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The Effect of Service Recovery on Customer's Post-Behavior in the Banking Industry by Using the Theory of Perceived Justice

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ABSTRACT

This paper tested empirically the factors that affect the Post behavior in the Banking Industry by Iranian customers and we used the theory of perceived justice to examine the relationship between perceived justice, emotions, satisfaction and post-behavioral intention during service recovery. Using structural equation analysis, the proposed relationships were tested in banking industry. Survey was involving total of 385 customers of the branches of Melli bank of Iran and also confirmatory factor analysis was used to determine the measurement efficacies. The findings showed that distributive justice and procedural justice influence positive emotion positively and distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice effect negative emotion negatively, but the effect of interactional justice on positive emotion was not significant. Moreover the results indicated that positive and negative emotions have influence on customer satisfaction and also customer satisfaction has effect on trust, positive word of mouth and repurchase intention. Finally implications and suggestions for future research are discussed.

KEYWORDS: Theory of perceived justice, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, customer's post- recovery satisfaction. Customer's post-behavioral intentions.

1. INTRODUCTION

The inseparable and intangible nature of services makes it difficult for service providers to avoid service failures during service delivery. Customers experiencing a service failure may convey their dissatisfaction to others through negative word-of-mouth and a negative sentiment towards the offending service provider, adversely impacting customers, profits, and even company reputation (Bitner, Brown, & Meuter, 2000). Most customers whom encounter a service failure anticipate service recovery (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997; Goodwin & Ross, 1992; Kuo and wu, 2012). Gro¨nroos (1990) defined service recovery processes as ''those actions in which a firm engages to address a customer complaint regarding a perceived service failure.'' Via effective recovery strategies, service providers can still appease unsatisfied customers, increase the customer retention rate (McCollough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000) and even foster a long lasting relation with dissatisfied customers (Kelley, Hoffman, & Davis, 1993), ultimately making them loyal ones (Kuo and wu, 2012).

Superb post-failure recovery efforts can induce ''service recovery paradox,'' that customers experiencing a service failure perceive a higher level of post-recovery satisfaction than those who did not experience a service failure encounter at all. In fact, customer emotions triggered by service recovery encounters affect satisfaction (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Río-Lanza et al., 2009; Schoefer & Ennew, 2005). Although emotions are also considered as playing an important role in customers evaluating service failures and perceptions of service recovery experiences (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Schoefer, 2008), empirical investigations of emotional responses of customers to service recovery encounters are seldom evaluated (Río-Lanza et al., 2009).

Perceived justice usually represents a cognitive appraisal concept, whereas its effects `have been shown to be both emotional and behavioral following service recovery experiences (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Schoefer & Ennew, 2005). The integration of emotions within the perceived justice of service recovery seems a necessary step to better understand what drives customers' evaluative judgments in a recovery situation. In other hand, justice theory framework appears to gain popularity in explaining how customers evaluate service providers' reactions to service failure/recovery. Perceived justice is a multi-dimensional concept comprising three dimensions: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. The

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application of the justice framework facilitates a deepening theoretical understanding of the service provider and the customer relationship dynamics (Collie, Sparks, & Bradley, 2000). Notwithstanding the recent advances concerning the effects of perceived justice on post-recovery behavior, there is still room to learn how a service provider's recovery efforts affect subsequent customer relationships with the company (Dewitt et al., 2008).

The purpose of this study, is to assess the relative effects of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice on emotions and then how emotion affect on post-recovery satisfaction and to examine the relationships between post-recovery satisfaction and customer relationship variables: trust, WOM, and revisit intention. Satisfaction with recovery serves as the mediator between the three dimensions of perceived justice and post-recovery behavior variables

2. Theoretical background and hypotheses

2.1. perceived justice and its effect on emotions.

