 to 0.90. The reliability of the overall construct was 0.91, indicating that the questionnaire had acceptable reliability.

Validity

Content validity was previously tested. In this section, the construct validity was tested to assess the extent to which a measurement or test accurately measured the theoretical construct or concept it was intended to represent, or a set of measured items that reflected the latent theoretical constructs those items were designed to measure (Hair et al., 2010).

Construct validity was assessed through both convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity refers to the extent of correlation among construct items and confirmed that the factor was accurately represented by the observed structural items (Higgins & Thompson, 1995). The evaluation employed factor loadings of the indicators, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) values, which ranged from 0 to 1. For convergent validity to be deemed adequate, the AVE value needed to surpass 0.50. This demonstrated that the theoretical framework was supported by all items associated with the same construct, as evidenced by the AVE values presented in Table 35. Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which constructs were empirically distinct from one another, reflecting the degree of differentiation between overlapping constructs (Hair et al., 2014). It was evaluated through the cross-loading of indicators, where the loading factor on a given construct had to exceed the loadings on all other constructs, assuming the cutoff value for factor loadings was above 0.70. Additionally, the accuracy of discriminant validity was assessed using the criterion established by Fornell and Larcker (1981). This method involved comparing the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) with the correlations between latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The latent structure was required to account for a greater portion of the variance of its own indicators compared to the variance of other latent constructs. Consequently, the square root of the AVE for each construct had to be greater than its correlations with other latent constructs.

Table 34 Discriminant validity: Fornell-Larcker criterion

	DJ	PJ	IJ	PEmo	NEmo	SB	PSAT	PeWOM	NeWOM
DJ	0.79								
PJ	0.76**	0.78							
IJ	0.76**	0.76**	0.78						
PEmo	0.66**	0.68**	0.74**	0.76					
NEmo	-0.30**	-0.29**	-0.31**	-0.27**	0.82				
SB	0.50**	0.53**	0.46**	0.36**	0.32**	0.80			
PSAT	0.58**	0.64**	0.63**	0.62**	0.23**	0.30**	0.77		
PeWOM	0.62**	0.64**	0.63**	0.62**	0.28**	0.42**	0.66**	0.76	
NeWOM	-0.36**	-0.38**	-0.36**	-0.27**	-0.53**	-0.45**	-0.22**	-0.39**	0.80
Mean	4.04	4.01	4.10	3.97	3.96	3.88	3.78	3.94	4.07
S.D.	0.68	0.66	0.65	0.69	0.81	0.70	0.69	0.71	0.80

Note: ** is significant at the .01 level
AVE Presented in diagonal

Discriminant validity was assessed using Fornell and Larcker (1981) by comparing the square root of each AVE on the diagonal with the (off-diagonal) correlation coefficient for each construct in the corresponding row and column found that square root of the AVE of each construct greater than its correlation with the other latent constructs. Discriminant validity can be accepted for this measurement model and supports the validity of the separation between constructs.

Table 35 Standardized factor loading, S.E., t-value, R², A.V.E., and CR of measurement model of all construct

Variables	Factor Loading			r ²	AVE	CR	Cronbach's Alpha
	Beta	SE	Z				
DJ							
DJ1	0.74	0.02	29.31	0.55	0.62	0.89	0.89
DJ2	0.74	0.02	29.64	0.55			
DJ3	0.77	0.02	33.78	0.59			
DJ4	0.86	0.02	43.43	0.68			
DJ5	0.82	0.02	42.94	0.67			

Table 35 Standardized factor loading, S.E., t-value, R2, A.V.E., and CR of measurement model of all construct (continue)

Variables	Factor Loading			r ²	AVE	CR	Cronbach's Alpha
	Beta	SE	Z				
PJ					0.56	0.86	0.87
PJ1	0.82	0.02	40.53	0.67			
PJ2	0.78	0.02	34.50	0.61			
PJ3	0.75	0.02	31.10	0.56			
PJ4	0.71	0.03	26.08	0.51			
PJ5	0.67	0.03	22.51	0.45			
IJ					0.60	0.90	0.90
IJ1	0.78	0.02	36.42	0.61			
IJ2	0.78	0.02	35.26	0.60			
IJ3	0.79	0.02	37.37	0.63			
IJ4	0.76	0.02	32.39	0.58			
IJ5	0.78	0.02	34.12	0.61			
IJ6	0.77	0.02	34.14	0.59			
PEmo					0.58	0.81	0.81
PEmo1	0.80	0.02	34.95	0.64			
PEmo2	0.72	0.03	26.09	0.52			
PEmo3	0.76	0.03	29.98	0.58			
NEmo					0.68	0.86	0.86
NEmo1	0.87	0.02	44.13	0.76			
NEmo2	0.78	0.02	32.81	0.62			
NEmo3	0.81	0.02	35.50	0.66			
SB					0.65	0.78	0.75
SB1	0.94	0.04	22.27	0.88			
SB2	0.64	0.04	15.71	0.41			
PSAT					0.58	0.80	0.74
PSAT1	0.90	0.01	59.21	0.82			
PSAT2	0.85	0.02	46.02	0.72			
PSAT3	0.46	0.05	11.01	0.40			

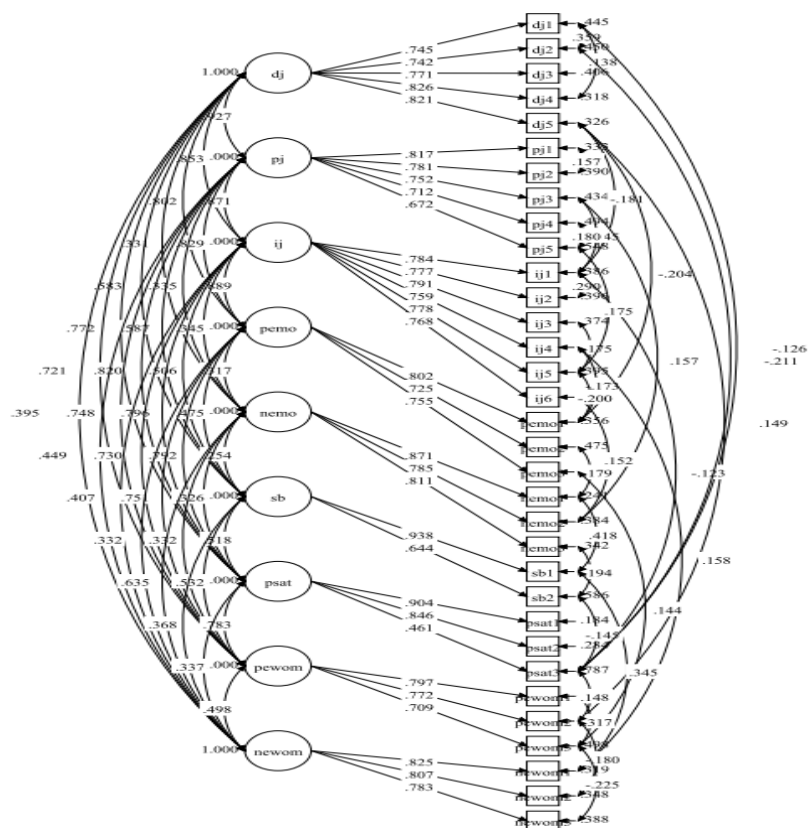
Table 35 Standardized factor loading, S.E., t-value, R2, A.V.E., and CR of measurement model of all construct (continue)

Variables	Factor Loading			r ²	AVE	CR	Cronbach's Alpha
	Beta	SE	Z				
PeWOM					0.58	0.80	0.78
PeWOM1	0.80	0.03	29.58	0.63			
PeWOM2	0.77	0.02	30.73	0.60			
PeWOM3	0.71	0.03	22.18	0.51			
NeWOM					0.65	0.85	0.85
NeWOM1	0.82	0.02	37.01	0.68			
NeWOM2	0.81	0.02	34.56	0.65			
NeWOM3	0.78	0.02	31.49	0.61			

The study's findings indicated that factor loadings for all 33 items ranged from 0.46 to 0.94, which were deemed acceptable. According to Hulland (1999) and Stevens (1992), a factor loading of 0.4 or higher is considered acceptable in survey research. Furthermore, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for the nine constructs ranged from 0.56 to 0.68. As established by Fornell and Larcker (1981), an AVE value exceeding 0.5 is deemed satisfactory. With the Composite Reliability (CR) surpassing 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006), the convergent validity of the constructs was found to be adequate. Consequently, the AVE values for all constructs affirmed that convergent validity was sufficiently demonstrated. The composite reliabilities (CR) for all nine constructs ranged from 0.78 to 0.90. In general, CR values exceeded 0.7 for each construct, reflecting internal consistency across the constructs (Hair et al., 2006). Consequently, all constructs demonstrated sufficient internal consistency. Additionally, Cronbach's alpha was employed to evaluate the internal consistency among multiple variables (Hair et al., 2010). As detailed in Table 34, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the nine constructs ranged from 0.75 to 0.90. These values consistently surpassed 0.70 for all constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Therefore, all constructs exhibited adequate internal consistency among the items (Hair et al., 2010).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to evaluate the validity of the measurement model. CFA, or general structural equation modeling (SEM), involved specifying a model, estimating parameters, and assessing how well the proposed model could explain the pattern of observed variance and covariance. Shevlin and Miles (1998) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) recommended that all constructs should have loadings greater than 0.40. Hair et al. (2011) advised that factor loadings of items could be used to confirm the validity of the contents of the measurement model. Specifically, items used to measure all constructs were expected to have high loadings on the constructs they were designed to measure.



$Chi\text{-square} = 473.90, df = 43, \text{Relative } \chi^2 = 1.10, p\text{-value} = 0.07,$

$RMSEA = 0.02, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.99, SRMR = 0.03$

Figure 8 Confirmatory factor analysis of model

Construct validity, as evaluated through the goodness-of-fit index, served as a criterion for assessing the adequacy of the association between indicators and latent variables in the study's estimated model relative to the observed data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The criteria used to evaluate the goodness-of-fit index, which indicated the model's fit, included chi-square, RMSEA, CFI, TLI, and SRMR. The p -value for the chi-square statistic needed to exceed 0.05 to reject the null hypothesis (Schermele-Engel et al., 2003). The Relative χ^2 needed to be below 2.00 to indicate an acceptable fit (Ullman, 2001), signifying that the observed and estimated covariance matrices were not significantly divergent. Additionally, indices such as CFI and TLI were required to exceed the cutoff value of 0.95, while RMSEA and SRMR needed to be below 0.05 to demonstrate a satisfactory model fit.

Table 36 Fit indices for testing structural model

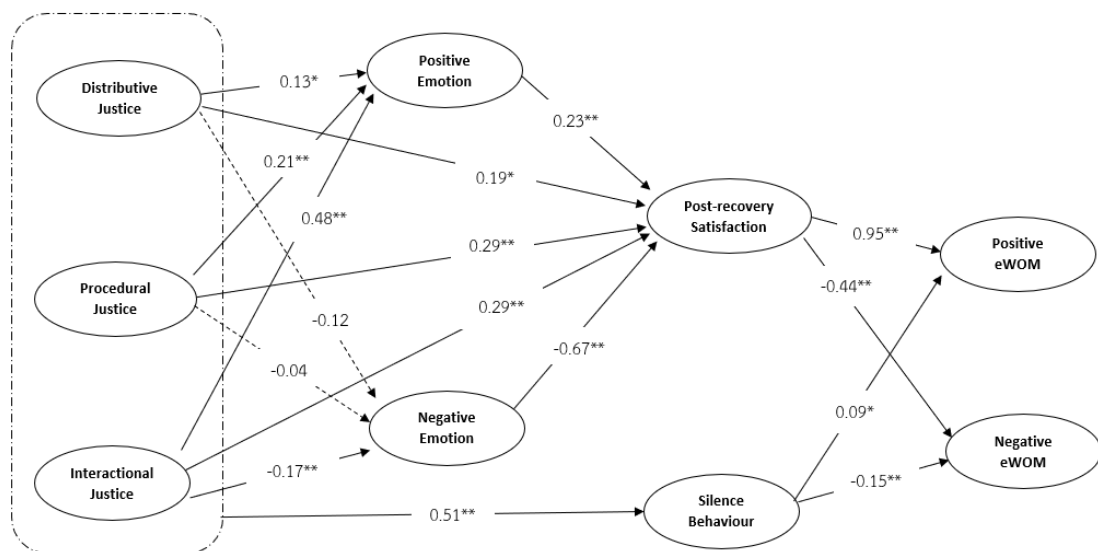
Goodness-of-fit indices	Value	Accept Criteria
χ^2	473.90	Smaller the better, p -value $\geq .05$ (Schermele-Engel et al., 2003)
df	43	Greater the better, positive and integer (Walker, 1940)
Relative χ^2	1.10	≤ 2 (Ullman, 2001)
p -value	0.07	≥ 0.05 (Schermele-Engel, Moosbrugger, and Müller, 2003)
RMSEA	0.02	≤ 0.05 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004)
CFI	0.99	≥ 0.95 (Browne and Cudeck, 1993; Hu and Bentler, 1999)
TLI	0.99	≥ 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004)
SRMR	0.03	≤ 0.05 (Byrne, 2001; Jaccard and Wan, 1996)

The results of the study found that a model for measuring perceived justice in service recovery, emotions, and silence behaviour and post-recovery satisfaction and electronic word-of-mouth it has chi-square to the degree of freedom ratio (Relative χ^2) = 1.10 (less than 2), p -value (0.07) was greater than 0.05, RMSEA (0.02) and SRMR

(0.03) were less than 0.05. Additionally, CFI (0.99), TLI (0.99) were found to be higher than the cutoff value (0.95). Consequently, these fit indices indicated a strong alignment between the estimated model and the observed data. The analysis led to the conclusion that the measurement model provided a reasonable fit to the data.

Structural of Model Assessment

In this step, the structural model encompassing perceived justice, emotion, silence behavior, post-recovery satisfaction, and electronic word of mouth was subjected to evaluation to verify that the model aligned with the empirical data.



$Chi\text{-square} = 28.44, df = 19, Relative\chi^2 = 1.50, p\text{-value} = 0.07,$
 $RMSEA = 0.03, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.98, SRMR = 0.02$

Figure 9 Hypotheses testing of structure model

In this study, structural equation modeling (SEM) was utilized to estimate parameters for the structural model. The analysis of the causal relationship model, which examined perceptions of fairness and electronic word-of-mouth communication among consumers who had encountered service failures at 4 and 5-star hotels and subsequently experienced service recovery, was performed using Mplus version Demo. The resulting fit indices were as follows: Chi-square = 28.44, df = 19,

Relative $\chi^2 = 1.50$, p -value = 0.07, RMSEA = 0.03 CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.98, SRMR = 0.02. These indices adhered to the established criteria (refer to table 36). Therefore, it was determined that the proposed model of the causal relationship between justice perception and electronic word-of-mouth was congruent with the empirical data.

Coefficient of Determinant (R^2)

The coefficient of determination (R^2) served as a statistical metric in a regression model that quantified the proportion of variance in the dependent variable explicable by the independent variable. R-squared could assume any value between 0 and 1. However, a high R-squared value did not necessarily denote a robust regression model, as the efficacy of this statistical measure was contingent upon multiple factors, including the nature of the variables incorporated in the model, the units of measurement for these variables, and any data transformations applied, all of which influenced the measure's validity.

