RECOVERY BEHAVIOURS IN EDUCATION: THE ROLE OF INNOVATIVENESS AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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Abstract
This paper offers an integrated approach to explore the roles of individual innovativeness and emotional intelligence in affecting service recovery in educational setting. Data were collected from 205 academicians working in different universities in Turkey by a self-administered questionnaire. Using a structural model of higher order influences the analyses supported a model in which the perceptions of emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness of academicians positively influenced their service recovery behaviours. The results were interpreted and suggestions were discussed for further studies. The study is the first research in the Turkey educational context that considers the service recovery behaviours of academicians and associates multifaceted concepts of emotional intelligence, individual innovativeness with service recovery behaviours.

Keywords: innovativeness; emotional intelligence; service recovery; educational psychology

Introduction

Services can failure due to the many different factors. There are many researches that explore the factors affecting the service failure. The service recovery is the paradoxical concept because service failures can be
advantages for the businesses by representing chances to provide higher customer satisfaction than the pre-failure satisfaction (McCollough & Bharadwaj, 1992). The importance of service recovery can vary depending on situational or individual factors. Many studies tried to explore these factors in different service sectors such as restaurants, banks, airlines, libraries, hotels and public sector service organizations (Bharadwaj & Rani, 2014; Mattila, 2001; Schweikhart, Strasser, & Kennedy, 1993).

The higher education sector is also considered as a service sector (Desai, Damewood, & Jones, 2001). Desai, Damewood, and Jones (2001) demonstrate that, in the world of higher education, students are consumers who have needs or wants. Furthermore, academicians are the higher education sector’s employees and there is an intense exchange of value between academicians and students. From this aspect higher education is similar with the service suppliers and there is a need to examine service failures, recoveries and their predictors with broad perspectives. There are many personal, situational and environmental dynamics that might affect service recovery behaviours. Emotional intelligence is one of the personal factors that may promote recovery behaviours of service providers (Lee, Kim, & Jeon, 2012). The extent of emotional intelligence renders the degree of empathy, understanding and arrangement of emotions which in turn contribute recovery behaviours when service was failed. Moreover, the methods in recovery behaviours are also important factor in supporting the positive perception of customers. The extent to which service provider is innovative in recovery actions, positive outcomes of failures would be seen more.

As service failures may occur in several ways, the recovery behaviours may also vary. The service providers’ degree of readiness to change would encourage them in responses to failures. The more individually innovative person could be active in recovery process with more innovative and unexpected ways. Therefore, the principal aim in this study is to investigate the impacts of emotional intelligence and individual innovations as individual factors on service recovery behaviours of academicians empirically. Exploring variables that predict service recovery behaviours of academicians will contribute guidance for higher education administrators seeking to improve quality of education and take action to response to service failures. Moreover, an examination of these relationships can help academicians to better understand what kinds of traits that they should gain in order to perform service
recovery behaviours successfully and then gain the opportunities of getting higher students satisfaction.

Service recovery

In the service context, recovery is defined as the reactions that service providers’ show after a failure in order to overcome the dissatisfaction or reduce the loss of the consumer (Johnston & Hewa, 1997). According to the ‘service recovery paradox’, businesses can turn the failure situation into an opportunity in order to increase customers’ satisfaction by a successful management (Spreng, Harrell, & Mackoy, 1995). The positive word-of-mouth, customer loyalty, repurchases intentions and positive customers’ perceptions on service quality are considered as positive consequences of service recovery on customer satisfaction. On contrary, negative outcomes of service failures can be seen as consumer dissatisfaction and switching behaviours (Daskin & Kasim, 2016; DeWitt, Nguyen, & Marshall, 2008; Kau and Wan-Yiun Loh, 2006).

Service recovery is an important aspect that customers take these actions into considerations when they are assessing the service provider performance. Effective service recovery strategies consist two types of performance that are called adaptive and proactive. ‘Adaptive performance’ can be defined as the point of views and opinions such as novel ideas, adoption to the technological inventions or capability of conducting with complicated problems, where ‘proactive performance’ can be described as the behavioural efforts such as shifting the circumstances of the employee towards more satisfactory situations. Thereby, in the service context proactive performance of an employee is crucial (de Jong & de Ruyter, 2004).