Service encounters between customers and suppliers can fail for many reasons such as the unavailability of the service, slowness or provision errors, among others. According to expectations disconfirmation theory, failure to comply with promises or meet customer expectations damages customer satisfaction (Sánchez-García and Currás-Pérez, 2011). Several theories exist regarding the formation of satisfaction perceptions, but justice theory, affect cognitive appraisal theory seem particularly relevant in a service recovery context because consumers generally perceive some inequity in response to service failures (Río-Lanza et al., 2009). Thus, Konovsky (2000) argues that the concept of perceived justice is critical for studying a person's reactions in a conflict situation. Service failure is a typical example of a conflict situation, so perceived justice is relevant for explaining consumers' behavior in response to service recovery (Blodgett et al., 1997). Although some studies do not distinguish between the different dimensions of perceived justice or do not analyze all three components (Oliver and Swan, 1989), other researchers (Smith et al., 1999; Río-Lanza et al., 2009) recommend including all components of perceived justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) in research on service recovery.

2.1.1. Distributive justice

Smith et al. (1999) defined DJ as ‘‘the allocation of costs and benefits in achieving equitable exchange relationships.’’ Distributive justice has generally dealt with the outcomes given to the customers during service recovery, which include such monetary rewards as refunds for failed service, discounts, coupons, and free-of-charge (Mattila, 2001). Distributive justice in service recovery has been measured by the ‘‘justice,’’ ‘‘fairness,’’ ‘‘need,’’ ‘‘value,’’ and ‘‘reward’’ of outcomes (Blodgett et al., 1997; Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Smith et al., 1999; Wirtz & Mattila, 2004; kim et al., 2009).

2.1.2. Procedural justice

Procedural justice defined as customer perceptions of the recovery process, procedural justice focuses on the flexibility and efficiency of the recovery policies or rules (Kuo and wu, 2012).. Failed customers can perceive procedural justice of a recovery action when the offending company admits the failure, attempts to rectify the mistake timely, and adjusts its recovery strategy in line with customer demands. Procedural justice can generally be evaluated as to whether customers can freely express their opinions, recovery efficiency of the offending company, dominance over the outcome, easiness of making complaints, flexibility, instantaneity, transparency of the recovery process, and appropriateness of the recovery action or policy (Blodgett et al., 1997; Tax et al., 1998; Smith et al., 1999; Maxham III & Netemeyer, 2003; Wirtz & Mattila, 2004; Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Kuo and wu, 2012).

2.1.3. Interactional justice

This component of justice includes customers' perceptions about employees' empathy, courtesy, sensitivity, treatment and the effort they expend to solve the problem (Río-Lanza et al., 2009). Tax et al. (1998) conceptualized Interactional justice as ‘‘the perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment that people receive during the enactment of procedures.’’ The specific methods suggested for Interactional justice in service recovery are ‘‘courtesy,’’ ‘‘respect,’’ ‘‘interest,’’ ‘‘careful listening,’’ ‘‘effort,’’ ‘‘trust,’’ ‘‘explanation,’’ ‘‘empathy,’’ ‘‘apology,’ and ‘‘communication’’ (Blodgett et al., 1997; Mattila, 2001; Smith et al., 1999; Wirtz & Mattila, 2004, kim et al., 2009).

Emotion has been described as "a mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts and may result in specific actions to affirm or cope with the emotion, depending on its nature and meaning for the person having it" (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Dewitt et al., 2008). Studies (Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997; Watson et al., 1988) show that emotions consist of two dominant dimensions including positive and negative. Positive emotion is related to contentment, happiness, love, and pride, whereas negative emotion is related to anger, fear, sadness, and shame (Kuo and wu, 2012). Positive and negative emotions are independent across a range of time frames (Watson et al., 1988) and have distinct and asymmetrical effects on behavior (Cacioppo et al., 1997). Customers tend to become intensely emotional during service recovery, emotional responses that will largely determine their future relation with the service provider (Smith & Bolton, 2002). Emotions are increasingly viewed as essential in researching how customers evaluate service failure and recovery (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Schoefer, 2008; Weiss et al., 1999). Customers often experience emotions when perceiving the justice of a service recovery strategy (Schoefer, 2008). Many researchers (e.g., Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Río-Lanza et al., 2009; Schoefer, 2008; Schoefer & Ennew, 2005; Weiss et al., 1999) studied post-recovery customer emotions under the framework of perceived justice. Their findings suggest that low perceived justice leads to highly negative emotions (anger, fury, and unhappiness) and low positive emotions (happiness, pleasure, and joy) (Schoefer & Ennew, 2005; Kuo and wu, 2012). Customers may display furious emotions if they are displeased with the recovery outcome or perceive injustice of the recovery process (Weiss et al., 1999). Increasing the level of distributive justice raises pleasant emotions, while decreasing that of distributive justice makes customers angry and disappointed (Kuo and wu, 2012). Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005) also found a similar phenomenon in service recovery measures adopted in the banking industry. Increasing distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice can reduce negative emotions in customer, while increasing distributive justice and interactional justice can heighten positive emotions in customers. Additionally, a higher procedural justice that customers perceive implies greater positive emotions (Schoefer, 2008) and lower negative ones (del Río-Lanza et al., 2009). So Hypothesis 2 is proposed as follows:

H2a. Perceived distributive justice positively influences positive emotions in online shopping websites.
H2b. Perceived distributive justice negatively influences negative emotions in online shopping websites.
H2c. Perceived procedural justice positively influences positive emotions in online shopping websites.
H2d. Perceived procedural justice negatively influences negative emotions in online shopping websites.
H2e. Perceived interactional justice positively influences positive emotions in online shopping websites.
H2f. Perceived interactional justice negatively influences negative emotions in online shopping websites.

2.2. Emotions and effect on post-recovery satisfaction.

As mentioned Emotion refer to affective states of an individual that are specific to certain events or one's own thoughts (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Satisfaction models assume that satisfaction is mainly the result of a cognitive process (Oliver, 1980). More recent research maintains that affective processes also contribute significantly to explaining customer satisfaction (Dewitt et al., 2008). In this regard, Tax et al., (1998) consider that satisfaction is the global level of customer enjoyment and pleasure/happiness as a result of experience with the product or service. Therefore service failures not only lead to customer dissatisfaction as a result of the comparison between expectations and results but also trigger affective processes.

According to Weiss et al. (1999), studies of perceived justice assume that emotions play a key role in transferring perceptions of justice/injustice to subsequent attitudes and behaviors. But researchers in the service recovery context barely examine this question, perhaps because, as mentioned earlier, evidence of the effects of justice on emotions is only recent. The most notable study on this question is by Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005), who find that emotions triggered by service recovery mediate the effects of the three justice dimensions on loyalty. Schoefer and Ennew (2005) and Río-Lanza et al., 2009 combining justice theory and cognitive appraisal theory, also suggest that perceived justice has both a direct and indirect effect (via emotions) on consumers' satisfaction. In other words, they consider that emotions triggered by service recovery mediate the relation between perceived justice and satisfaction. However, they do not empirically analyze this possible mediating role of emotions, since their research centers on analyzing the link between the dimensions of perceived justice and emotional responses. Thus,

H7: positive emotion positively influences post-recovery satisfaction.
H7: Negative emotions negatively influence post-recovery satisfaction.

2.3. Post-recovery satisfaction and customer post-behavior

In this research, customer post-recovery satisfaction means a positive status of emotion perceived by customers in the process and result of recovering the failed service (Kim et al., 2009). Davidow (2000) defines satisfaction with complaint handling as ‘‘the customer’s overall affective feeling about the firm as a result of the firm’s complaint handling.’’ To develop an exchange partner’s trust in a business relationship, a service provider must consistently meet the expectations of competent performance (Ok et al., 2005). Service failure arises when service delivery performance does not meet a customer’s expectations (Kelley & Davis, 1994). Also a service failure may result in a breakdown in reliability. In fact trust builds when the customer has confidence in a service provider’s reliability and integrity (Kim et al, 2009). Trust is a requisite in service marketing for maintaining the relationship between customers and service providers, because customers often have to make a purchase decision before they actually experience the service. As satisfaction arises from meeting or exceeding the expectations of the customer, satisfaction over time strengthens the reliability of the service provider and cultivates trust (Tax et al., 1998). Previous research confirms that satisfaction with service recovery serves as a predictor of trust (Tax et al., 1998; Ok et al., 2005; kim et al., 2009). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H9. Post-Recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on trust.