Table 37 Coefficient of determinations of endogenous constructs of perceived justice, emotion, silence behavior, post-recovery satisfaction, and electronic word of mouth

Construct	R^2
PEmo	0.59
NEmo	0.10
SB	0.26
PSAT	0.03
PeWOM	0.37
NeWOM	0.03

The results of the analysis revealed that the coefficients of the framework determination were as follows: perceived justice, emotion, silence behavior, and post-recovery satisfaction explained 3.4% of the variance in negative electronic word-of-mouth. Additionally, perceived justice, emotion, silence behavior, and post-recovery satisfaction explained 36.6% of the variance in positive electronic word-of-mouth.

Perceived justice, emotion, and silence behavior accounted for 2.7% of the variance in post-recovery satisfaction. Perceived justice explained 26.4% of the variance in silence behavior, 9.9% of the variance in negative emotion, and 58.7% of the variance in positive emotion

Hypotheses Testing and Results

Hypothesis testing was a tool for evaluating the reliability of a hypothesis using sample data. This section described in detail both the direct and indirect influences that occurred based on the results shown in table 38.

Table 38 Direct effect and indirect effect structural model results

Pathway	DE		IE		TE	
	β	S.E.	β	S.E.	β	S.E.
DJ → PEmo	0.13*	0.06	-	-	0.13*	0.06
PJ → PEmo	0.21**	0.06	-	-	0.21**	0.06
IJ → PEmo	0.48**	0.05	-	-	0.48**	0.05
DJ → NEmo	-0.12	0.08	-	-	-0.12	0.08
PJ → NEmo	-0.04	0.08	-	-	-0.04	0.08
IJ → NEmo	-0.17**	0.07	-	-	-0.17**	0.07
PEmo → PSAT	0.23**	0.05	-	-	0.23**	0.05
NEmo → PSAT	-0.67**	0.17	-	-	-0.67**	0.17
PSAT → PeWOM	0.94**	0.05	-	-	0.94**	0.05
PSAT → NeWOM	-0.44**	0.07	-	-	-0.44**	0.07
DJ → PSAT	0.19*	0.08	-0.05	0.06	0.14*	0.05
DJ → PEmo → PSAT			0.03*	0.01		
DJ → NEmo → PSAT			-0.11	0.06		
PJ → PSAT	0.29**	0.08	0.02	0.06	0.31**	0.05
PJ → PEmo → PSAT			0.05**	0.02		
PJ → NEmo → PSAT			-0.03	0.05		
IJ → PSAT	0.29**	0.09	-0.00	0.07	0.29**	0.05
IJ → PEmo → PSAT			0.11**	0.03		
IJ → NEmo → PSAT			-0.11	0.06		

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

Table 38 Direct effect and indirect effect structural model results (continue)

Pathway	DE		IE		TE	
	β	S.E.	β	S.E.	β	S.E.
SB → PeWOM	0.09*	0.04	-	-	0.09*	0.04
SB → NeWOM	-0.15**	0.05	-	-	-0.15**	0.05
DJ → PeWOM	-	-	0.13*	0.05	0.13*	0.05
DJ → PSAT → PeWOM			0.18*	0.08		
DJ → PEmo → PSAT → PeWOM			0.03*	0.01		
DJ → NEmo → PSAT → PeWOM			-0.08	0.05		
PJ → PeWOM	-	-	0.29**	0.05	0.29**	0.05
PJ → PSAT → PeWOM			0.27**	0.08		
PJ → PEmo → PSAT → PeWOM			0.05**	0.02		
PJ → NEmo → PSAT → PeWOM			-0.03	0.05		
IJ → PeWOM	-	-	0.27**	0.08	0.27**	0.08
IJ → PSAT → PeWOM			0.27**	0.08		
IJ → PEmo → PSAT → PeWOM			0.11**	0.02		
IJ → NEmo → PSAT → PeWOM			-0.11	0.06		
DJ → NeWOM	-	-	0.06*	0.03	0.06*	0.03
DJ → PSAT → NeWOM			0.08*	0.04		
DJ → PEmo → PSAT → NeWOM			0.01*	0.01		
DJ → NEmo → PSAT → NeWOM			-0.04	0.03		
PJ → NeWOM	-	-	0.14**	0.03	0.14**	0.03
PJ → PSAT → NeWOM			0.13**	0.04		
PJ → PEmo → PSAT → NeWOM			0.02**	0.01		
PJ → NEmo → PSAT → NeWOM			-0.01	0.02		
IJ → NeWOM	-	-	0.12**	0.03	0.12**	0.03
IJ → PSAT → NeWOM			0.13*	0.05		
IJ → PEmo → PSAT → NeWOM			0.05**	0.01		
IJ → NEmo → PSAT → NeWOM			-0.05	0.03		
PEmo → PeWMO	-	-	0.22**	0.04	0.22**	0.04
PEmo → PSAT → PeWMO			0.22**	0.04		
NEmo → PeWMO	-	-	-0.63**	0.18	-0.63**	0.18
NEmo → PSAT → PeWMO			-0.63**	0.18		

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

Table 38 Direct effect and indirect effect structural model results (continue)

Pathway	DE		IE		TE	
	β	S.E.	β	S.E.	β	S.E.
PEmo \rightarrow NeWOM	-	-	0.10**	0.02	0.10**	0.02
PEmo \rightarrow PSAT \rightarrow NeWOM			0.10**	0.02		
NEmo \rightarrow NeWOM	-	-	-0.29*	0.12	-0.29*	0.12
NEmo \rightarrow PSAT \rightarrow NeWOM			-0.29*	0.12		
JUSTICE \rightarrow PeWOM	-	-	0.05*	0.02	0.05*	0.02
JUSTICE \rightarrow SB \rightarrow PeWOM			0.05*	0.02		
JUSTICE \rightarrow NeWOM	-	-	0.07**	0.02	0.07**	0.02
JUSTICE \rightarrow SB \rightarrow NeWOM			0.07**	0.02		

Note: * is significant at the .05 level. ** is significant at the .01 level

The analysis of direct and indirect effects in the proposed model (Figure 9) was conducted to elucidate insights into service recovery and customer electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) (Table 38).

The direct effects showed that distributive justice had a positive effect on positive emotion ($\beta = 0.13$, $p < 0.05$), procedural justice had a positive effect on positive emotion ($\beta = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$), and interactional justice had a positive effect on positive emotion ($\beta = 0.48$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, ***H1a, H2a, and H3a were supported***, with interactional justice perception having the greatest impact and distributive justice perception having the least impact on positive emotion. The effects of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice on positive emotion were all found to be significant.

The direct effects showed that distributive justice had a negative effect on negative emotion ($\beta = -0.12$, $p > 0.05$), procedural justice had a negative effect on negative emotion ($\beta = -0.04$, $p > 0.05$), and interactional justice had a negative effect on negative emotion ($\beta = -0.17$, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, ***H1b, H2b were not supported***, and ***H3b was supported***, with interactional justice perception having the greatest impact and procedural justice perception having the least impact on positive emotion. Additionally, only the effect of interactional justice on negative emotion was found to be significant.

The direct effect showed that positive emotion had a positive effect on post-recovery satisfaction ($\beta = 0.23$, $p < 0.01$), so **H4 was supported**.

The direct effect showed that negative emotion had a negative effect on post-recovery satisfaction ($\beta = 0.67$, $p < 0.01$), so **H5 was supported**.

The direct effect showed that post-recovery satisfaction had a positive effect on positive electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.94$, $p < 0.01$), thus supporting **H6a**. Conversely, PSAT had a negative effect on negative electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = -0.44$, $p < 0.01$), thereby supporting **H6b**. Therefore, the effect of PSAT on positive electronic word-of-mouth was found to be greater than its effect on negative electronic word-of-mouth, with both effects being significant.

The direct effects showed that distributive justice had a positive effect on post-recovery satisfaction ($\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.01$), procedural justice had a positive effect on post-recovery satisfaction ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.05$), and procedural justice had a positive effect on post-recovery satisfaction ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.05$). Consequently, **H7, H8, and H9 were supported**, with procedural justice perception having the greatest impact on post-recovery satisfaction and distributive justice perception having the least impact. The effects of distributive justice, procedural justice, and procedural justice on post-recovery satisfaction were all found to be significant.

The indirect effects of distributive justice on post-recovery satisfaction through positive emotion showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.03$, $p < 0.05$), while the indirect effect of distributive justice on post-recovery satisfaction through negative emotion showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.08$, $p > 0.05$). The effects of distributive justice on post-recovery satisfaction through positive emotion were significant, whereas the effects of distributive justice on post-recovery satisfaction through negative emotion were not significant. Consequently, the direct effect of distributive justice on post-recovery satisfaction was greater than the indirect effects of distributive justice on post-recovery satisfaction through both positive emotion and negative emotion. Additionally, the indirect effects of procedural justice on post-recovery satisfaction through positive emotion showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.05$, $p < 0.01$), whereas the indirect effect of procedural justice on post-recovery satisfaction

through negative emotion showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.03, p > 0.05$). The effects of procedural justice on post-recovery satisfaction through positive emotion were significant, while the effects of procedural justice on post-recovery satisfaction through negative emotion were not significant. Therefore, the direct effect of procedural justice on post-recovery satisfaction was greater than the indirect effects of procedural justice on post-recovery satisfaction through positive emotion and negative emotion. Additionally, the indirect effects of interactional justice on post-recovery satisfaction through positive emotion showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.11, p < 0.01$), while the indirect effect of interactional justice on post-recovery satisfaction through negative emotion showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.11, p > 0.05$). The effects of interactional justice on post-recovery satisfaction through positive emotion were significant, whereas the effects of interactional justice on post-recovery satisfaction through negative emotion were not significant. Consequently, the direct effect of interactional justice on post-recovery satisfaction was greater than the indirect effects of interactional justice on post-recovery satisfaction through both positive emotion and negative emotion.

The direct effects showed that JUSTICE had a positive effect on silence behaviour ($\beta = 0.51, p < 0.01$); therefore, *H10 was supported*. Where the effects of JUSTICE on silence behaviour were significant.

The direct effects showed that silence behavior had a positive effect on positive electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.09, p < 0.05$). Additionally, silence behavior had a negative effect on negative electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = -0.15, p < 0.01$); therefore, *H11a* and *H11b* were supported. Furthermore, the effect of SB on negative electronic word-of-mouth was found to be greater than its effect on positive electronic word-of-mouth, with both effects of silence behavior on positive electronic word-of-mouth and negative electronic word-of-mouth being significant.

The indirect effects of distributive justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth showed the following: distributive justice had a positive effect on positive electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.13, p < 0.05$); distributive justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.180, p < 0.05$); distributive justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through

positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.03, p < 0.05$); and distributive justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.08, p > 0.05$). Among these, the effect of distributive justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction had the greatest impact, while the effect of distributive justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction had the least impact. Only distributive justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction was not significant.

Similarly, the indirect effects of procedural justice (PJ) on positive electronic word-of-mouth were as follows: procedural justice had a positive effect on positive electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.29, p < 0.01$); procedural justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.27, p < 0.01$); procedural justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.05, p < 0.01$); and procedural justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.03, p > 0.05$). The effect of procedural justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth had the greatest impact, while the effect of procedural justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction had the least impact. Only procedural justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction was not significant.

Additionally, the indirect effects of interactional justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth were as follows: interactional justice had a positive effect on positive electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.27, p < 0.01$); interactional justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.27, p < 0.01$); interactional justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.11, p < 0.01$); and interactional justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.11, p > 0.05$). The effect of interactional justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth

through post-recovery satisfaction had the greatest impact, while the effect of interactional justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction had the least impact. Only interactional justice on positive electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction was not significant.

The indirect effects of distributive justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth were as follows: distributive justice had a positive effect on negative electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.06, p < 0.05$); distributive justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.08, p < 0.05$); distributive justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.01, p < 0.05$); and distributive justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.04, p > 0.05$). The effect of distributive justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction had the greatest impact, while the effect of distributive justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction had the least impact. Only distributive justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction was not significant.

Similarly, the indirect effects of procedural justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth showed the following: procedural justice had a positive effect on negative electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.14, p < 0.01$); procedural justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.13, p < 0.01$); procedural justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.02, p < 0.01$); and procedural justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and PSAT showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.01, p > 0.05$). The effect of procedural justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth had the greatest impact, while the effect of procedural justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction had the least impact. Only procedural

justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction was not significant.

Furthermore, the indirect effects of interactional justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth were as follows: interactional justice had a positive effect on negative electronic word-of-mouth ($\beta = 0.12, p < 0.01$); interactional justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.13, p < 0.05$); interactional justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.05, p < 0.01$); and interactional justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.05, p > 0.05$). The effect of interactional justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction had the greatest impact, while the effect of interactional justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through positive emotion and post-recovery satisfaction had the least impact. Only interactional justice on negative electronic word-of-mouth through negative emotion and post-recovery satisfaction was not significant.

The indirect effects of positive emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth and positive emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.22, p < 0.01$). In contrast, the indirect effects of negative emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth and negative emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a negative effect ($\beta = -0.63, p < 0.01$). Therefore, the indirect effects of negative emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth and negative emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction were greater than the indirect effects of positive emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth and positive emotion on positive electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction. Both pathways were significant.

The indirect effects of positive emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth and positive emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed that positive effect ($\beta = 0.10, p < 0.01$). In contrast, the indirect

effects of negative emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth and negative emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction showed a positive effect ($\beta = -0.29, p < 0.05$). Therefore, the indirect effects of negative emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth and negative emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction were greater than the indirect effects of positive emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth and positive emotion on negative electronic word-of-mouth through post-recovery satisfaction. Both pathways were significant.

The indirect effects of JUSTICE on positive electronic word-of-mouth and JUSTICE on positive electronic word-of-mouth through silence behavior showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.05, p < 0.05$). In contrast, the indirect effects of JUSTICE on negative electronic word-of-mouth and JUSTICE on negative electronic word-of-mouth through silence behavior showed a positive effect ($\beta = 0.07, p < 0.01$). Therefore, the indirect effects of JUSTICE on negative electronic word-of-mouth and JUSTICE on negative electronic word-of-mouth through silence behavior were greater than the indirect effects of JUSTICE on positive electronic word-of-mouth and JUSTICE on positive electronic word-of-mouth through silence behavior. Both pathways were significant.