Although it is nearly impossible to have an error free academic service, in higher education sector magnitude of service recovery paradox has not been identified sufficiently (Swanson & Davis, 2000). For instance, lecturers being late or not existence in the office-hours, unclear questions in an exam or incorrect grading are considered as the service failure examples that may occur in the education services (Hill, 1995; Iyer & Muncy, 2008; Lagrosen, Seyyed-Hashemi, & Leitner, 2004). Service failures can be either an opportunity or threat for the quality of educational experiments in the educational system. The failures which are noticed and recovered can be turned as opportunity for service providers and in turn be concluded as students’ satisfaction and commitment. While service failures are negative contributors on students’
evaluation, recovering these failures unexpectedly affect their perception towards services and service providers positively. The higher satisfaction and commitment of students will result long-term sustainability and success of universities. On the other hand, as a result of dissatisfaction, student may response by complaining, decreased motivation, negative word-of-mouth and not applying to be a student of these universities. At that point investigation and examination of seriousness and diversity of positive and negative contributors of service recovery behaviours in higher education sector become critical.

Many studies emphasis the effects of culture, perception of justice or leadership in organizations as employees’ antecedents on service recovery behaviour (Brown, Cowles, & Tuten, 1996; Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Ha & Jang, 2009; Lorenzoni & Lewis, 2004). More individually, the emotional intelligence is one of the serious individual factors in discussing recovery behaviours (Lee, Kim, & Jeon, 2012). Brown and Brooks (2002) emphasized that being capable to understand not only our own emotions but also those of other people is important in many aspects such as organizational life, goal focus, effectiveness, innovativeness and team performance. In service industry and recovery contexts, emotional intelligence is always considered as an important contributor to cope with service failure, increase customer satisfaction and perception of desired service outcomes. However, empirical researches in higher education context concerning this relationship are scarce. Therefore, this study attempts to shed light on how academicians’ emotional intelligence predicts their recovery encounters.

Emotional intelligence

The literature contains many different definitions of emotional intelligence. It is first specified as the emotional part of social intelligence which has been indicated by Gardner (1983). Later, Salovey and Mayer, (1990) defined as the ability on understanding, evaluating, expressing and the regulating of one’s own and others’ emotions. Emotions might be expressed verbally or non-verbally but sometimes they might not be consistent with each other (Goleman, 1998). Even if emotional skills are hard to measure, many significant advances are made and measurement tools are developed. Studies that have been done previously pointed out that emotionally intelligent person quickly evaluates and handles emotions and responds to others.
Emotional intelligence generally has four dimensions which are being aware of your feelings, regulating them and sensing others feelings and regulating them (Wong & Low, 2002). The first dimension is the competence of evaluating and communicating one’s own feelings. Second one is the competence of comprehending other’s feelings and evaluating them. People who are talented in this dimension may successfully read minds of other people. Third dimension is the organization of one’s own feelings, which allows much more easily satisfies the post recovery emotions. Besides the last one is the utilization of feelings for creating actions and performance.

Many empirical results confirmed the facilitator role of emotional intelligence on service recovery performance. Lin (2009) revealed that employees of financial businesses has better service recovery performance when they have higher degree of emotional intelligence. Lee, Kim, and Jeon (2012) also confirmed the positive impacts of emotional intelligence in their study conducted on airline employees. Based on the findings of these studies and since academicians interacting frequently with students are typical of service employees, hypothesis was formulated as below;

\[ H_1: \text{Emotional intelligence is positively related to service recovery behaviours.} \]

**Individual innovativeness**

Innovation is the perception of newness of an idea, practice or object whereas innovativeness is person’s acceptance of innovations previously than other individuals within social system (Rogers 1983). People give dissimilar responses toward newness and their degree of readiness is distinct among each other. In other words, innovativeness is an individual characteristic, which indicates individuals’ manners toward improvements and is about the desirability and diffusion of innovation (Albers-Miller, Straughan, & Prenshaw, 2001; Yi, Fiedler, & Park, 2006). Although there are several factors that affect person’s innovation acceptance, individual innovativeness is one of the main and important concepts in diffusion and adoption of innovation (Rogers, 1983).