The importance of handling service failures effectively has been demonstrated in many studies. Gilly (1987) observed that if customers are satisfied with the handling of their complaints, dissatisfaction can be reduced and the probability of repurchase can be increased. Furthermore, effective complaint handling can have a dramatic impact on customer retention rate, deflect the spread of negative word of mouth, and improve profitability (Tax et al., 1998; Ok et al., 2005). Similarly, effective service recovery efforts can turn an unfavorable service experience into a favorable one, thus enhancing repurchase and positive word-of-mouth intention (Blodgett et al., 1997; Spreng et al., 1995). Customers who experienced favorable service recovery demonstrated a strong propensity to share positive information about their experience (Blodgett et al., 1997; kim et al., 2009). In addition Maxham III and Netemeyer (2002) showed that recovery satisfaction has a significantly positive effect on spreading positive word-of-mouth. Furthermore, kim et al (2009) and Kuo and wu (2012) claimed that recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on a customer’s revisit intention. If recovery from service failure is effective, the customer satisfaction increases and revisit intention will rise. However, if recovery from service failure is not executed fairly, recovery satisfaction will decrease, and ultimately word-of-mouth referral and revisit intention will also decrease. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H 10. Post-recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on word-of-mouth.

H 11. Post-Recovery satisfaction has a positive effect on revisit intention.

Finally the conceptual model which proposed in the present study is displayed in Fig1.

3.1. Measures for study variables

Based on previous researches such kim et al (2009), Río-Lanza et al (2009) and Kuo and wu (2012) the survey instrument was developed. A multi-item measure using a 5-point Likert type scale and the questionnaire was comprised of 9 variables. Specifically, three items were used for distributive justice were measured by Dewitt et al (2008) scale. In addition three items were employed for procedural justice and also three items for interactional justice measured via Dewitt et al (2008) scale. Three items were used for positive emotions and also three items were utilized for negative emotions via adapted version of scales created by Schoefer & Ennew (2005). Moreover three items were measured posr-recovery satisfaction utilized kim et al (2009). Four items were employed for trust which was defined by Morgan and Hunt (1994). Furthermore three items were used for positive word of mouth which was measured via Maxham and Netemeyer (2002) scale. Finally three items were established for repurchase intention which used by kim et al (2009) and Kuo and wu (2012). Hence the questionnaire included 28 items to measure the eleven hypotheses on a likert scale and ranged from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (5). The pre-test, which measured reliability, asked 35 consumers to answer questionnaires who experienced service failure and recovery. SPSS data analysis indicated that the Cronbach’s alpha of the questionnaires was adequate and result of content validity and face validity shown research instrument was suitable.

3.2. Data collection and sample profile

The data for this study was collected by questionnaire. Questionnaires distributed in Melli bank of Iran in Tehran. A screening question was asked to see if respondents encountered any service failure at the

branches of this bank during the past six months. The questionnaire was adapted from original English questionnaire items and then translated into Persian. Two research faculties, who were educated in the Canada and a native Persian were involved in the back-translation process. Customers were asked to fill out a survey questionnaire on a voluntary basis. Total of 405 questionnaires were collected and 385 were used for analysis.

4. RESULTS

To test the model developed we used the Structural equations model (SEM) approach. Structural model analysis LISREL was used to create the covariance-based structural equation model. Structural equations express relationships among several variables that can be either directly observed variables (manifest variables) or unobserved hypothetical variables (latent variables). LISREL also provides a number of model fit indices.

4.1. Measurement Model

Convergent validity is the degree to which multiple items to measure the same concept are in agreement. As suggested by Hair et al. (2010) we used the factor loadings, composite reliability and average variance extracted to assess convergence validity. The recommended values for loadings are set at > 0.5, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be > 0.5 and the composite reliability (CR) should be > 0.7. From table 2 it can be seen that the results of the measurement model exceeded the recommended values thus indicating sufficient convergence validity.