Table 39 Summary of hypotheses testing results

Hypotheses	Description of hypothesized relationships	Results
H1a	Distributive Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.	Supported
H1b	Distributive Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.	Not Supported
H2a	Procedural Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.	Supported
H2b	Procedural Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.	Not Supported
H3a	Interactional Justice has a positive influence on positive emotion.	Supported

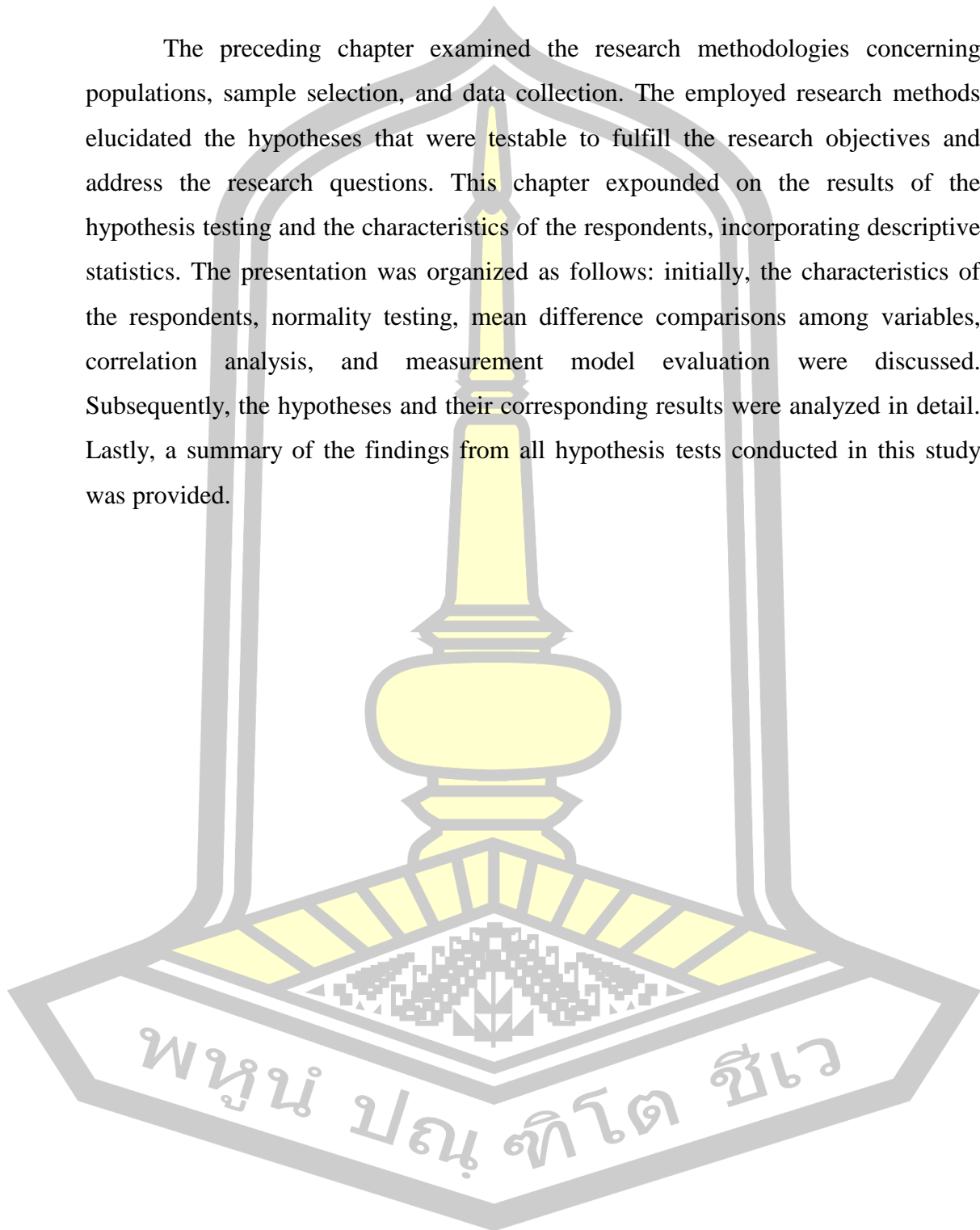
Table 39 Summary of hypotheses testing results (continue)

Hypotheses	Description of hypothesized relationships	Results
H3b	Interactional Justice has a negative influence on negative emotion.	Supported
H4	Positive emotions have positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H5	Negative emotions have negative influence on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H6a	Post-recovery satisfaction has positive influence on positive eWOM.	Supported
H6b	Post-recovery satisfaction has negative influence on negative eWOM	Supported
H7	Distributive justice has positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H8	Procedural justice has positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H9	Interactional justice has positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction.	Supported
H10	Perceived justice has a positive influence on silence behaviour.	Supported
H11a	Silence behaviour have positive influence on positive eWOM.	Supported
H11b	Silence behaviour have negative influence on negative eWOM.	Supported

The results of testing all 16 hypotheses revealed that 14 hypotheses were supported and 2 hypotheses were not supported.

Summary

The preceding chapter examined the research methodologies concerning populations, sample selection, and data collection. The employed research methods elucidated the hypotheses that were testable to fulfill the research objectives and address the research questions. This chapter expounded on the results of the hypothesis testing and the characteristics of the respondents, incorporating descriptive statistics. The presentation was organized as follows: initially, the characteristics of the respondents, normality testing, mean difference comparisons among variables, correlation analysis, and measurement model evaluation were discussed. Subsequently, the hypotheses and their corresponding results were analyzed in detail. Lastly, a summary of the findings from all hypothesis tests conducted in this study was provided.



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The previous chapter described the characteristics of the respondents, descriptive statistics, correlation matrix, measurement model evaluation of structural models and hypothesis testing. This chapter presents the conclusions and discusses the findings. Recommendations for academics and practitioners engaged in theory and managerial contributions, Moreover, limitations of future studies and research are suggested.

This research studies the relationship between perceived justice and electronic word of mouth. The conclusions in this section include perceived justice on electronic word of mouth through emotion, silence behavior, post recovery satisfaction. The population and sample of this study consisted of consumers who had experienced service failures and attempts to restore service in 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand within one year prior to the survey. In addition, the study focuses on three specific research questions are: 1) How does each dimension of perceived justice effect emotion, post-recovery satisfaction and eWOM? 2) How does each dimension of perceived justice effect post-recovery satisfaction? 3) How do perceived justice effect silence behaviour and eWOM? This research applies four theories to draw the conceptual model, including justice theory, equality theory, and social exchange theory. and theories of cognitive evaluation. It will combine two theories: justice theory and cognitive evaluation theory, to explain the impact of perceived justice on post recovery service through emotion, equity theory, used to explain the impact of post recovery service on eWOM and finally, social exchange theory, was used to explain the impact of perceived justice on eWOM through silence behaviour.

Conclusion

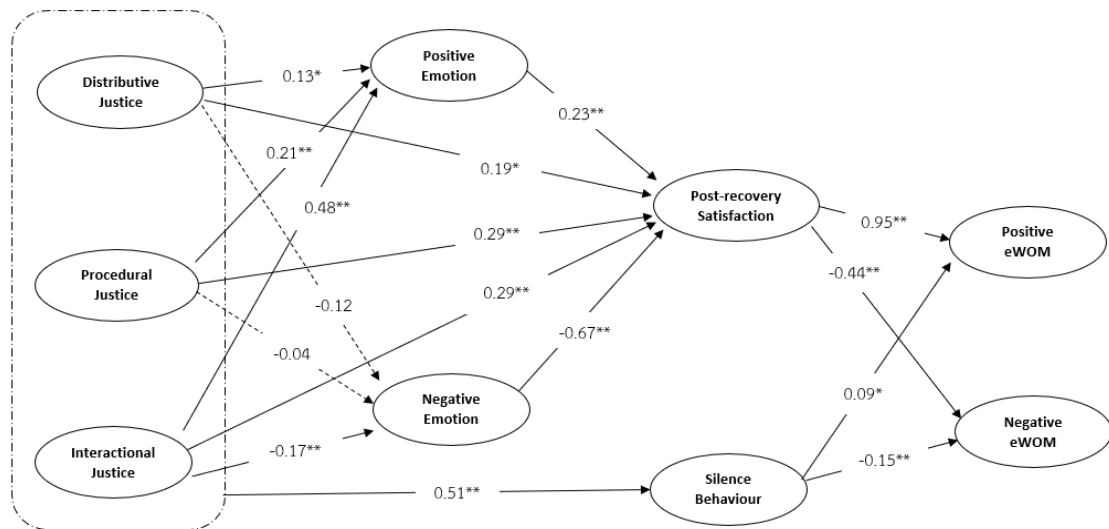
This research contributes to the evidence supporting the effects of perceived justice in all three dimensions, emotions, silence behavior, and post-recovery satisfaction, on electronic word-of-mouth referrals. The results indicate that perceived justice in all three dimensions has a positive effect on positive emotions, while only interactional justice has a significant negative effect on negative emotions. In addition, negative emotions had a greater influence on post-recovery satisfaction than positive emotions. Moreover, the three dimensions of perceived justice had both a direct and indirect effect on post-recovery satisfaction via emotions, with the direct effect being greater than the indirect effect. Additionally, new findings emerged regarding the relationship between the dimensions of perceived justice and consumer silence behavior following service recovery. The results revealed that overall perceptions of justice influenced consumer silence behavior; however, negative word-of-mouth was more prevalent than positive word-of-mouth. This suggests that consumer silence after service recovery did not reflect increased satisfaction but rather signified underlying dissatisfaction, which in turn manifested in negative behavioral outcomes.

Table 40 Summary of the results and conclusions in all hypothesis testing

Research Questions	Hypothesis	Results	Conclusions
1) How does each dimension of perceived justice effect emotion, post-recovery satisfaction and electronic word of mouth?	H1:(a, b) H2:(a, b) H3:(a, b) H4 H5 H6:(a, b)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> All three dimensions of perceived justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, had a significant positive influence on Positive emotion, but only interactional justice had a significant negative influence on negative emotion. 	Partially supported

Table 40 Summary of the results and conclusions in all hypothesis testing
(continue)

Research Questions	Hypothesis	Results	Conclusions
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive emotion has a significant positive influence on the post-recovery satisfaction and negative emotion has a significant negative influence on the post-recovery satisfaction. • Post-recovery satisfaction has a significant positive influence on positive electronic word of mouth and it has a significant negative influence on negative electronic word of mouth. 	
2) How does each dimension of perceived justice effect post-recovery satisfaction?	H7 H8 H9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, had a significant positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction 	Supported
3) How do perceived justice effect silence behaviour and electronic word of mouth?	H10 H11(a, b)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • JUSTICE had a significant positive influence on silence behaviour. • Silence behaviour has a significant positive influence on positive electronic word of mouth and it has a significant negative influence on negative electronic word of mouth. 	Supported



*Chi-square = 28.44, df = 19, Relative $\chi^2 = 1.50, p\text{-value} = 0.07,$
 RMSEA = 0.03, CFI = 0.99, TLI = 0.98, SRMR = 0.02*

Figure 10 A summary of results of the hypotheses testing

Discussion

The conceptual foundation for post-recovery satisfaction, emotions, quiet behavior, perceived justice, and electronic word-of-mouth is presented in this study. The hypothesis testing findings showed a number of intriguing things, which can be covered in more detail as follows:

The Relationship between Perceived Justice and Emotions.

The relationship between the three dimensions of perceived justice and positive emotions indicates that all three dimensions had a significant positive influence on positive emotions (H1a, H2a, and H3a), with interactional justice having the highest influence. The findings of this study suggest that service providers can effectively enhance customer satisfaction by (1) use tangible compensation, such as discounts, room upgrades, or free night coupons, (2) resolve issues quickly, have a positive and flexible problem-solving approach, and (3) apologize, be polite, sincere, and try to solve the problem for the customer, if service providers focus on solving all

three problems, they can make customers feel happier and more valued. This result is consistent with the study by Schoefer and Ennew (2002, 2005), who studied airline service users and found that high levels of justice perception resulted in an increase in all three dimensions of positive emotions. Furthermore, Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005) emphasized that, in the banking industry, all three dimensions of perceived justice influenced both positive and negative emotions. Additionally, studies by Kuo and Wu (2012), Balaji and Quazi (2017), Balaji et al. (2017), and Cai and Qu (2018), which surveyed consumers who had received refunds from 4- and 5-star hotels, supported the same finding that all three dimensions of perceived justice influence positive emotions. These findings underscore the significance of service recovery, as even in the event of service failure, the provision of appropriate corrective actions can sustain positive consumer emotions.

The relationship between perceived justice and negative emotion. The results of the hypothesis testing indicated that distributive justice and procedural justice did not have a significant effect on negative emotion (H1b and H2b), whereas interactional justice had a significant impact on negative emotion (H3b). This result shows that consumers staying at 4 and 5-star hotels are less concerned with tangible compensation, procedural methods, flexibility, speed, and accuracy during service recovery. Instead, they place greater value on interactional justice. This may be due to the frequent face-to-face interactions between frontline workers and customers, leading consumers to pay attention to employees' sincerity, willingness, politeness, and effort in addressing service issues during recovery processes. These strategies will reduce customers' anger or frustration, and may turn into good impressions. This finding is consistent with the study by Wen and Geng-Qing Chi (2013), which examined delayed airline passengers. Their research concluded that interactional justice was the only significant factor influencing consumers' negative emotions, as service providers implemented cost-cutting measures, leading to the absence of tangible compensation for affected consumers. Thus, distributive justice does not significantly impact consumers' emotions. Furthermore, even when perceptions of injustice are recognized, procedural justice—such as policies, flexibility, and the promptness in addressing service failures—do not lead to the expression of negative

emotions by customers. In contrast to the findings of Kuo and Wu (2012), who investigated online shopping consumers, their study demonstrated that both distributive justice and procedural justice during service recovery processes enhanced positive emotions and decreased negative emotions. However, interactional justice did not have a significant effect on emotions. This discrepancy may be attributed to the nature of the online shopping environment, where consumers have limited opportunities for direct interaction with service providers and, therefore, are less likely to prioritize perceptions of interactional justice. Furthermore, studies by Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005), Balaji et al. (2017), and Cai and Qu (2018) identified inconsistencies in the literature, highlighting that all three dimensions of justice perception—distributive, procedural, and interactional—serve as significant predictors of emotional responses.

The Relationship between Emotions and Post-Recovery Satisfaction.

The examination of the relationship between emotions and post-recovery satisfaction, the results of the hypothesis testing revealed that positive emotions have a positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction, while negative emotions negatively influence post-recovery satisfaction (H4 and H5). Furthermore, the impact of negative emotions was found to be stronger than that of positive emotions. The findings of this study suggest that service users of 4- and 5-star hotels in Thailand who experienced a service failure and service recovery. However, emotions such as frustration, disappointment, and anger remain, which are reported to result in lower levels of satisfaction after recovery. On the contrary, those who recover from services and feel happy, warm, and valued have higher levels of post-recovery satisfaction. Which is consistent with the study of Kuo & Wu (2012), Ellyawati et al. (2012), Wen & Geng-qing Chi (2013), and Balaji et al. (2017). They pointed out that emotion directly influences satisfaction and also mediates the relationship between perceptions of fairness and post-recovery customer satisfaction. with negative emotions having a greater influence on post-recovery satisfaction than positive emotions. Therefore, reducing negative emotions can help improve customer satisfaction after recovery. Meanwhile, Schoefer and Ennew (2005) suggest that the perceived fairness of

consumers who have had their flights canceled by airlines may trigger an emotional response and is likely to affect satisfaction with the airline's handling of complaints. whereby low perceptions of fairness may lead to increased negative emotions. As a result, consumers' satisfaction with service recovery has decreased. Moreover, del Río-Lanza et al., (2009) study focusing on the inherent negative emotions of consumers in the mobile phone industry found that perceptions of procedural justice trigger negative emotional responses and effects satisfaction in recovery services. It is possible that the company is able to provide its services without direct interaction between customers and employees, leading to less frequent face-to-face encounters and a higher prevalence of remote interactions. Alternatively, service failures within the mobile industry are related to the basic nature of communications services, and customers may want the company to focus its efforts on resolving problems quickly rather than apologizing or compensating with monetary compensation.

The results of the relationship between perceived justice, emotions, and post recovery satisfaction demonstrate of the consistency of the combination of justice theory and social exchange theory, with both theories used to explain perceptions of fairness, in which individuals evaluate the fairness of an exchange by comparing inputs and outcomes to create an equality score (Adams, 1963). The evaluation results describe the activation of positive and negative emotions among consumers who evaluate the situation during and/or after service restoration. Especially in the context of the hotel service industry. Customers will perceive fairness based on the overall costs incurred relative to the benefits received. Fairness and satisfaction occur when the customer perceives that the benefits are equal to or greater than the overall costs.

The Relationship between Post-Recovery Satisfaction and Electronic Word of Mouth.