Individual innovativeness is not only critical in adjusting the environmental circumstances and benefit from the opportunities (Shalley, Zhou, & Oldham, 2004) but is also substantial for a balance of individuals’ life and socio-cultural values. In this context although innovation is used in the sense of the new methods and approaches, it is all about the individuals’ traits
in social life. Several studies have examined the association between the underlying disposition of personality traits and innovativeness (Åmo & Kolvereid, 2005). Steenkamp, Hofstede, and Wedel (1999) revealed that innovativeness has favourable relation with independence, risk taking, tolerance of ambiguity and some personality traits such as being extravert or impulsive.

In previous researches innovativeness was generally considered as technology domain specific innovativeness in individual level (Agarwal & Prasad, 1998). However, individual innovativeness can be taken into account as general willingness to adapt to any changes. In higher education context for example, these changes may cover many innovation domains including teaching and grading methods or consulting approaches. Academicians as the employees of universities need to be ready for innovation, and willing to take certain risks in gaining strengths for their development in the respective universities and for turning some threats to the opportunities. Industry, government agencies, accrediting institutions and students also force academicians to keep themselves up to date and meet the demands of changing global business world. Many studies have examined innovative methods in curricular practices (Berg & Ostergren, 1979; Van Driel et al., 1997; Zhu, 2015) and its antecedents or consequences from the teachers’ and students’ point of view (Albers-Miller, Straughan, & Prenshaw, 2001). However, all of these researches are generally concentrated on the efficiency or effectiveness of the educational performance as a service. Beyond these, service failures can be seen in higher education as service industry like in all other service sectors (Iyer & Muncy, 2008).

When service failures are unavoidable in higher education, how academicians (service providers) respond to these failures and complaints to gain the students (customers) trust and satisfaction become crucial. Since the service failures vary considerably (such as midgraded exams, misreported grades, being late to class, misinformed or misadvised students, etc.), recovery behaviours may be performed in several ways. From this perspective, the desirability and diffusion of innovation, that is individual innovativeness, may play important role. Academicians who are ready to change and innovative would have better performance, find better fitted recovery behaviours for students and change the recovery behaviours depends on the failures. Therefore, the second hypothesis can be formulated as:
H2: Individual innovativeness is positively related to service recovery behaviours.

Objectives

Derived from literature review and gaps in educational literature, this research aims to examine service recovery in higher education with emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness. The research’s objectives are how academicians’ emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness and how these personal indicators effect their service recovery behaviours. This is crucial since there isn’t any empirical evidence on the predictors of recovery behaviours in higher education context.

Method

Participants

The data were collected from the academicians who are working in private or public universities in Turkey. The sample’s average age was 42 years old and the ratio of females in the sample was 53 percent and the ratio of males was 47 percent.

Measurement

The measures can be grouped into four parts; the first part contains individual innovativeness items. The first section contains emotional intelligence items which are composed by using Emotional Intelligence Scale developed by Wong and Low (2002). The questionnaire contains 16 questions and four dimensions. These are; self-emotion appraisal, others’ emotion appraisal, use of emotion and regulation of emotions. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement on each statement by grading in a 5 point Likert Scale where 1 represents ‘not agree’ and 5 ‘highly agree’. High scores indicate a high degree on each sub-constructs of emotional intelligence.
The second set of measures consisted of Individual Innovativeness Scale with 20 items. The scale was developed by Hurt, Katherine, and Chester (1977) and has been translated into Turkish, by Kılıçer and Odabaşı (2010). The factor analysis revealed four factors that are resistance to change, opinion-leading, openness to experience and risk-taking. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement on each statement by grading in a 5 point Likert Scale where 1 represents ‘highly disagree’ and 5 ‘highly agree’. In order to have factors that are moved in the same direction, we reversed the resistance to change items and call it ‘readiness to change’. By this way, higher scores in each scale indicate a higher degree of innovativeness.