4.2. Convergent validity

After confirming the convergent validity, we proceeded to assess the discriminant validity using the Fornell and Larcker (1981) method. Discriminant validity is the degree to which items differentiate among constructs or measure distinct concepts. The criterion used to assess this is by comparing the AVE with the squared correlations or the square root of the AVE with correlations. As shown in Table 3, we have used the second method which is to compare the square root of the AVE with the correlations. The criteria is that if the square root of the AVE, shown in the diagonals are greater than the values in the row and columns on that particular construct than we can conclude that the measures discriminant. From table 4, it can be seen that the values in the diagonals are greater than the values in their respective row and column thus indicating the measures used in this study are distinct. Thus the results presented in Tables 2 and 3 demonstrate adequate discriminant and convergent validity.

4.3. Goodness of fit statistics

LISREL provides a number of model fit indices. The incremental fit index (IFI) which tests the improvement of the model over a baseline model (usually a model of independence or uncorrelated variables), relative fit index (RFI) which compares a chi-square for the model tested to one from a baseline model, variations of RFI (which are not explicitly designed to be provide penalties for less parsimonious models) such as the normed fit index (NFI) and non-normed fit index (NNFI or TLI), and no centrality-based indices whereby the no centrality parameter is calculated by subtracting the degrees of freedom in the model from the chi-square ($\chi 2/df$) such as the comparative fit index (CFI), and root-mean-square error of approximation index (RMSEA). Values greater than 0.90 are desirable for IFI, RFI, CFI, NFI and NNFI while values less than 0.09 for RMSEA are acceptable. The result of model indices support a good overall model fit (Chi-Square=508.74, DF=336, $\chi 2/df$ =1.514, RMSEA=0.037, GFI=0.91, AGFI=0.90, CFI=0.98, NFI=0.95, NNFI=0.9 and, RFI=0.95).

4.4. Structural Model

As shown in Table 3. To evaluate the structural models' predictive power, we calculated the R2, R2 indicates the amount of variance explained by the exogenous variables (Barclay et al.1995). Using a T-value technique with a sampling of 385, the path estimates and t-statistics were calculated for the hypothesized relationships. One hypothesis was not supported in the testing (the effect of Perceived Interactional Justice on Positive emotion): As shown in Table 4 and fig 2, the path coefficients ant result of hypotheses.