The results of the study on the relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and eWOM found that customers of 4- and 5-star hotels in Thailand who were satisfied with the service recovery were more likely to recommend, share, and express positive opinions on social media, while customers who are dissatisfied with the service recovery are less likely to recommend it, they are more inclined to share their

experiences and post negative comments on social media. (H6a and H6b). Furthermore, post-recovery satisfaction had a stronger influence on positive word-of-mouth than negative word-of-mouth. Which is consistent with the findings of Kim et al. (2009), Fan et al. (2010), Wen & Geng-qing Chi (2013), and Balaji et al. (2017). They suggest that recovery satisfaction affects WOM and revisit intention. Customer satisfaction will increase intentions to revisit, and positive word of mouth will also increase if recovery from service failure is effective. On the contrary, if recovery from a service failure is not handled fairly, satisfaction with recovery and the intention to visit will decrease. Meanwhile, negative word-of-mouth increased. As for studies by Ding & Lii (2016) and Kussusanti et al. (2019), their results show that post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on repurchase intention, trust, and positive electronic word-of-mouth intentions regarding the experience of service recovery.

The relationship between post-recovery satisfaction and electronic word-of-mouth is explained by equity theory, which suggests that low levels of satisfaction and negative e-WOM can be recovered if the company corrects customers' feelings of inequality during service recovery. When consumers recognize the recovery of the company's services that exceeds expectations. The likelihood that consumers will engage in reciprocal behaviors that benefit the company may increase (Groth, 2005), such as satisfaction, repurchase, trust, and engagement in positive eWOM (Kim et al., 2009).

The Relationship between Each Dimension of Perceived Justice and Post-Recovery Satisfaction.

The results of the analysis examining the relationship between perceived justice across the three dimensions of service recovery and post-recovery satisfaction in 4- and 5-star hotels found that receiving distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice had a positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction (H7 , H8 , and H9) , where procedural justice had the highest positive influence. The results indicate that monetary or tangible compensation, timely and effective problem resolution, apology, sincerity, and attempts to resolve the problem for the customer can increase satisfaction for customers who experience service failures. The results of

this study were consistent with the recommendations of Wen & Geng-qing Chi (2013) suggestion that three perceived justice dimensions, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional influence post-recovery satisfaction, with procedural justice having the greatest influence on post-recovery satisfaction. Additionally, it was found that perceived justice also has an indirect influence through both positive and negative emotions on post-recovery satisfaction. While del Río-Lanza et al. (2009) suggested that perceptions of all three dimensions of the justice process influence recovery satisfaction, with procedural having the most direct effect on recovery satisfaction, and is the only dimension that affects recovery satisfaction both directly and indirectly through emotions. Further, Teo & Lim (2001), Wirtz & Mattila (2004), and Kuo et al. (2012) provide evidence that perceptions of fairness influence post-recovery satisfaction both directly and indirectly through emotions, with distributive justice having the highest influence on post-recovery satisfaction. Other than, Kim et al. (2009) stated that there is a relationship between all three dimensions of perceived justice and recovery satisfaction, and the effect of distributive justice on recovery satisfaction after service recovery appears to be stronger than the effect of procedural justice or interactional justice. In addition, Chang et al. (2012) clarified that distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice can lead to positive recovery satisfaction and provide further information that customers with low transaction frequency tend to place more importance on interactional justice. Conversely, customers with high transaction frequencies place more importance on procedural justice to satisfy service recovery. Moreover, Ghalandari (2013) and Rifi & Mostafa (2021) suggested that distributive justice and procedural justice have a positive effect on post-recovery satisfaction, but interactional justice has no significant relationship with post-recovery satisfaction but the findings of Tsao Wen Chin (2018) found that distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice all had a significant positive influence on post-recovery satisfaction, with interactional justice having the greatest influence on post-recovery satisfaction.

The Relationship between Perceived Justice and Silence Behaviour.

The examination of the relationship between overall justice perception and silence behavior among restored customers of 4- and 5-star hotels revealed that perceived justice has a positive influence on silence behavior (H10). This result shows that the silence behavior of consumers who received service recovery is indicative of their agreement with the hotel's problem-solving approach. This finding contributes new insights to the literature, as few studies have explored the silence behavior that arises following service recovery in the business sector. This result aligns with the findings of Tulubas and Celep (2012), who investigated the silence behavior of university faculty following service recovery. Their study suggested that perceived justice significantly influences faculty silence, particularly when there is a perceived discrepancy in what individuals receive or an inconsistency in resource allocation. Faculty may employ silence as a form of protest against perceived organizational injustice. This silence can hinder the exchange of knowledge, ideas, and suggestions that might otherwise contribute to organizational improvement. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that perceptions of restorative justice have a similar impact on silence behavior across different sectors.

The Relationship between Silence Behaviour and Electronic Word of Mouth

The study examined the relationship between silence behavior and electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) customers who have received recovery service from 4 and 5-star hotels. The results of hypothesis testing revealed that silence behavior positively influences positive e-WOM referrals and negatively influences negative e-WOM referrals (H11a and H11b), with the negative influence being greater than the positive influence. This shows that even though consumers who are silent because they agree with the hotel's solution, they are still reluctant to recommend the service to others and may continue to share negative feedback on social media. These findings are consistent with studies by Voorhees et al. (2006), FitzPatrick et al. (2012), and WenFeng (2015), who stated that consumer silence behavior has the effect of damaging word-of-mouth or third-party complaints, as well as costing companies the opportunity to correct service failures. It is noteworthy that previous studies have

overlooked the silence behavior that occurs after a service recovery, with the majority focusing on silence behavior after service failure. Kau and Wan-Yiun (2006) showed that customers who were initially satisfied with the service exhibited higher levels of trust, positive word-of-mouth, and loyalty compared to customers who were dissatisfied but chose not to complain. This suggests that dissatisfied customers who chose for silence may be concealing latent dissatisfaction, potentially on the verge of spreading negative word-of-mouth, and may experience a decline in loyalty. While Bolting (1989) argued that more than 45 percent of non-complainants are likely to spread negative word-of-mouth, Arruda Filho and Barcelos (2021) in contrast suggest that the majority of negative word-of-mouth referrals are generated by complainants, with only a small proportion of non-complainants engaging in such behavior. Additionally, Blodgett et al. (1997) suggest that when consumers perceive injustice, they are less inclined to return as patrons and are more likely to engage in negative word-of-mouth. Moreover, several studies have indicated that the failure to file a complaint often leads consumers to seek alternative online retailers and share their dissatisfaction with others (Lin et al., 2013; Ekiz, 2012). Therefore, it can be concluded that silence behavior, both following a service failure and after service recovery, exerts a negative influence on subsequent consumer behavior.

The results of the relationship between perceived justice, silence behaviour, and eWOM is explained by cognitive appraisal theory, which cognitive assessment is the evaluation of events that cause specific reactions in an individual to understand the environment related to stress, emotions, mental health, and coping with problems. Customer perceptions of the costs of filing a complaint versus the benefits are an important factor in consequences behaviour including silence and complaint behavior. Therefore, assessing fairness perceptions influences both silent behavior and electronic word of mouth.

Theoretical and Managerial Contributions

Theoretical Contribution

This study was designed to evaluate the outcomes of the service recovery process from customers who have truly experienced service failure and have gone through the process of restoring service from the hotel. This will lead to a better understanding of the relationship between each dimension of perceived justice, emotions, silence behaviour, post-recovery satisfaction after service recovery on electronic word-of-mouth. The results of this research contribute to theoretical as follows:

First, this study shows that dimensions of perceived justice affect different feelings or emotions. Further exploration of the role of emotions in academia is therefore important for analyzing the structure of service recovery within the service industry. Research provides evidence that dimensions of service recovery have different effects on the mood of users of 4 and 5-star hotels undergoing service recovery. The perception of justice in all three dimensions affects positive emotions, and perceptions of procedural justice (policies, correct way, fast, respond adequately, and flexibility) recalled the most positive emotions. In the case of negative emotions, only perceived interactional (interest, honesty, potential, competence, and authority) affect the increase or decrease of negative emotions. Therefore, scholars should be aware of selecting appropriate strategies in the justice perception dimension. This is because each dimension is an important factor that causes different behavioral responses.

Second, perceptions of justice in service recovery and post-recovery satisfaction. The results showed both direct and indirect relationships between the two factors. The three dimensions of perceived justice had a significant indirect effect through positive emotions, but the direct effect between perceptions of justice in service recovery and post-recovery satisfaction was more influential. Regarding negative emotions, it was found that DJ, PJ, and IJ had no indirect effects through negative emotions, and only IJ had a direct effect on post-recovery satisfaction.

Third, this study, in addition to finding a relationship between PE_{mo} and PeWOM, NE_{mo} and NeWOM, it was also found that all relationships that occurred had PSAT as a mediating variable. Where the correlation between PE_{mo} and PeWOM is higher than the correlation between NE_{mo} and NeWOM. Moreover, it was found that the correlation between NE_{mo} and PeWOM was higher than the correlation between NE_{mo} and NeWOM.

Finally, Silent behavior of consumers after service recovery. Prior studies are lacking in filling this gap. The findings of this study show that perceptions of overall fairness have a significant influence on the quiet behavior of consumers using 4 and 5-star hotels. Quietness can generally be interpreted in many different ways, including passive acceptance of a situation (VanDyne et al., 2003), emptiness (Brinsfield et al., 2009), and conscious, intentional, active, and purposeful behavior (Pinder and Harlos, 2001; Brinsfield, 2009). These things will affect subsequent behavior both positively and negatively. In studying the quiet behavior after the service restoration of customers of 4 and 5-star hotels in Thailand, it can be concluded that restoring the service from the hotel cannot restore all satisfaction. It is observed that consumers still have the behavior of negative word of mouth is more than positive word of mouth.

Prior studies indicate that the reason for not complaining or choosing to remain silent when receiving service failures is because of not knowing the channels for complaints; the complaint process is difficult; unsure whether the problem will be resolved after complaining; little trouble (Wenfeng, 2015); no time (Voothees, 2006). In this research, the causes of silent behavior that occur after service recovery were investigated. It was found that the reasons why consumers who received service restoration chose to remain silent were because they were satisfied with the hotel's solution (42%), the problem was not important enough (22%), no time (17%), unsure whether the problem would be resolved (13%), not know channels for complaints (6%).

Managerial Contributions

In an increasingly competitive business environment. This has led to increased concern about service failures and how incidents are handled. The current study provides several guidelines for marketers and business executives in the hospitality sector such as banks, restaurants, airlines, retail stores, and others, especially hotel services. To manage negative impacts and create positive outcomes. The results of this study reveal several practical implications, as follows:

First, this study investigated the relationship of service quality and service recovery perceptions, and their effects on customer satisfaction. The findings would be helpful to hotel who wish to devise more effective service recovery justice strategies through enhancing their customer satisfaction. As hotel customers become more sophisticated in their demands, and also in view of intense competition in the hospitality sector, hotel service providers need to understand the available options to maintain their existing customers as well as attract new ones. Managers of 4 and 5-star hotels must pay special attention to IJ because IJ (Pay attention to problems, do your best to solve them, employees must be sincere, polite, competent and demonstrate fairness in resolving problems) helps restore positive emotions and reduce negative emotions arising from failed services. Moreover, hotel managers should find measures to reduce negative emotions as much as possible because reducing negative emotions will make consumers more satisfied than increasing positive emotions.

Second, the results of both direct and indirect relationships between perceived justice and post-recovery satisfaction through emotions. It makes us aware that if the service provider can determine appropriate measures by focusing on the use of procedural justice in service recovery (using correct problem-solving methods, having good policies, fully solving problems, being flexible and quick in restoring services), not through emotion, they will be able to create the most satisfaction for customers. Therefore, hotel managers must train employees on how to make decisions for themselves and how to respond to customers' emotional responses. Empowering employees will help alleviate the negative effects of failing to provide service. More

importantly, hotel managers must understand that in the luxury industry, intangible elements are more important than tangible elements.

Third, silence behavior constitutes a significant threat to a business's survival that should not be overlooked, as predicting the impact of customer silence on a business is inherently challenging. The findings of the study clearly show that silence behavior following both service failures and service recovery in 4- and 5-star hotels stems from similar underlying factors: consumers remain dissatisfied and are more likely to express negative behaviors rather than positive behaviors. Therefore, while businesses cannot completely eliminate service failures, it is crucial for service providers to recognize the potential consequences of consumer silence, as this accumulated silence can be detrimental to the organization. Managers must implement strategies to mitigate the risk of customer attrition and the dissemination of negative information. Service providers should focus on transforming silence customers into active complainants by facilitating the complaint process and ensuring prompt resolution of grievances. Providing dissatisfied customers with the opportunity to voice their concerns facilitates effective service recovery, thereby enhancing perceived justice and increasing overall satisfaction. When customer complaints are addressed promptly and effectively, they can serve as a valuable resource for enhancing service quality. Constructively resolved complaints have the potential to be transformed into positive experiences, thereby fostering greater customer trust and confidence in the service provider. However, achieving overall quality is not feasible if employees fail to recognize the value of customer complaints. Therefore, it is essential that all employees receive training that enables them to perceive customer complaints as a valuable source of feedback regarding service quality, rather than viewing them as mere "conflicts" between customers and the organization.

Finally, while searching for luxury hotel information, customers always enjoy the most choice, variety, and excellent service possible. With the internet's easier access to information, what customers share about their experiences is therefore important to influence the decisions of potential customers. Results from this study provide hotel executives and managers with guidance on how to better manage

negative eWOM and encourage positive eWOM. Whether electronic word-of-mouth intentions are positive or negative depends on the hotel's ability to recover service, manage emotions and creating satisfaction for customers. Managers must give importance to the training of service staff. This is because they are responsible for maintaining the customer's relationship with the hotel during service failures and recovery. In addition, staff capacity must be enhanced so that frontline service staff can respond appropriately to service failure situations. To reduce or prevent the negative customer behavior that will follow.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

There are several limitations and suggestions that can be concluded from this research and for the benefit of future research.

First, the model developed for this study was tested in Thailand hospitality setting. As such, the findings may not be generalizable to other contexts or different cultural orientations especially true when referring to perceptions of justice in service recovery (Gruber et al., 2011). Thus, to understand the relationship between cultural orientation and the effectiveness of service recovery efforts. According to Gruber et al. (2011), future research should examine nations with different cultural orientations to allow for cross-cultural analysis and comparison.

Second, this study used cross-sectional data. As a result, cause-and-effect relationships cannot be clearly inferred from the results. Tests of causality can only use data collected over time. Therefore, future studies would benefit from testing using longitudinal data to observe relationships between variables. How have these evolved over time? this study does not examine what level of sincerity and types of compensation would be effective and appropriate for unhappy, emotionally exhausted customers. Therefore, future research should examine the degree of authenticity and types of compensation relevant to different types of service failures.