The third section contains 12 items about service recovery behaviours that are adopted by de Jong and de Ruyter (2004). It consists of two factors as adaptive and proactive service recovery behaviours. Responses were collected by a Likert scale in which 1 represents ‘highly disagree’ and 5 ‘highly agree’. Whereas, adaptive recovery behaviours describe the willingness to adapt current recovery behaviours to the given situation, proactive behaviours are the degree of seeking the innovative solutions and areas for improvement of the recovery behaviours. High scores on each factor indicate a higher degree of adaptability and proactivity on service recovery behaviours.

**Analytical procedure and design**

The analytical procedure for research model consists of two steps. In first, in order to provide data fit to the research model, confirmatory factor analyses were performed. After the data fit were obtained for all variables, the hypothesized model was tested with these main constructs in second step. The hypothesized research framework, which was built according to literature, is demonstrated in Figure 1.

This research adopted convenience sampling and with regard to population the sample consisted of academicians working at all private and public universities in Turkey. 302 self-administered questionnaires were distributed and 205 usable ones were collected (with response rate of % 67.88) from the academicians.
Results

Primary analysis

In order to meet the typical assumptions, the primary tests were done. The percentage of missing data was 8.9 and they were replaced by series mean. Outliers were tested by Mahalanobis distance and the 9 case outliers deleted from data. Normality was tested by Kolmogoro-Smirnov test (Field 2009) and the results for normality indicated that the data did not deviate from a normal distribution by non-significant values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests ($p=0.22$).

Measurement analysis with CFA

Prior to the structural analysis measurement items were tested in order to check whether they had the appropriate properties to represent each construct or not. For emotional intelligence items, the single-factor model did not fit the data [$\chi^2_{(df=54)}=336.42$, GFI=.78, IFI=.77, CFI=.76, SRMR=.08, RMSEA=.07]. Four-factor model was formed and the fit indices suggested better fit [$\chi^2_{(df=96)}=172.14$, GFI=.95, IFI=.97, CFI=.96, SRMR=.04, RMSEA=.03] than
single factor model. Four-factor model was also consistent theoretically and parallel to the previous studies’ factor results (Kılıçer and Odabaşı, 2010; Pallister & Foxall, 1998). There was not any non-significant item but adding covariance terms provided adequate fit. Akaike (1987) and Bozdoğan (1987) stated that AIC helps researchers to move beyond the inferential and restrictive approach with the standard fit indices on model selection. Therefore, Akaike information criterion (AIC) was examined and revealed the superiority of four-factor model with a lower AIC score (AIC=440.22) over a single factor one (AIC=252.14). Looking at standardized estimates (items’ loadings), it was obtained that self-emotion appraisal, others’ emotion appraisal, use of emotions and regulation of emotions’ items were in line theoretically and items’ loadings were higher than 0.40 (Figure 2a).

Figure 2a. Findings of emotional intelligence measurement analysis
For individual innovativeness items, while the single-factor model did not conclude in good fit to data \( \chi^2 (df=165) = 627.42, \ GFI=.65, \ IFI=.75, \ CFI=.75, \ SRMR=.06, \ RMSEA=.09 \), the best fit was obtained with four-factor model \( \chi^2 (df=160) = 296.226, \ GFI=.95, \ IFI=.95, \ CFI=.95, \ SRMR=.04, \ RMSEA=.02 \), which is consistent with the literature. Also, the scores of AIC of the single
(AIC=517.42) and four-factor models (AIC=296.22) demonstrated better fit of four-factors. The loadings of the items, their groupings and added covariance were also adequate with the theoretical suggestion and the factors concluded as readiness to change, opinion-leading, openness to experience and risk-taking (Figure 2b).