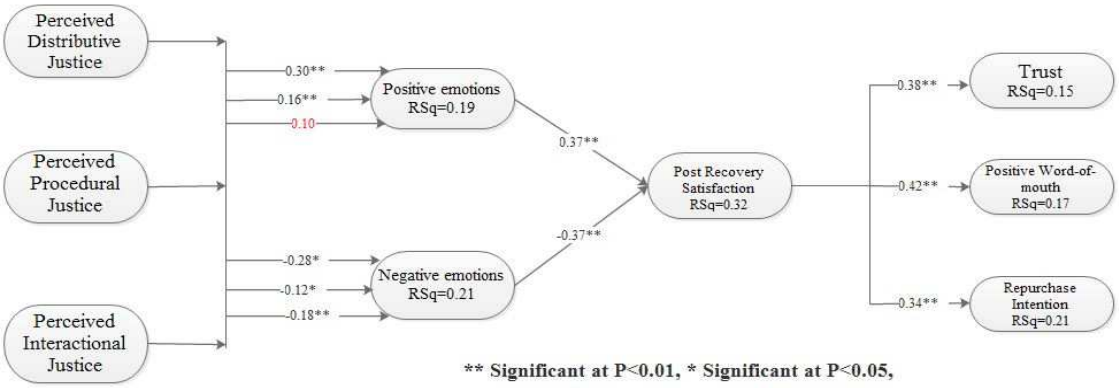

Figure 2. The LISREL Algorithm Results

Table 1: Discriminant validity and descriptive statistics

Construct	AVE	Composite Reliability	Cronbachs Alpha	Mean	SD
Perceived Distributive Justice	0.807	0.926	0.880	3.223	1.008
Perceived Procedural Justice	0.801	0.924	0.877	3.169	0.981
Perceived Interactional Justice	0.812	0.928	0.884	3.448	0.956
Negative emotions	0.802	0.924	0.877	3.269	0.97
positive emotions	0.816	0.930	0.887	2.575	0.944
Post Recovery Satisfaction	0.753	0.924	0.890	3.399	0.897
trust	0.750	0.923	0.889	3.523	0.868
positive Word-of-mouth	0.813	0.929	0.885	2.898	1.017
Repurchase Intention	0.799	0.923	0.875	3.304	0.931

Table 2: Convergent Validity (Reliability and inter-construct correlations for reflective scales)

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1-Perceived Distributive Justice	0.898								
2-Perceived Procedural Justice	0.297	0.895							
3-Perceived Interactional Justice	0.416	0.275	0.901						
4-Negative emotions	-0.347	-0.229	-0.300	0.896					
5-positive emotions	0.338	0.249	0.246	-0.249	0.903				
6-Post Recovery Satisfaction	0.360	0.310	0.330	-0.360	0.354	0.868			
7-trust	0.386	0.258	0.328	-0.245	0.297	0.307	0.866		
8-positive Word-of-mouth	0.269	0.204	0.295	-0.315	0.317	0.335	0.230	0.901	
9-Repurchase Intention	0.323	0.272	0.354	-0.286	0.233	0.254	0.214	0.284	0.894

Note: Diagonals represent the square root of the AVE while the off-diagonals represent the correlations

Table 3: Cross loading

construct	Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Perceived Distributive Justice	x1.1	0.898	0.287	0.385	0.298	-0.329	0.341	0.355	0.236	0.318
	x1.2	0.906	0.246	0.384	0.320	-0.306	0.358	0.367	0.237	0.305
	x1.3	0.892	0.268	0.352	0.290	-0.300	0.289	0.318	0.254	0.245
Perceived Procedural Justice	x2.1	0.269	0.890	0.236	0.246	-0.191	0.252	0.239	0.152	0.215
	x2.2	0.271	0.901	0.233	0.227	-0.237	0.322	0.229	0.226	0.261
	x2.3	0.257	0.894	0.276	0.191	-0.184	0.251	0.226	0.165	0.257
Perceived Interactional Justice	x3.1	0.361	0.219	0.905	0.230	-0.239	0.266	0.285	0.278	0.301
	x3.2	0.395	0.260	0.896	0.222	-0.286	0.293	0.290	0.206	0.325
	x3.3	0.368	0.263	0.902	0.213	-0.285	0.309	0.311	0.315	0.328
Negative emotions	m1.1	0.335	0.267	0.262	0.912	-0.255	0.319	0.280	0.309	0.219
	m1.2	0.275	0.196	0.189	0.904	-0.215	0.335	0.272	0.274	0.213
	m1.3	0.301	0.207	0.210	0.894	-0.203	0.310	0.253	0.275	0.199
positive emotions	m2.1	-0.284	-0.196	-0.258	-0.195	0.901	-0.312	-0.170	-0.273	-0.203
	m2.2	-0.328	-0.176	-0.270	-0.221	0.896	-0.337	-0.223	-0.331	-0.283
	m2.3	-0.318	-0.245	-0.279	-0.252	0.889	-0.317	-0.263	-0.243	-0.277
Post Recovery Satisfaction	m3.1	0.360	0.263	0.250	0.277	-0.333	0.850	0.236	0.245	0.267
	m3.3	0.290	0.267	0.282	0.301	-0.295	0.874	0.274	0.296	0.187
	m3.4	0.316	0.283	0.311	0.352	-0.317	0.900	0.277	0.295	0.237
Trust	y1.1	0.365	0.230	0.297	0.240	-0.211	0.271	0.876	0.197	0.204
	y1.2	0.325	0.205	0.295	0.238	-0.223	0.256	0.855	0.199	0.125
	y1.3	0.328	0.258	0.289	0.260	-0.224	0.265	0.877	0.206	0.228
	y1.4	0.319	0.200	0.254	0.295	-0.193	0.248	0.856	0.197	0.185
positive Word-of-mouth	y2.1	0.235	0.170	0.275	0.240	-0.271	0.249	0.196	0.880	0.249
	y2.2	0.209	0.147	0.235	0.257	-0.264	0.267	0.191	0.901	0.254
	y2.3	0.276	0.225	0.285	0.345	-0.312	0.334	0.232	0.923	0.264
Repurchase Intention	y3.1	0.266	0.254	0.322	0.139	-0.232	0.194	0.204	0.212	0.860
	y3.2	0.318	0.252	0.292	0.197	-0.258	0.232	0.179	0.250	0.908
	y3.3	0.283	0.231	0.335	0.270	-0.272	0.270	0.196	0.289	0.913