Third, this study focuses on 4 and 5-star hotels. The results may not reflect the situation of the entire hotel industry as customers may have different expectations regarding different hotel categories. Future research should therefore consider

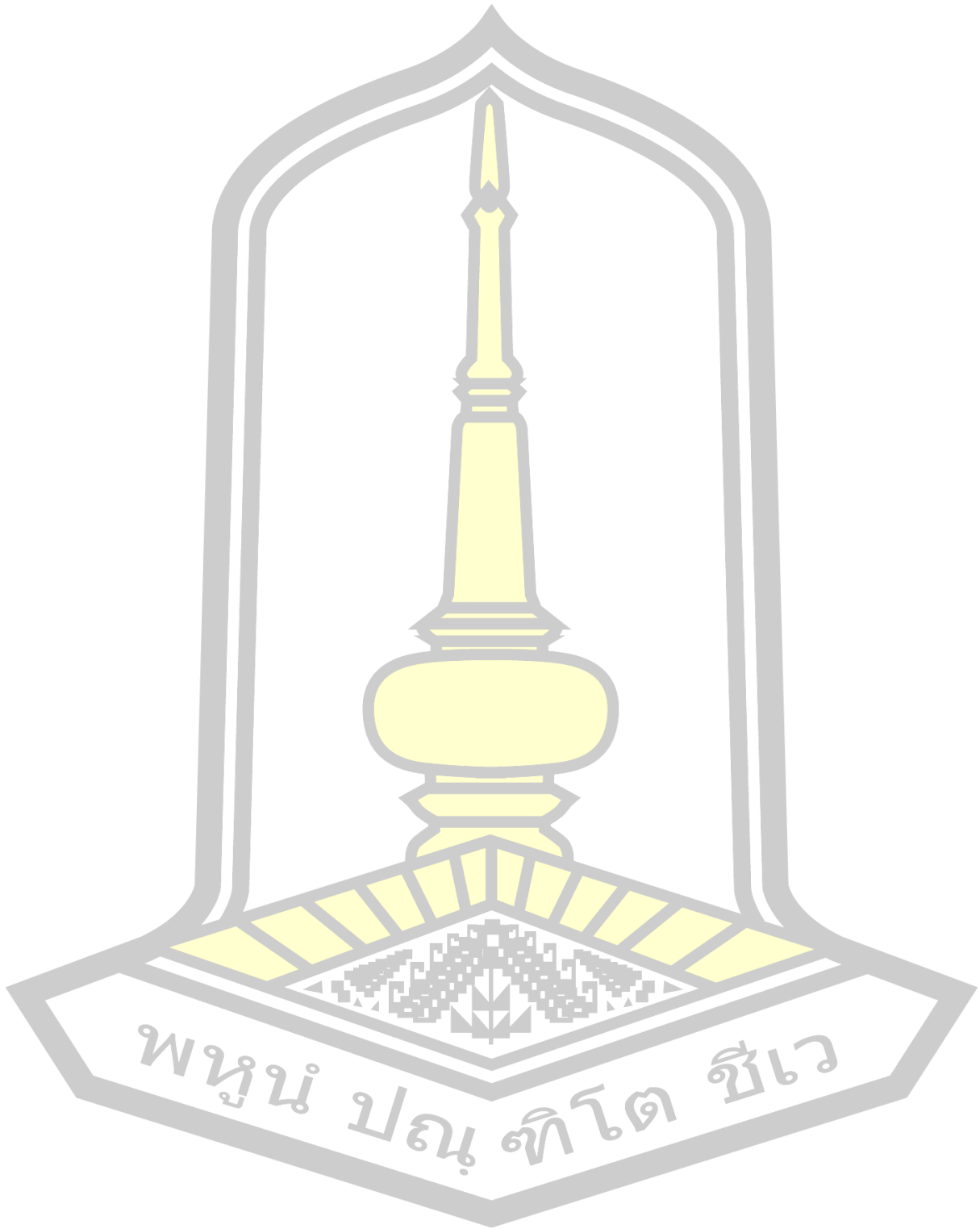
comparing the effectiveness of rehabilitation strategies for different star level or luxury and budget hotels.

Finally, this study focuses on how a hotel's recovery plan affects guests who use electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) to report service issues. Nevertheless, other guests can see the hotel's answers because the review site is public. The effects of various answer formats on prospective consumers' perceptions and future purchase behavior require more research.

Summary

This chapter presents the conclusions, discussions, theoretical and managerial contributions, limitations, and recommendations for future research. The findings of the study examine the three dimensions of perceived justice, emotional responses, passive behaviors, and post-satisfaction on eWOM satisfaction, offering both theoretical insights and practical implications for scholars and practitioners. In addition, the study acknowledges its limitations and suggests that the effects of each dimension of justice perception may differ in the context of service recovery efforts at 4- and 5-star hotels, particularly with respect to the subsequent behaviors of consumers who have experienced service failures. Future research could investigate alternative populations, sample groups, or additional factors that may further illuminate these relationships to improve the reliability and generalizability of the findings, future studies should compare these results with those from other research that reports similar or contrasting outcomes. Furthermore, adopting alternative research methodologies, such as in-depth qualitative interviews, could provide richer, more nuanced data, thereby contributing to a deeper understanding of the phenomena under study.

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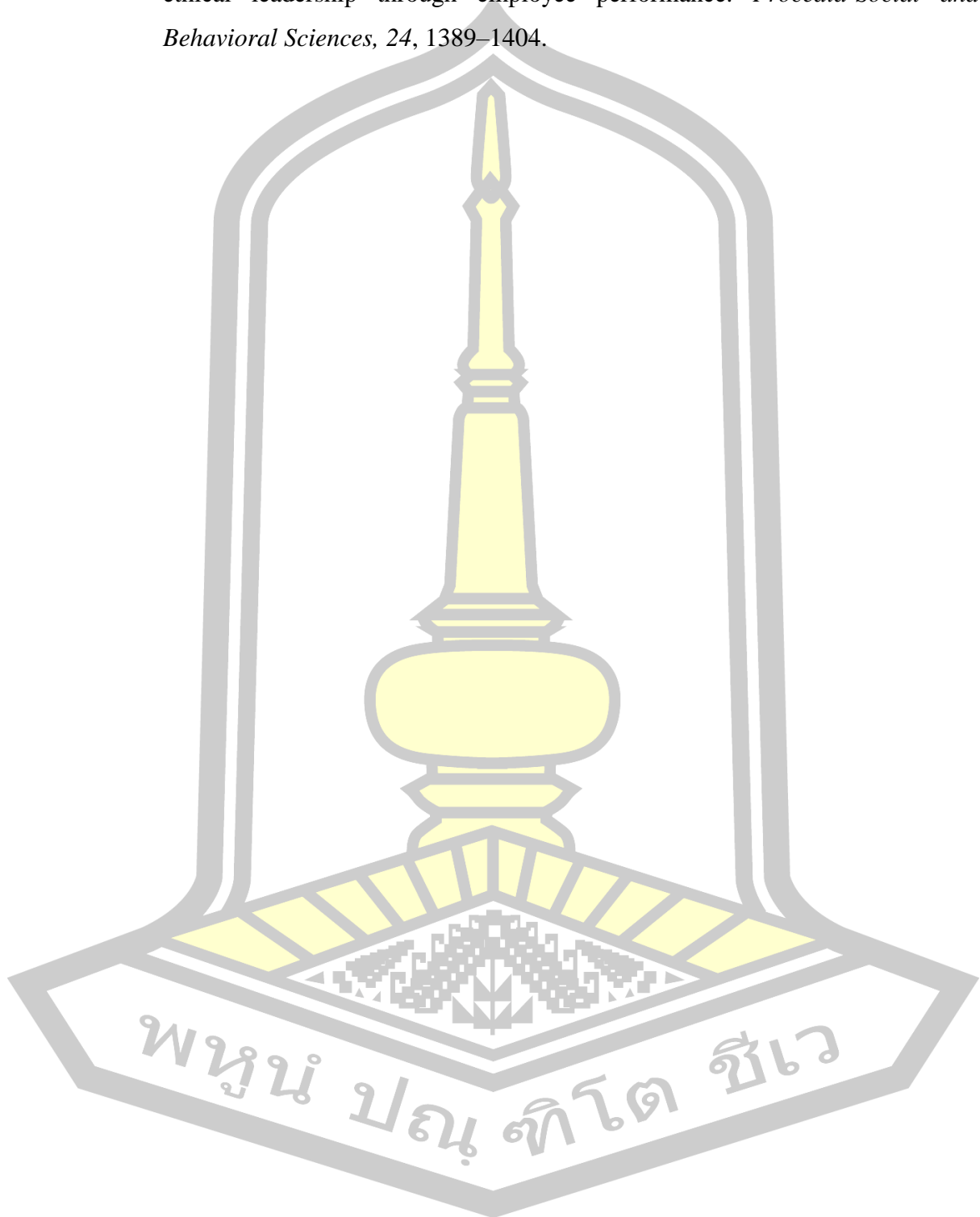
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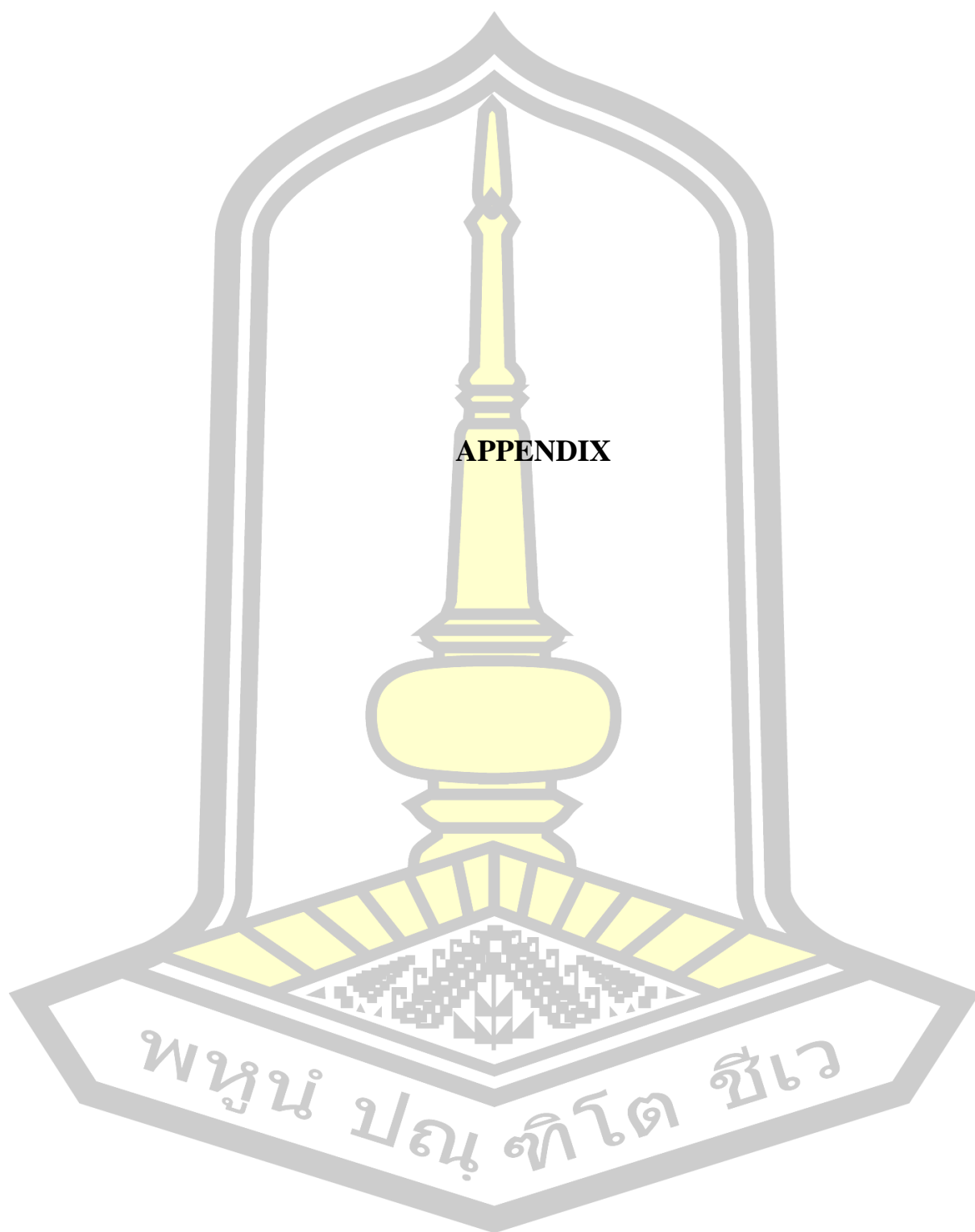
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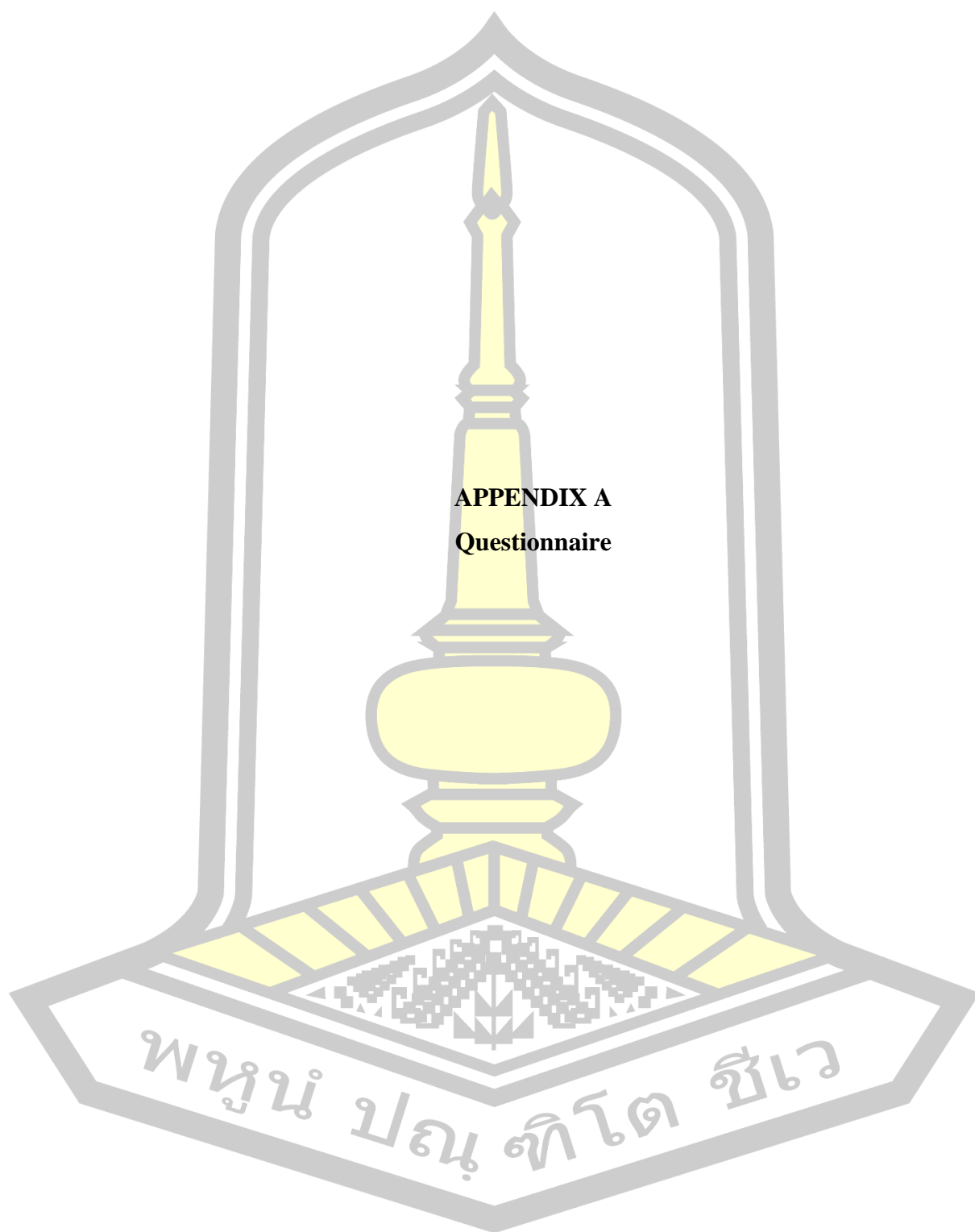
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APPENDIX

พหุณฺ์ ปณฺุ ทิโต ชีเว



APPENDIX A
Questionnaire



แบบสอบถาม

เรื่อง ผลกระทบของการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูบริการต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์: การศึกษาเชิงประจักษ์
โรงแรมระดับ 4 และ 5 ดาวในประเทศไทย

คำชี้แจง:

การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษา ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมของการฟื้นฟูบริการที่ล้มเหลวที่มีอิทธิพลต่อ
อารมณ์ พฤติกรรมการเขียน ความพึงพอใจหลังการฟื้นฟูบริการที่ล้มเหลวต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ การศึกษาเชิง
ประจักษ์โรงแรม 4-5 ดาวในประเทศไทย ซึ่งข้อมูลที่ได้รับจากท่าน มีความสำคัญอย่างยิ่งต่อความเที่ยงตรงของผลการวิจัย และการนำผลวิจัย
ไปใช้ให้เกิดประโยชน์อย่างแท้จริง

**ข้าพเจ้าใคร่ขอความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามได้โปรดตอบแบบสอบถามชุดนี้ตามความเป็นจริง โดยการตอบ
แบบสอบถามนี้ใช้เวลาประมาณเพียง 15 นาที และกรุณาส่งคืนแบบสอบถามภายในวันที่**

ข้อมูลของท่านจะถูกเก็บไว้เป็นความลับและจะไม่มีการใช้ข้อมูลใดๆที่เกี่ยวกับตัวท่านในการรายงานข้อมูล รวมทั้งข้อมูลของท่าน
จะไม่มีมีการเปิดเผยกับบุคคลภายนอกโดยไม่ได้รับอนุญาตจากท่าน

ท่านต้องการรายงานสรุปผลการวิจัยหรือไม่

(.....) ต้องการ ระบุ E-Mail.....