The fit indices for service recovery single-factor model initially did not suggest an adequate fit to the data \( \chi^2 (df=53) = 257.58, \text{GFI}=.81, \text{IFI}=.87, \text{CFI}=.87, \text{SRMR}=.04, \text{RMSEA}=.04 \). Even after formed it as two-factor model, fit indices approached to good fit \( \chi^2 (df=52) = 103.276, \text{GFI}=.96, \text{IFI}=.96, \text{CFI}=.96, \text{SRMR}=.04, \text{RMSEA}=.02 \). The comparison of single (AIC=198.42) and two factor (AIC=155.22) models also revealed the significant change and better fit of two-factor model to the data. The items were grouped as adaptive and proactive service recovery behaviours and their factor loadings were higher than 0.50 (Figure 2c). The correlations and Cronbach's alpha coefficients for reliability of each factor are represented in Table 1.

Table 1. Correlations, Mean, Standard Deviation, Reliability and Validity Findings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-emotion appraisal</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others emotion appraisal</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of emotions</td>
<td>.54**</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulation of emotions</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>.55**</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Readiness to change</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion-leading</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Openness to experience</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.50**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Risk-taking</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Adaptive service rec.</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.49**</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive service rec.</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.32**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.40**</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.52**</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.54**</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach alpha</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composite reliability (CR)</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Numbers on the diagonal (in boldface) are the average variance extracted (AVE). \( p <.05^*, p<.01^{**} \)

**Structural analysis**

After examining factor structures, structural model was assessed for testing hypothesized relations. While analysing data, maximum likelihood estimation was preferred over other techniques (e.g. asymptotically distribution free), because it is accepted as a good choice when normality assumption is
satisfied (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The initial test yielded good fit to the data \( \chi^2(\text{df}=33)=89.95, \ GFI=.95, \ IFI=.96, \ CFI=.96, \ SRMR=.04, \ RMSEA=.02 \). As presented in Table 2 the path coefficient from emotional intelligence to service recovery was significant (\( \beta=.48, \ p<.01 \)). Consistent with H\(_1\) individuals’ perception about their own emotional intelligence positively affect their service recovery behaviour.

Table 2. The standardized and unstandardized estimates of structural models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Parameters</th>
<th>Standardized Estimates (( \beta ))</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>( p )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Intelligence (As latent variable)</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Emotion App.</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others’ Emotion App.</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of Emotion</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulation of Emotion</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Innovativeness (As latent variable)</td>
<td>.59**</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factors</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness to Change</td>
<td>.39**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>&gt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion-Leading</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness to Experience</td>
<td>.28**</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk-Taking</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For individual innovativeness, the standardized estimate (\( \beta=.59, \ p<.01 \)) revealed the significant and positive effect on service recovery. As proposed in H\(_2\) academicians’ degree of innovativeness is positively affecting their service recovery behaviours. The emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness explained 53% of the variance in service recovery.

**Separating the impacts of emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness factors**

Finally, one more structural model was conducted in order to search relative impacts of emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness dimensions on service recovery. The dimensions of emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness explained 42% of the variance in service recovery and the model revealed acceptable fit to data \( \chi^2(\text{df}=23)=69.54, \ GFI=.95, \ IFI=.95, \ RMSEA=.02 \).
CFI=.95, SRMR=.04, RMSEA=.04]. Self-emotion and others emotion appraisals as factors of emotional intelligence have significant and positive effects (β=.24, p<.01; β=.28, p<.01 respectively) on service recovery. As can be seen in Table 2 service recovery was also affected by some individual innovativeness dimensions. Individuals high on readiness to change, openness to experience and risk-taking (β=.39, p<.01; β=.28, p<.01 and β=-.22, p<.01 respectively) seem to be more prone to service recovery behaviours.

Discussion

The aim of that study was to develop a research model that attempts to explain service recovery behaviours in higher education by accounting for the roles of emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness. The proposed research hypotheses were supported by obtained empirical findings. That is, it has been found that emotional intelligence and individual innovativeness significantly affect the service recovery behaviours. Congruent with previous research (Oginska-Bulik, 2005; Lin, 2009), emotional intelligence was positively related to service recovery, meaning that the greater the academicians’ emotional intelligence, there will be higher degree of service recovery behaviours. Thus, academicians with higher levels of emotional intelligence may cope with service failures successfully. Academicians’ ability on evaluating and handling of own and others emotions seem to have positive effects on understanding students’ needs and meeting their demands when service failures occurred. These abilities also help academicians in regulating their own and students’ emotions, which in turn decrease the worries and dissatisfaction.