Table 4: Hypothesis Testing

Effects	Dependent variable	Predictor variable	Path coefficient	t-value	R^2	Result	Sign
Direct effects	Positive emotions	Perceived Distributive Justice	0.30	4.55	0.19	Supported	+
		Perceived Procedural Justice	0.16	2.65		Supported	+
		Perceived Interactional Justice	0.10	1.63		NS	NS
	Negative emotions	Perceived Distributive Justice	-0.28	-4.36	0.21	Supported	-
		Perceived Procedural Justice	-0.12	-1.98		Supported	-
		Perceived Interactional Justice	-0.18	-2.83		Supported	-
	Post Recovery Satisfaction	Positive emotions	0.37	6.63	0.32	Supported	+
		Negative emotions	-0.37	-6.51		Supported	-
	Trust	Post Recovery Satisfaction	0.38	6.49	0.15	Supported	+
	Positive Word-of-mouth	Post Recovery Satisfaction	0.42	6.96	0.17	Supported	+
	Repurchase Intention	Post Recovery Satisfaction	0.34	5.74	0.12	Supported	+
Indirect effects	Post Recovery Satisfaction	Perceived Distributive Justice	0.21	5.36	0.11	Supported	+
		Perceived Procedural Justice	0.10	3.10		Supported	+
		Perceived Interactional Justice	0.10	2.98		Supported	+
	Trust	Perceived Distributive Justice	0.082	4.33	0.016	Supported	+
		Perceived Procedural Justice	0.038	2.86		Supported	+
		Perceived Interactional Justice	0.04	2.76		Supported	+
	Positive Word-of-mouth	Perceived Distributive Justice	0.088	4.46	0.018	Supported	+
		Perceived Procedural Justice	0.041	2.90		Supported	+
		Perceived Interactional Justice	0.043	2.79		Supported	+
	Repurchase Intention	Perceived Distributive Justice	0.073	4.08	0.013	Supported	+
		Perceived Procedural Justice	0.034	2.79		Supported	+
		Perceived Interactional Justice	0.036	2.69		Supported	+

$|t|>1.96$ Significant at $P<0.05$, $|t|>2.58$ Significant at $P<0.01$

5. DISCUSSION

The model proposed in this study estimates the relationship between perceived justice dimensions, positive and negative emotions, post-recovery satisfaction and post-behavioral intention in the bank industry. Previous studies typically find evidence that perceived justice in the SR acts as a direct cognitive antecedent to customer satisfaction (Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002; Patterson et al., 2006). More recent research shows that perceived justice elicits emotional responses from customers (Chebat and Slusarczyk, 2005; Schoefer and Ennew, 2005; Río-Lanza et al., 2009; Ku Kuo and wu, 2012). The current work emphasized Results of previous studies and providing evidence that perceived justice affects consumer post-recovery satisfaction and post-behavioral intention via emotions.

First our results demonstrate that consumers who experienced fair service recovery will raise positive emotions and decrease negative ones. In other hand if they perceive distributive justice and procedural justice in a service recovery action, positive emotions will increase and their negative emotions will decrease. However, perceived interactional justice has no significant effect on positive emotions and only effects negative emotions significantly. It means if consumers perceived high level of interactional justice during service recovery, their negative emotions will decrease.