(.....) ไม่ต้องการ

ผู้วิจัยขอขอบคุณท่านที่ได้สละเวลาในการให้ข้อมูลที่เป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งต่อการวิจัย หากท่านมี
ข้อสงสัยประการใด โปรดติดต่อผู้วิจัย นางนงลักษณ์ เข็มทอง โทรศัพท์มือถือ: 081-1437915 หรือ E-Mail:
nongluk@apiu.edu

ขอขอบพระคุณสำหรับข้อมูล ไว้ ณ โอกาสนี้

พูน ปรณ ทิโต ชิวเว
(นางนงลักษณ์ เข็มทอง)
นิสิตปริญญาเอก สาขาวิชาการจัดการการตลาด
คณะบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

คำชี้แจง กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย (✓) ในช่องตัวเลือกสำหรับคำตอบของท่านในแต่ละข้อ

1. ท่านเคยเข้าพักในโรงแรม 4-5 ดาวในประเทศไทยอย่างน้อย 1 คืน

1. เคย 2. ไม่เคย (สิ้นสุดการตอบแบบสอบถาม)

2. ท่านเคยเจอปัญหาการให้บริการของโรงแรมและได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น

1. เคย 2. ไม่เคย (สิ้นสุดการตอบแบบสอบถาม)

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. เพศ

1. ชาย 2. หญิง

2. อายุ

1. น้อยกว่า 20 ปี 2. 20 - 30 ปี
 3. 31 - 40 ปี 4. 41 - 50 ปี
 5. มากกว่า 50 ปี

3. สถานภาพ

1. โสด 2. สมรส
 3. หม้าย/หย่าร้าง

4. อาชีพ

1. ธุรกิจส่วนตัว 2. ข้าราชการ
 3. พนักงานรัฐวิสาหกิจ 4. พนักงานบริษัทเอกชน
 5. นักเรียน / นักศึกษา 6. อื่นๆ

5. ระดับการศึกษา

1. ต่ำกว่าปริญญาตรี 2. ปริญญาตรี
 3. ปริญญาโทหรือสูงกว่า

6. รายได้เฉลี่ยต่อเดือน

1. ต่ำกว่า 50,000 บาท 2. 50,000 - 60,000 บาท
 3. 60,001 - 70,000 บาท 4. 70,001 - 80,000 บาท
 5. 80,001 - 90,000 บาท 6. 90,001 - 100,000 บาท
 7. มากกว่า 100,000 บาท

ส่วนที่ 2 พฤติกรรมการพักโรงแรมของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

1. วัตถุประสงค์การเดินทาง

1. เพื่อท่องเที่ยว 2. เพื่อธุรกิจ
3. เพื่อท่องเที่ยวและธุรกิจ

2. ระยะเวลาเฉลี่ยในการเข้าพักที่โรงแรม

1. จำนวน 1 คืน 2. จำนวน 2 คืน
3. จำนวน 3 คืน 3. จำนวนมากกว่า 3 คืน

3. ความถี่ของการเดินทางและพักค้างคืน

1. จำนวน 1-3 ครั้งต่อปี 2. จำนวน 4-6 ครั้งต่อปี
3. จำนวนมากกว่า 6 ครั้งต่อปี

ตอนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูบริการของโรงแรม 4-5 ดาวในประเทศไทย

การรับรู้ความยุติธรรมหลังจากได้รับการฟื้นฟูบริการที่ล้มเหลว (Perceived Justice)	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	น้อยที่สุด	น้อย	ปานกลาง	มาก	มากที่สุด
ความยุติธรรมด้านกระจาย (Distributive Justice)					
1. ท่านเห็นด้วยกับการชดเชยที่ได้รับจากทางโรงแรมเมื่อเปรียบเทียบกับปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้นกับเวลาที่เสียไป					
2. ทางโรงแรมใช้มาตรการชดเชยที่ดีเพื่อแก้ไขปัญหา					
3. ทางโรงแรมมีความพยายามที่จะเสนอค่าตอบแทนที่น่าพอใจ					
4. ทางโรงแรมมีความเป็นธรรมในการชดเชยปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น					
5. ทางโรงแรมชดเชยได้อย่างเพียงพอเพื่อแก้ไขปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น					
ความยุติธรรมด้านกระบวนการ (Procedural Justice)					
1. ท่านคิดว่าปัญหาของท่านได้รับการแก้ไขด้วยวิธีการที่ถูกต้อง					
2. ทางโรงแรมมีนโยบายและแนวปฏิบัติที่ดีในการจัดการกับปัญหา					
3. ทางโรงแรมสามารถตอบสนองต่อการแก้ไขปัญหาได้อย่างเต็มที่					
4. ทางโรงแรมมีความซื่อสัตย์ในแนวทางการแก้ปัญหา					
5. ทางโรงแรมสามารถแก้ไขปัญหาได้อย่างรวดเร็ว					
ความยุติธรรมเชิงโต้ตอบ (Interactional Justice)					
1. พนักงานโรงแรมแสดงความสนใจต่อปัญหาของท่าน					
2. พนักงานโรงแรมพยายามอย่างเต็มที่ความสามารถเพื่อแก้ไขปัญหาของท่าน					
3. พนักงานโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาของท่านอย่างจริงจัง					
4. พนักงานโรงแรมมีศักยภาพเพียงพอที่จะแก้ไขปัญหา					
5. พนักงานโรงแรมปฏิบัติต่อท่านอย่างสุภาพขณะแก้ไขปัญหา					
6. พนักงานโรงแรมแสดงความสนใจที่จะแก้ไขปัญหาของท่านอย่างเป็นธรรมชาติ					

ตอนที่ 4 ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับอารมณ์และพฤติกรรมการเงียบในการฟื้นฟูบริการของโรงแรม 4-5 ดาว
ในประเทศไทย

อารมณ์และพฤติกรรมการเงียบได้รับการฟื้นฟูบริการที่ล้มเหลว (Emotion and Silence Behaviour)	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	น้อยที่สุด	น้อย	ปานกลาง	มาก	มากที่สุด
อารมณ์ด้านบวก (Positive Emotion)					
1. ท่านรู้สึกมีความสุขหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					
2. ท่านรู้สึกอ่อนใจหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					
3. ท่านรู้สึกมีคุณค่าหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					
อารมณ์ด้านลบ (Negative Emotion)					
1. ท่านรู้สึกโกรธหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					
2. ท่านรู้สึกหงุดหงิดหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					
3. ท่านรู้สึกผิดหวังหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					
พฤติกรรมการเงียบ (Silence behaviour)					
1. ท่านเงียบเพราะเห็นด้วยกับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					
2. ท่านเงียบเพราะรู้สึกเฉยๆ กับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม					

ข้อคำถามเพิ่มเติม กรุณาใส่เครื่องหมาย (✓) ในช่องตัวเลือกสำหรับคำตอบของท่าน

สาเหตุที่ท่านเงียบหลังจากได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาด้านการบริการที่เกิดขึ้นจากทางโรงแรมแล้วเพราะ

- พอใจกับการแก้ไขปัญหามาจากทางโรงแรม
- ไม่มีเวลาไปร้องเรียน
- ไม่ทราบช่องทางในการร้องเรียน
- ปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้นไม่สำคัญเพียงพอ
- ไม่มั่นใจว่าปัญหาจะได้รับการแก้ไข
- อื่นๆ โปรดระบุ.....

พูน ปรุ ทิโต ชีเว

ตอนที่ 5 ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับความพึงพอใจหลังการฟื้นฟูบริการของโรงแรม 4-5 ดาวในประเทศไทย

ความพึงพอใจหลังได้รับการฟื้นฟูบริการที่ล้มเหลว (Post-Recovery Satisfaction)	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	น้อยที่สุด	น้อย	ปานกลาง	มาก	มากที่สุด
1. ท่านมีความพึงพอใจหลังจากทางโรงแรมได้จัดการกับปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น					
2. ทางโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาได้ตรงตามความต้องการของท่าน					
3. ทางโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาได้เกินความคาดหมายของท่าน					

ตอนที่ 6 ความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ในการฟื้นฟูบริการของโรงแรม

4-5 ดาวในประเทศไทย

การสื่อสารปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ (Electronic Word of Mouth)	ระดับความคิดเห็น				
	น้อยที่สุด	น้อย	ปานกลาง	มาก	มากที่สุด
การสื่อสารปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์เชิงบวก (Positive eWOM)					
1. ท่านจะแนะนำโรงแรมนี้ให้กับผู้อื่นทางโซเชียลมีเดีย					
2. ท่านจะบอกต่อในเชิงบวกเกี่ยวกับโรงแรมนี้ให้กับผู้อื่นทางโซเชียลมีเดีย					
3. ท่านจะแสดงความคิดเห็นเชิงบวกเกี่ยวกับโรงแรมนี้ทางโซเชียลมีเดีย					
การสื่อสารปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์เชิงลบ (Negative eWOM)					
1. ท่านจะไม่แนะนำโรงแรมนี้ให้กับผู้อื่นทางโซเชียลมีเดีย					
2. ท่านจะบอกต่อในเชิงลบเกี่ยวกับโรงแรมนี้ให้กับผู้อื่นทางโซเชียลมีเดีย					
3. ท่านจะแสดงความคิดเห็นเชิงลบเกี่ยวกับโรงแรมนี้ทางโซเชียลมีเดีย					

ส่วนที่ 7 ข้อคิดเห็น และข้อเสนอแนะอื่นๆ ของท่าน

.....

.....

.....

.....

ขอขอบพระคุณที่ท่านช่วยสละเวลาอันมีค่า ต่อการมีส่วนร่วมในการวิจัยครั้งนี้

ในการนี้ขอความอนุเคราะห์พิมพ์แบบสอบถามใส่ซองที่แนบมาพร้อมนี้ส่งคืนตามที่อยู่ที่อยู่หน้าซอง



Survey Questionnaire

The Effects of Perceived Justice on Electronic Word of Mouth:
An Empirical Study of 4-5 Star Hotels in Thailand

Explanation:

This research aims to study a relationship between perceived justice on eWOM: An empirical study of 4-5-star hotels in Thailand. The research is part of Ph.D. Thesis in the Ph.D. marketing management program, Mahasarakham Business School, Mahasarakham University, Mahasarakham.

The researcher would like to ask for your favor in doing this survey questionnaire which consists of 7 sections:

Section 1: Screening questions

Section 2: General information of the respondents.

Section 3: Hotel-staying behavior of respondents.

Section 4: Opinions on the perception of justice in restoring 4-5-star hotel services in Thailand.

Section 5: Opinions on the mood and quiet behavior of the restoration of 4-5-star hotel services in Thailand

Section 6 Opinions about satisfaction after restoring service from 4-5-star hotels in Thailand

Section 7 Opinions on electronic word-of-mouth communication of hotel service restoration.
4-5 stars in Thailand

Your responses will be confidential and will not be used to expose your identity in any reports. Additionally, your information will not be shared with anyone with your permission.

The researcher would like to thank you for sacrificing your time to answer this questionnaire correctly and completely and sincerely hope that the information received from you will be of great benefit to this research and would like to thank you very much for this opportunity.

(Mrs. Nongluk Hemthong)

Ph.D. Student, Marketing Management Program
Mahasarakham Business School, Mahasarakham University

Instructions: Please put a tick (✓) in the checkbox for your answer for each question.

Section 1: Screening questions.

1. You have stayed at least 1 night in a 4-5-star hotel in Thailand.

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. No (end of questionnaire)
---------------------------------	---
2. Have you ever been disappointed with the hotel's service and received compensation?

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. No (end of questionnaire)
---------------------------------	---

Section 2: General information of the respondents.

1. Gender

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Male	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. Female
----------------------------------	------------------------------------
2. Age

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Less than 20 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. 20 - 30 years
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. 31 - 40 years	<input type="checkbox"/> 4. 41 - 50 years
<input type="checkbox"/> 5. More than 50 years	
3. Status

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Single	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. Married
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. Divorced	
4. Occupation

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Business	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. Government official
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. State enterprise employee	<input type="checkbox"/> 4. Company employee
<input type="checkbox"/> 5. Student	<input type="checkbox"/> 6. Others.....
5. Education

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Less than bachelor's degree	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. Bachelor's degree
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. Master's degree or higher.	
6. Average monthly income

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Less than 50,000 baht	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. 50,000 - 60,000 baht
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. 60,001 - 70,000 baht	<input type="checkbox"/> 4. 70,001 - 80,000 baht
<input type="checkbox"/> 5. 80,001 - 90,000 baht	<input type="checkbox"/> 6. 90,001 - 100,000 baht
<input type="checkbox"/> 7. More than 100,000 baht	

Section 3: Hotel-staying behavior of respondents.

1. Travel purpose

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. Pleasure	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. Business
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. Pleasure and business.	
2. Average length of stay at a hotel

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. 1 night	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. 2 nights
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. 3 nights	<input type="checkbox"/> 3. More than 3 nights
3. Frequency of travel and stay over night

<input type="checkbox"/> 1. 1-3 times per year	<input type="checkbox"/> 2. 4-6 times per year
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. More than 6 times per year.	

Section 4: Opinions on the perception of justice in restoring 4-5-star hotel services in Thailand.