Individual innovativeness was another predictor of service recovery and the results revealed that it positively affected service recovery. This is an important finding since there isn’t any empirical evidence on the effects of innovativeness on recovery behaviours. Individuals holding higher desire for innovativeness expressed higher service recovery behaviours. It seems that academicians’ readiness to change played accelerating role on their recovery perceptions when any failures occurred. As noted previously, in higher education sector service failures may occur in several types and are as much unavoidable as the other service sectors. Therefore, academicians’ innovative respond to these failures can result in critical consequences related to students’
satisfaction, university preferences, and perceptions about the quality of curriculum.

The obtained findings from the structural equation modelling demonstrated that in absolute terms the effect of individual innovativeness is stronger on service recovery as compared to effect of emotional intelligence on that. This is an important results signal to the precedence of innovativeness as a predictor of recovery behaviours. Innovativeness on an individual base states the readiness and willingness to change (Rogers, 2003) and this predisposes people to attitudes, feelings and actions that promote the performance or acceptance of new ideas. (Carlson, 1965; Rogers, 2003; Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971).

Other structural models examined the effects of emotional intelligence’s and individual innovativeness’s dimensions on service recovery. The obtained results indicated that self-emotions, others’ emotions appraisal, readiness to change, openness to experience and risk taking are the dimensions predictive of service recovery behaviours of academicians. This finding might be interpreted in a way that understanding of own and others’ emotions may help individuals to be more sensitive towards emotions and take action earlier than many individuals. Unlike the remarkable effects of emotion appraisals, the study’s findings did not reveal any direct association linking use and regulation of emotions to service recovery. Thus, it can be considered that being aware of both self and others’ emotions are important variables in recovery situations because understanding of emotions makes academicians talented in responding to students’ emotions accurately. Similarly, individuals’ willingness to be ready for changes, openness to experience and risk taker might be better in revision of recovery actions, adopting themselves to different failures and finding more adequate ways parallel to students’ expectations. Since there aren’t many researches that examine separated dimensions’ effects of emotional intelligence and innovativeness on recovery behaviours, these results help to examine relation of variables more comprehensively and expand the literature.

Importantly, the results point to the personal antecedents to affect at recovery behaviours and further research can be conducted to distinguish those effects from organizational level predictors (e.g., organizational culture, managerial support, etc.). The findings of this study can be also interpreted with its certain managerial contributions from personal perspective. From managerial perspectives, universities need to put a premium on academicians’
personal improvement particularly on innovation and emotion bases in order to be able to recover service failures successfully and in turn minimize negative consequences of these failures.

Conclusion and Limitations

The first limitation concerns the data collection methodology. The collected data rely on self-reports of the academicians from Turkey. Although it is suggested by Taylor, Peplau, and Sears (2006) that self-reporting data collection method helps to catch detailed information about participants’ attitudes and feelings, it also restrict research in generalization. Therefore, enriching researches with complementary measures and conducting comparative researches to identify cultural differences can be suggested for further studies.

Second limitation concerns demographic characteristics of sample. The effects in present study were not examined on the basis control variables such as university types, academicians’ gender, employment tenure, age or types of service failures, which could lead to different findings. Furthermore, adding the other possible consumer-based or situational variables that could have impacts on service recovery behaviours would help to have a more comprehensive research model. Perhaps this explains why some part of the variance in service recovery behaviours could not be explained. Moreover, the research that conducted in state and private universities with considering the number of students, lessons per academicians and students per academicians would reveal different results and could be more elaborated.

Additionally, for the unexplained part of the variance in service recovery, researchers are urged to investigate moderating the effects of situational difference variables such as organizational culture, organizational or manager support for recovery behaviours along with other forms of individual variables to explain recovery behaviours.

Consequently, the results of the present research support the belief that personal traits such as emotional intelligence and innovativeness might relate to service recovery performance. Despite its limitations, the present study expands the literature on emotional and innovation-base, which have been relatively unexplored in the literature and particularly in higher education service sector.
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