Second findings show that the perceived distributive justice has a stronger positive effect than procedural and interactional justice on positive emotions (β= .0.30) and also has a stronger negative effect than procedural and interactional justice on negative emotions (β= -0.28). Also The results indicate that in the bank industry distributive justice perceptions elicit emotional responses from customers as well as satisfaction judgments. In fact perceived distributive justice has the strongest indirect effect on post-recovery satisfaction (β= .0.21).

This result is consistent with cognitive appraisal theory, which explains human emotions as a result of the subjective evaluation of events that occur in the environment. According to this, perceived distributive justice appears to represent a cognitive appraisal dimension that helps to explain the emotions triggered by service recovery. In other hand, discounts or coupons offered by bank service providers can significantly affect the positive and negative emotions, post recovery satisfactions and ultimately post-behavioral intentions in service recovery context and has a stronger affect on customer's post-behavioral intention than a timely reaction of offenders or willing of offending service providers to communicate with customers courteously, honestly, and empathetically while attempting to solve a problem and communicate with them.

Additionally, according to R2 results, 19.0% variance of positive emotion can be explained by perceived distributive justice, perceived procedural justice and perceived interactional justice; 21.0% variance of negative emotion can be explained by perceived distributive justice, perceived procedural justice, and perceived interactional justice; 32.0% variance of post-recovery satisfaction can be explained by positive and negative emotion and 11.0% variance of post-recovery satisfaction can be explained by perceived distributive justice, perceived procedural justice and perceived interactional justice; 15.0% variance of trust can be explained by of post-recovery satisfaction; 15.0% variance of word-of-mouth can be explained by of post-recovery satisfaction and finally 12.0% variance of repurchase intention can be explained by of post-recovery satisfaction.

5.1. Managerial implications

The findings of this study reveal that distributive justice among the three components of justice has the strongest affects on post-behavioral intentions. Additionally, distributive justice influences positive emotions and negative ones as well as post-recovery satisfaction the most. Therefore, distributive justice can be viewed as the most important component of perceived justice for bank customers. The ability of service providers to more heavily emphasize distributive justice in service recovery, e.g., by offering discounts, refunds or change for alternative services at a higher grade, to avoid increase of costs for customers, would allow them not only to evoke the positive emotions of customers but also enhance their satisfaction and post-behavioral intentions.

In order to enhance the procedural justice, a training program should focus on instilling the proper procedures and the correct policies by reacting to customer problems quickly and handling customers complaints in a timely manner.

In addition, employees should have a clear explanation of the problem, sincerity, apologetic attitude, communication, politeness, respect, detailed attention to problems, willingness to hear complaints, and resolve to solving the problem to reduce the negative emotions in customers.

Additionally, both positive and negative emotions significantly affect post-recovery satisfaction, indicating that positive emotions increase post-recovery satisfaction and negative emotions lower post-recovery satisfaction. That is, customer satisfaction may be reduced if their negative emotions are evoked during service recovery. Service providers should thus observe customers' emotional responses, e.g., tones or phrasing, and adopt necessary corrective measures to appease their anger in the handling of a service failure. Inducing more positive emotions and mitigating negative emotions in offended customers would allow them to enhance customer satisfaction and positive post-purchase intentions.

6. Limitations and future research

As expected in all research, this study faced from some limitations and consequently, prepares opportunities for future studies. First, Present study tested effect of factors explaining behavioral intentions, so combine other critical variables such as perceived control into the proposed model is suggested to make the better analysis of customer post-behavioral intentions after service recovery. Second the random sampling method was employed to gather the research data so the extension of the results is limited. To make certain external validity, a more comprehensive sample in a wider range of banks is needed in future research. Furthermore to deepen understanding of the relationship between constructs of justice theory and consumer post-recovery intentions, other factors such as demographic information, customer nationality, and different sector banks such as public sector banking and private sector banking could also be used in future research models. Finally, this present study implement in banking industry, so researches can test the model in other industries. In order to study these effects, replicating the present study in another research context or a large scale cross-industrial study is necessary.

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