Perceived Justice	Level of Opinion				
	Lowest 1	Low 2	Average 3	High 4	Highest 5
Distributive Justice					
1. You agree with the compensation received from the hotel when comparing the problem to the time lost					
2. The hotel has taken good compensation measures to resolve the problem					
3. The hotel is trying to offer satisfactory compensation					
4. The hotel is fair in compensating for the problems that have occurred					
5. The hotel provided adequate compensation to resolve the issues that occurred					
Procedural Justice					
1. Your problem has been solved in the right way					
2. The hotel has good policies and practices for dealing with problems					
3. The hotel is able to respond to problem solving to the fullest extent					
4. The hotel is flexible in its approach to problem solving					
5. The hotel was able to resolve the issue quickly					
Interactional Justice					
1. The hotel staff showed interest in your problem					
2. This hotel staff did everything they could to resolve your issue.					
3. The hotel staff will handle your problem sincerely					
4. The hotel staff are capable enough to solve problems					
5. The hotel staff treated you politely while solving the problem					
6. The hotel staff showed interest in resolving your problem fairly					

Section 5: Opinions on the mood and quiet behavior of the restoration of 4-5-star hotel services in Thailand

Emotion and Silence Behaviour	Level of Opinion				
	Lowest 1	Low 2	Average 3	High 4	Highest 5
Positive Emotion					
1. You feel happy after the hotel solves your problem					
2. You feel a warm feeling after service recovery encounters at this hotel					
3 You feel valued after service recovery encounters at this hotel					
Negative Emotion					
1. You feel angry after service recovery encounters of this hotel.					
2. You feel frustrated after service recovery encounters of this hotel.					
3. You feel disappointed after service recovery encounters of this hotel.					
Silence behavior					
1. You are silent because you agree with the hotel's solution					
2 You are silent because you feel indifferent about the hotel's problem solving					

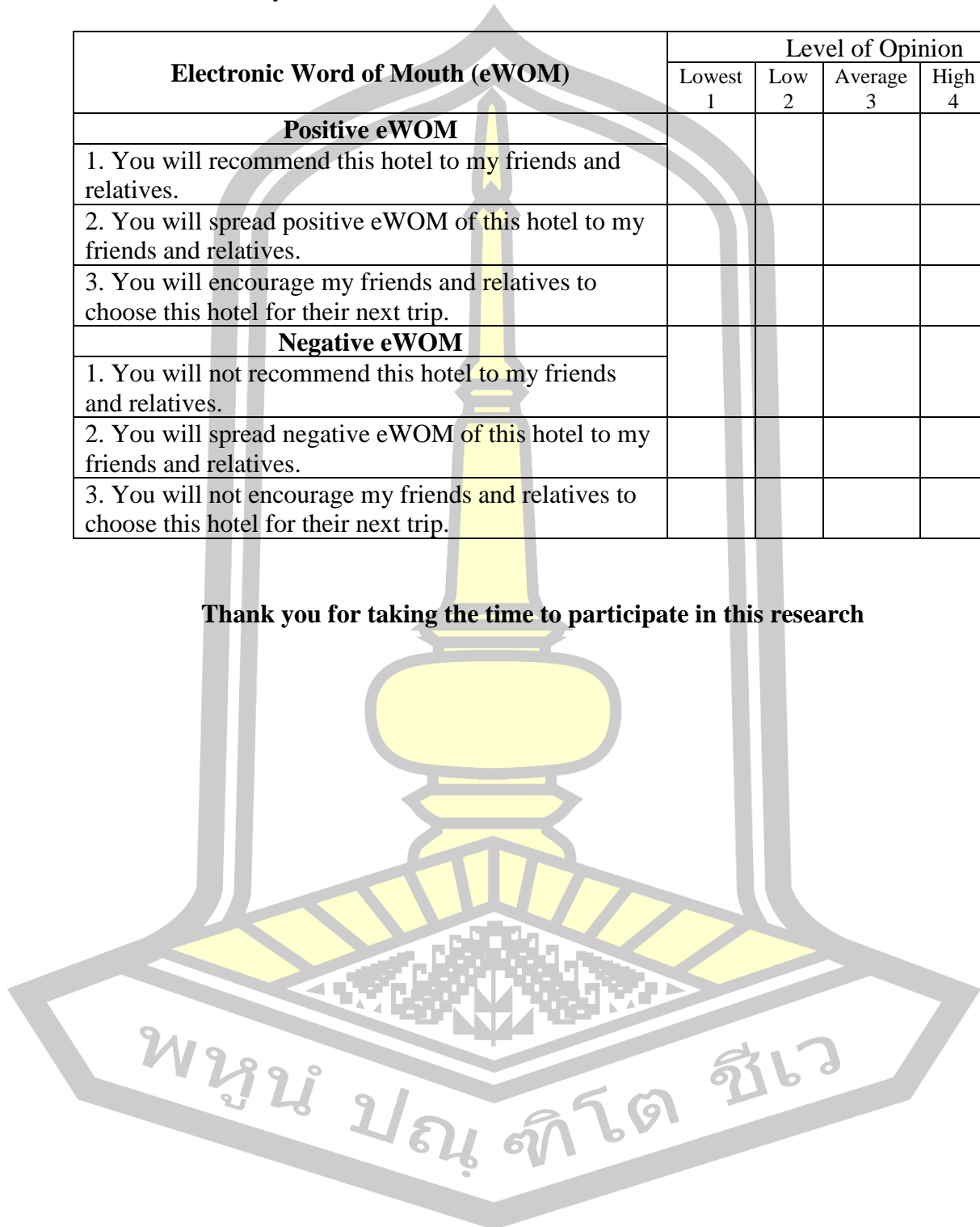
Section 6 Opinions about satisfaction after restoring service from 4-5-star hotels in Thailand

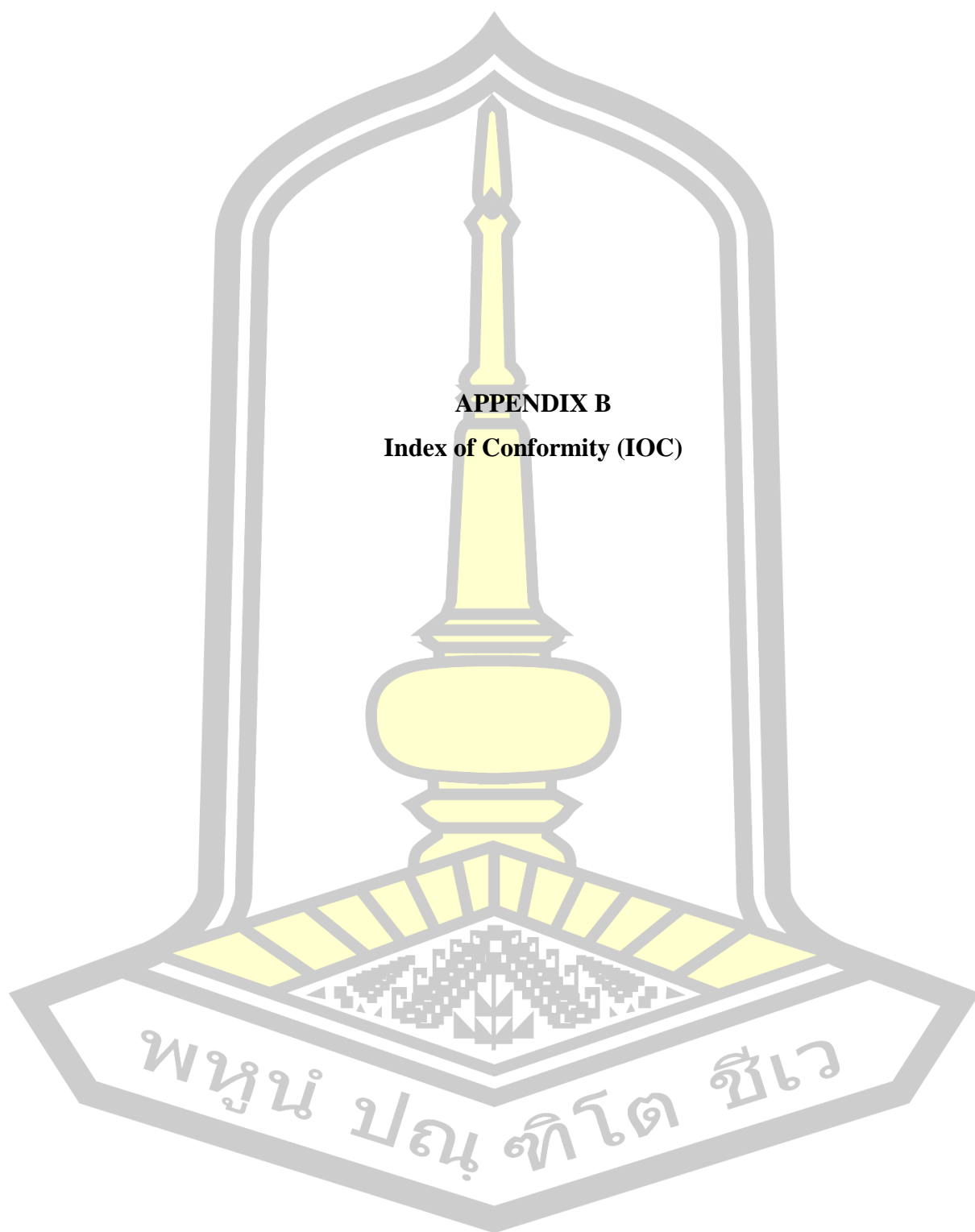
Post-Recovery Satisfaction	Level of Opinion				
	Lowest 1	Low 2	Average 3	High 4	Highest 5
1. You are satisfied after the hotel has dealt with the problem that occurred					
2. The hotel can handle the problem according to your needs					
3. The hotel handled the problem beyond your expectations					

Section 7 Opinions on electronic word-of-mouth communication of hotel service recovery from 4-5 stars in Thailand

Electronic Word of Mouth (eWOM)	Level of Opinion				
	Lowest 1	Low 2	Average 3	High 4	Highest 5
Positive eWOM					
1. You will recommend this hotel to my friends and relatives.					
2. You will spread positive eWOM of this hotel to my friends and relatives.					
3. You will encourage my friends and relatives to choose this hotel for their next trip.					
Negative eWOM					
1. You will not recommend this hotel to my friends and relatives.					
2. You will spread negative eWOM of this hotel to my friends and relatives.					
3. You will not encourage my friends and relatives to choose this hotel for their next trip.					

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this research





APPENDIX B
Index of Conformity (IOC)



รายงานค่าดัชนีความสอดคล้อง (IOC) ของผู้เชี่ยวชาญต่อแบบสอบถาม
ผลกระทบของการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูการบริการต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์:
การศึกษาเชิงประจักษ์โรงแรมระดับ 4 และ 5 ดาวในประเทศไทย

คำชี้แจง ความสอดคล้องของข้อความถามกับนิยามศัพท์เฉพาะในแบบสอบถามมี 3 ระดับ ดังนี้
+1 คะแนน หมายถึง แน่ใจว่าข้อความนั้นสอดคล้องกับนิยามศัพท์เฉพาะ
0 คะแนน หมายถึง ไม่แน่ใจว่าข้อความนั้นสอดคล้องกับนิยามศัพท์เฉพาะ
-1 คะแนน หมายถึง แน่ใจว่าข้อความนั้นไม่สอดคล้องกับนิยามศัพท์เฉพาะ

รายการประเมิน	ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่					รวม	ค่า IOC
	1	2	3	4	5		
ความยุติธรรมด้านกระจาย (Distributive Justice)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าเห็นด้วยกับการชดเชยที่ได้รับจากทางโรงแรม เมื่อเทียบกับปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้นและเวลาที่เสียไป	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
2. ข้าพเจ้าเห็นด้วยกับแนวทางการชดเชยที่ทางโรงแรมใช้แก้ไขปัญหา	+1	+1	+1	-1	0	2	0.40
3. ทางโรงแรมมีความพยายามในการชดเชยเพื่อให้ข้าพเจ้าพอใจ	+1	+1	0	+1	+1	4	0.80
4. ทางโรงแรมมีความเป็นธรรมในการชดเชยต่อปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80
5. ทางโรงแรมได้ชดเชยอย่างเพียงพอเพื่อแก้ไขปัญหที่เกิดขึ้น	+1	+1	+1	-1	0	2	0.40
ความยุติธรรมด้านกระบวนการ (Procedural Justice)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าปัญหาของข้าพเจ้าได้รับการแก้ไขด้วยวิธีที่ถูกต้อง	+1	0	+1	+1	+1	4	0.80
2. ทางโรงแรมมีนโยบายและแนวปฏิบัติที่ดีในการจัดการกับปัญหา	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ทางโรงแรมสามารถตอบสนองต่อการแก้ไขปัญหาลได้อย่างเพียงพอ	+1	+1	0	+1	0	3	0.60
4. ทางโรงแรมมีความยืดหยุ่นในแนวทางการแก้ปัญหา	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80
5. ทางโรงแรมแก้ไขปัญหาได้อย่างรวดเร็ว	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80
ความยุติธรรมเชิงโต้ตอบ (Interactional Justice)							
1. พนักงานโรงแรมแสดงความสนใจต่อปัญหาของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
2. พนักงานโรงแรมทำทุกอย่างเต็มความสามารถเพื่อแก้ไขปัญหของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	0	+1	+1	4	0.80
3. พนักงานโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาของข้าพเจ้าอย่างจริงจัง	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
4. พนักงานโรงแรมมีศักยภาพและได้รับอำนาจเพียงพอที่จะแก้ไขปัญหของข้าพเจ้า	0	+1	+1	+1	+1	4	0.80
5. พนักงานโรงแรมปฏิบัติต่อข้าพเจ้าอย่างสุภาพในขณะที่แก้ไขปัญห	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
6. พนักงานโรงแรมแสดงความสนใจที่จะแก้ไขปัญหของข้าพเจ้าอย่างยุติธรรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	4	0.80
อารมณ์ด้านบวก (Positive Emotion)							
1. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกมีความสุขหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	0	+1	+1	4	0.80
2. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกอุ่นใจหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกมีคุณค่าหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80

รายการประเมิน	ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่					รวม	ค่า IOC
	1	2	3	4	5		
ความยุติธรรมด้านกระจาย (Distributive Justice)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าเห็นด้วยกับการชดเชยที่ได้รับจากทางโรงแรม เมื่อเทียบกับปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้นและเวลาที่เสียไป	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
2. ข้าพเจ้าเห็นด้วยกับแนวทางการชดเชยที่ทางโรงแรมใช้แก้ไขปัญหา	+1	+1	+1	-1	0	2	0.40
3. ทางโรงแรมมีความพยายามในการชดเชยเพื่อให้อาจารย์พอใจ	+1	+1	0	+1	+1	4	0.80
4. ทางโรงแรมมีความเป็นธรรมในการชดเชยต่อปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80
5. ทางโรงแรมได้ชดเชยอย่างเพียงพอเพื่อแก้ไขปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น	+1	+1	+1	-1	0	2	0.40
ความยุติธรรมด้านกระบวนการ (Procedural Justice)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าปัญหาของข้าพเจ้าได้รับการแก้ไขด้วยวิธีที่ถูกต้อง	+1	0	+1	+1	+1	4	0.80
2. ทางโรงแรมมีนโยบายและแนวปฏิบัติที่ดีในการจัดการกับปัญหา	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ทางโรงแรมสามารถตอบสนองต่อการแก้ไขปัญหาได้อย่างเพียงพอ	+1	+1	0	+1	0	3	0.60
4. ทางโรงแรมมีความยืดหยุ่นในแนวทางการแก้ปัญหา	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80
5. ทางโรงแรมแก้ไขปัญหาได้อย่างรวดเร็ว	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80
ความยุติธรรมเชิงโต้ตอบ (Interactional Justice)							
1. พนักงานโรงแรมแสดงความสนใจต่อปัญหาของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
2. พนักงานโรงแรมทำทุกอย่างเต็มความสามารถเพื่อแก้ไขปัญหาของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	0	+1	+1	4	0.80
3. พนักงานโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาของข้าพเจ้าอย่างจริงจัง	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
4. พนักงานโรงแรมมีศักยภาพและได้รับอำนาจเพียงพอที่จะแก้ไขปัญหาของข้าพเจ้า	0	+1	+1	+1	+1	4	0.80
5. พนักงานโรงแรมปฏิบัติต่อข้าพเจ้าอย่างสุภาพในขณะที่แก้ไขปัญหา	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
6. พนักงานโรงแรมแสดงความสนใจที่จะแก้ไขปัญหาของข้าพเจ้าอย่างยุติธรรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	-1	4	0.80
อารมณ์ด้านบวก (Positive Emotion)							
1. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกมีความสุขหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	0	+1	+1	4	0.80
2. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกอุ่นใจหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกมีคุณค่าหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	0	4	0.80
อารมณ์ด้านลบ (Negative Emotion)							
1. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกโกรธหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
2. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกหงุดหงิดหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกผิดหวังหลังได้รับการแก้ไขปัญหาจากทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
พฤติกรรมการเงียบ (Silence behaviour)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าเงียบเพราะเห็นด้วยกับการแก้ไขปัญหาของทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	0	+1	+1	4	0.80
2. ข้าพเจ้าเงียบเพราะไม่เห็นด้วยกับการแก้ไขปัญหาของทางโรงแรม	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
ความพึงพอใจหลังได้รับการฟื้นฟูบริการที่ล้มเหลว (Post-Recovery Satisfaction)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าพอใจกับวิธีการที่ทางโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้น	+1	0	+1	+1	+1	4	0.80
2. ทางโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาได้ตรงตามความต้องการของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ทางโรงแรมจัดการกับปัญหาได้เกินความคาดหมายของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00

รายการประเมิน	ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่					รวม	ค่า IOC
	1	2	3	4	5		
การสื่อสารปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์เชิงบวก (Positive eWOM)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าจะแนะนำโรงแรมนี้ให้กับเพื่อนและญาติของข้าพเจ้า	0	0	+1	0	+1	2	0.40
2. ข้าพเจ้าจะบอกต่อผ่านทางโซเชียลมีเดียในเชิงบวกเกี่ยวกับโรงแรมนี้ให้กับเพื่อนและญาติของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ข้าพเจ้าจะสนับสนุนให้เพื่อนและญาติเลือกโรงแรมนี้สำหรับการเดินทางครั้งต่อไป	0	0	+1	0	+1	2	0.40
การสื่อสารปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์เชิงลบ (Negative eWOM)							
1. ข้าพเจ้าจะไม่แนะนำโรงแรมนี้ให้กับเพื่อนและญาติของข้าพเจ้า	0	-1	+1	0	+1	1	0.20
2. ข้าพเจ้าจะบอกต่อผ่านทางโซเชียลมีเดียในเชิงลบเกี่ยวกับโรงแรมนี้ให้กับเพื่อนและญาติของข้าพเจ้า	+1	+1	+1	+1	+1	5	1.00
3. ข้าพเจ้าจะไม่สนับสนุนให้เพื่อนและญาติเลือกโรงแรมนี้สำหรับการเดินทางครั้งต่อไป	0	-1	+1	0	+1	1	0.20
ค่า IOC รวมเฉลี่ย							0.79

สรุป ค่า IOC เฉลี่ยมีค่า **0.79 (≥ 0.5)** ถือว่ายอมรับได้

หมายเหตุ:

ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่ 1 รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร. คุณพล หุ่นโสภณ

ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่ 2 รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร. วัลลีย์ พุทโสม

ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่ 3 ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. พงษ์นรินทร์ ปิคงคุร์ส

ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่ 4 ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. ประทานพร จันทรอินทร์

ผู้เชี่ยวชาญคนที่ 5 ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. อริรัตน์ ปานศุกวัชร

พหุบัณฑิต ชีวะ



APPENDIX C
Human Research Ethics Certification



MAHASARAKHAM UNIVERSITY ETHICS COMMITTEE FOR
RESEARCH INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

Certificate of Approval

Approval number: 135-099/2024

Title : The Effects of Perceived Justice toward Service Recovery on Electronic Word of Mouth:
An empirical study of hotel industry in Thailand.

Principal Investigator : Mrs. Nongluk Hemthong

Responsible Department : Faculty of Accountancy and Management

Research site : Thailand

Review Method : Expedited Review

Date of Manufacture : 13 March 2024

expire : 12 March 2025

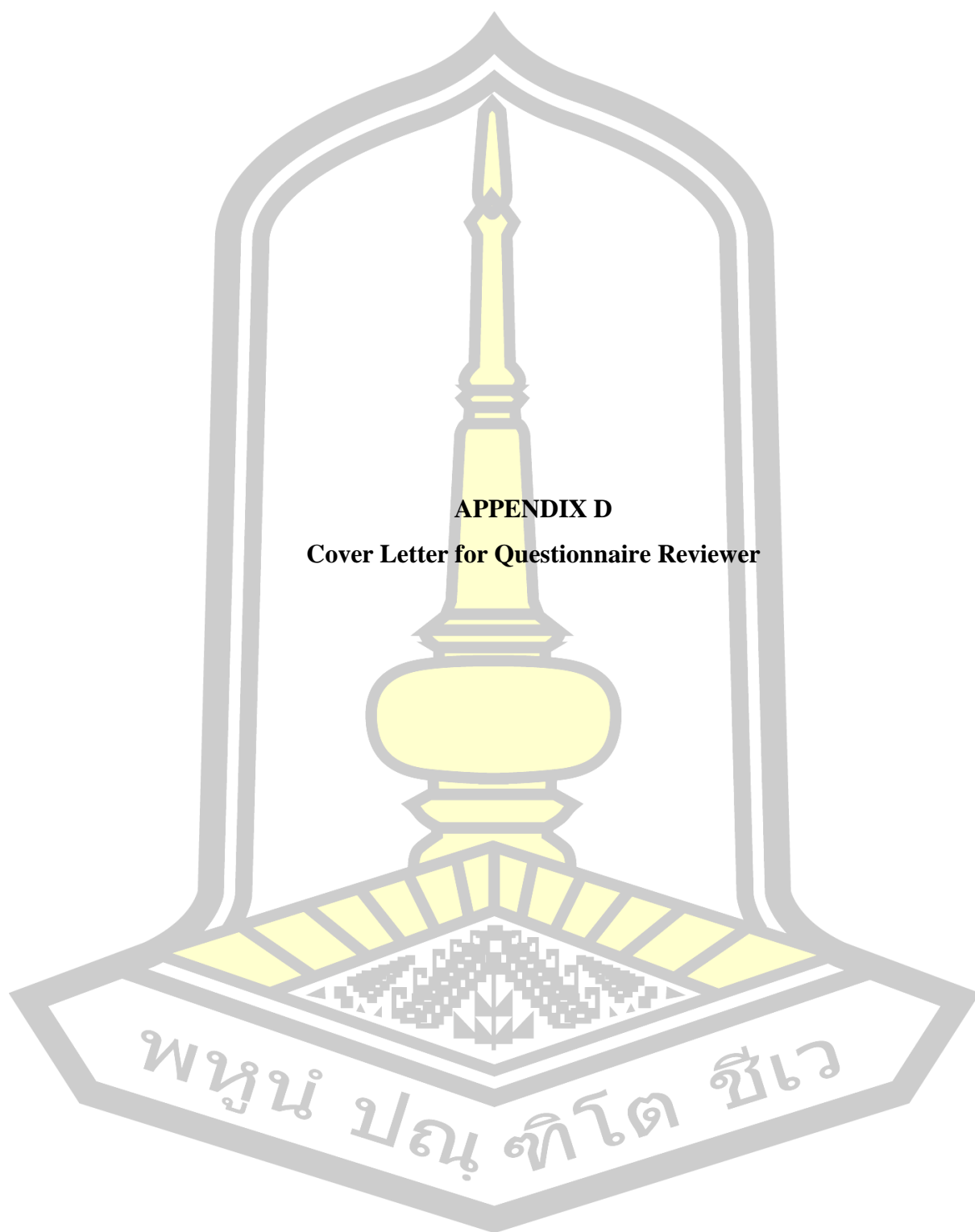
This research application has been reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects, Maharakham University, Thailand. Approval is dependent on local ethical approval having been received. Any subsequent changes to the consent form must be re-submitted to the Committee.

Ratree S.

(Asst. Prof. Ratree Sawangjit)

Chairman

Approval is granted subject to the following conditions: (see back of this Certificate)



APPENDIX D

Cover Letter for Questionnaire Reviewer



ที่ ฮว 0605.10/ 922

คณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย
จังหวัดมหาสารคาม
44150

25 ธันวาคม 2566

เรื่อง ขอเรียนเชิญเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัย

เรียน รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ตнуพล หุ่นโสภณ

ด้วย นางนงลักษณ์ เต็มทอง รหัสนิต 63010969001 นิสิตหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต (ปร.ค.) สาขาวิชาการจัดการการตลาด ระบบในเวลาราชการ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กำลังศึกษางานวิจัยวิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง "ผลกระทบของการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูการบริการต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์: การศึกษาเชิงประจักษ์โรงแรมระดับ 4 และ 5 ดาวในประเทศไทย" ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต ดังนั้น เพื่อให้การดำเนินการเป็นไปด้วยความเรียบร้อยและบรรลุตามวัตถุประสงค์ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม จึงขอความอนุเคราะห์ท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัยและข้อเสนอแนะเพื่อนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ต่อไป ตามแบบสอบถามที่แนบมาพร้อมนี้

คณะฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่า คงจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านด้วยดี และขอขอบคุณมา ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(อาจารย์ ดร.ชลธิชา ธรรมวิญญู)
คณบดีคณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

งานบริหารหลักสูตรและการจัดการเรียนการสอน
คณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
โทรศัพท์ 0-4375-4333 ต่อ 5630 โทรสาร 0-4375-4425



ที่ อว 0605.10/ 119

คณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
ตำบลขามเรียง อำเภอกันทรวิชัย
จังหวัดมหาสารคาม
44150

10 มกราคม 2567

เรื่อง ขอเรียนเชิญเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัย

เรียน รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.วิไล พุทธิโสม

ด้วย นางนงลักษณ์ เข็มทอง รหัสนิสิต 63010969001 นิสิตหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต (ปร.ศ.) สาขาวิชาการจัดการการตลาด ระบบในเวลาราชการ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กำลังศึกษางานวิจัยวิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง "ผลกระทบของการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูการบริการต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์: การศึกษาเชิงประจักษ์โรงแรมระดับ 4 และ 5 ดาวในประเทศไทย" ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต ดังนั้น เพื่อให้การดำเนินการเป็นไปด้วยความเรียบร้อยและบรรลุตามวัตถุประสงค์ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม จึงขอความอนุเคราะห์ท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัยและข้อเสนอแนะเพื่อนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ต่อไป ตามแบบสอบถามที่แนบมาพร้อมนี้

คณะฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่า คงจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านด้วยดี และขอขอบคุณมา ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(อาจารย์ ดร.ชลธิชา จิตวongwong)
คณบดีคณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

งานบริหารหลักสูตรและการจัดการเรียนการสอน
คณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
โทรศัพท์ 0-4375-4333 ต่อ 5630 โทรสาร 0-4375-4425



ที่ อว 0605.10/ 190

คณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
ตำบลนาแก อำเภอโกสุมพิสัย
จังหวัดมหาสารคาม
44150

10 มกราคม 2567

เรื่อง ขอลเรียนเชิญเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัย

เรียน ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พงษ์วินทร์ บิดจตุรัส

ด้วย นางนงลักษณ์ เข็มทอง รหัสนิสิต 63010969001 นิสิตหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต (ปร.ด.) สาขาวิชาการจัดการการตลาด ระบบในเวลาราชการ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กำลังศึกษางานวิจัยวิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง "ผลกระทบของการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูการบริการต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์: การศึกษาเชิงประจักษ์โรงแรมระดับ 4 และ 5 ดาวในประเทศไทย" ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต ดังนั้น เพื่อให้การดำเนินการเป็นไปด้วยความเรียบร้อยและบรรลุตามวัตถุประสงค์ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม จึงขอความอนุเคราะห์ท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัยและข้อเสนอแนะเพื่อนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ต่อไป ตามแบบสอบถามที่แนบมาพร้อมนี้

คณะฯ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่า คงจะได้รับความอนุเคราะห์จากท่านด้วยดี และขอขอบคุณมา ณ โอกาสนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(อาจารย์ ดร.ชลธิชา ธรรมวิญญู)
คณบดีคณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ
มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม

งานบริหารหลักสูตรและการจัดการเรียนการสอน
คณะกรรมการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม
โทรศัพท์ 0-4375-4333 ต่อ 5630 โทรสาร 0-4375-4425



บันทึกข้อความ

ส่วนราชการ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม โทรศัพท์ 043-754333 ต่อ 5630

ที่ อว 0605.10/ 122

วันที่ 10 มกราคม 2567

เรื่อง ขอเรียนเชิญเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัย

เรียน ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ประทานพร จันทร์อินทร์

ด้วย นางนงลักษณ์ เข็มทอง รหัสนิสิต 63010969001 นิสิตหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต (ปร.ด.) สาขาวิชาการจัดการการตลาด ระบบในเวลาราชการ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กำลังศึกษางานวิจัยวิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง “ผลกระทบของการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูการบริการต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์: การศึกษาเชิงประจักษ์โรงแรมระดับ 4 และ 5 ดาวในประเทศไทย” ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต ดังนั้น เพื่อให้การดำเนินการเป็นไปด้วยความเรียบร้อยและบรรลุตามวัตถุประสงค์ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม จึงขอความอนุเคราะห์ท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัยและข้อเสนอแนะเพื่อนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ต่อไป ตามแบบสอบถามที่แนบมาพร้อมนี้

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณา

(อาจารย์ ดร.ชลธิชา ธรรมวิญญู)
คณบดีคณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ



บันทึกข้อความ

ส่วนราชการ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม โทรศัพท์ 043-754333 ต่อ 5630

ที่ อว 0605.10/ 121

วันที่ 10 มกราคม 2567

เรื่อง ขอเรียนเชิญเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัย

เรียน ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.อารีรัตน์ ปานศุภวัชร

ด้วย นางนงลักษณ์ เข็มทอง รหัสนิติ 63010969001 นิสิตหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต (ปร.ด.) สาขาวิชาการจัดการการตลาด ระบบในเวลาราชการ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม กำลังศึกษางานวิจัยวิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง “ผลกระทบของการรับรู้ความยุติธรรมในการฟื้นฟูการบริการต่อการสื่อสารแบบปากต่อปากทางอิเล็กทรอนิกส์: การศึกษาเชิงประจักษ์โรงแรมระดับ 4 และ 5 ดาวในประเทศไทย” ซึ่งเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต ดังนั้น เพื่อให้การดำเนินการเป็นไปด้วยความเรียบร้อยและบรรลุตามวัตถุประสงค์ คณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ มหาวิทยาลัยมหาสารคาม จึงขอความอนุเคราะห์ท่านเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญตรวจสอบเครื่องมือวิจัยและข้อเสนอแนะเพื่อนำข้อมูลที่ได้ไปดำเนินการทำวิทยานิพนธ์ต่อไป ตามแบบสอบถามที่แนบมาพร้อมนี้

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดพิจารณา

(อาจารย์ ดร.ชลธิชา ธรรมวิญญู)
คณบดีคณะการบัญชีและการจัดการ

BIOGRAPHY

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