



**VILNIUS UNIVERSITY
BUSINESS SCHOOL**

MSC DIGITAL MARKETING

Student Number: 2330551

MASTER FINAL THESIS

Nepasitenkinamumo skaitmeninių paslaugų kokybe poveikis prekės ženklų keitimo ketinimui maisto pristatymo pramonėje	IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY
--	--

Student: Chidi Richard Orji

Supervisor: Prof. Vytautas Dikcius

Vilnius 2025

SUMMARY

IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY

Student Number: 2330551

Final Master Thesis

Academic supervisor: Prof. Vytautas Dikcius

Digital Marketing Programme

Business School, Vilnius University

Vilnius, 2025

Background: Use of digital food order services has grown in use in how shoppers purchase food on a daily basis. Dissatisfied customers face issues like delayed deliveries, inaccurate order information and poor customer support, which makes them want to switch food delivery brand. If users do not like quality of digital services, then they may leave thus leading to loss of brand loyalty.

Purpose: The aim of this study is to study how digital service quality dissatisfaction influences customer's brand switching intention in food delivery industry.

Methodology: For this study, a quantitative survey was used. Purposive sampling was used to select 220 respondents in Lithuania who had used food delivery services such as Bolt, Wolt, and LastMile to do this work. It also comprised individuals who have had one or more moments when they were unsatisfied with a food delivery service. Data was collected through google form and analysed by descriptive and inferential procedures in SPSS.

Findings: The results show that gaps in digital system quality greatly raise customer dissatisfaction and this drastically raises plans to change brands. Although general barriers to switching like price or work effort might ease this relationship, high levels of dissatisfaction often pass these barriers leading users to switch platforms.

Conclusion: The paper concludes that when service providers can proffer reliable customer support, accurate data, and a smooth use of platforms, they can cut back on customer dissatisfaction and deter customers from switching to others.

SANTRAUKA

Nepasitenkinamumo skaitmeninių paslaugų kokybe poveikis prekės ženklo keitimo ketinimui maisto pristatymo pramonėje

Student Number: 2330551

Baigiamasis magistro darbas

Akademinis vadovas: Prof. Vytautas Dikcius

Skaitmeninės rinkodaros programa

Verslo mokykla, Vilniaus universitetas

Vilnius, 2025

Fonas: Skaitmeninių maisto užsakymo paslaugų naudojimas kasdiniame maisto pirkime sparčiai auga. Nepatenkinti klientai susiduria su tokiais iššūkiais kaip vėluojantys pristatymai, netiksli užsakymo informacija ir prasta klientų aptarnavimo kokybė, todėl jie nori pereiti prie kitos maisto pristatymo platformos. Jei vartotojams nepatinka skaitmeninių paslaugų kokybė, jie gali palikti paslaugą, o tai lemia prekės ženklo lojalumo praradimą.

Tyrimo tikslas: Šio tyrimo tikslas yra iširti, kaip skaitmeninių paslaugų kokybės nepasitenkinimas veikia klientų ketinimą keisti prekės ženklą maisto pristatymo sektoriuje. Darbe nagrinėjami svarbiausi skaitmeninių paslaugų kokybės aspektai – klientų aptarnavimo kokybė, informacijos kokybė bei svetainės/programėlės naudojimo patogumas – ir tiriama nepatenkinimo bei pereinamojo elgesio barjerų reikšmė vartotojų elgsenai.

Metodologija: Siekiant įgyvendinti tyrimą, buvo atlikta kiekybinė apklausa. Patogiosios atrankos metodo pagalba buvo pasirinkti 220 respondentų iš Lietuvos, kurie yra naudojęsi maisto pristatymo paslaugomis kaip “Bolt”, “Wolt” ir “LastMile” ir turėjo bent vieną neigiamą patirtį naudojantis skaitmeninėmis paslaugomis. Duomenys buvo surinkti per internetinę anketą ir analizuojami naudojant SPSS programinę įrangą taikant aprašomąją bei inferencinę statistiką.

Rezultatai: Tyrimo rezultatai rodo, kad spragos skaitmeninių sistemų kokybėje žymiai padidina klientų nepatenkinimą, o tai smarkiai didina ketinimą keisti prekės ženklą. Nors bendrieji prekės ženklo keitimo barjerai, tokie kaip kaina ar pastangos, gali šiek tiek sumažinti šį ryšį, aukšto lygio nepatenkinimas dažnai juos apeina, todėl vartotojai pereina prie kitų platformų.

Išvada: Tyrimas teigia, kad norint išlaikyti klientus maisto pristatymo paslaugų versle, būtina atkreipti dėmesį į skaitmeninių paslaugų kokybę. Kai paslaugų teikėjai užtikrina patikimą klientų aptarnavimą, tikslią informaciją ir sklandų platformų naudojimą, jie gali sumažinti klientų nepatenkinimą ir atgrasyti juos nuo pereinamojo elgesio prie kitų paslaugų.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SUMMARY	2
SANTRAUKA	3
TABLE OF CONTENTS	4
LIST OF TABLES	6
LIST OF FIGURES	7
INTRODUCTION	8
1. A THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION ON IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY	Error!
Bookmark not defined.1	
1.1 Concept of Service Quality	Error!
Bookmark not defined.1	
1.2 Dissatisfaction and Its Distinction from Satisfaction	Error!
Bookmark not defined.5	
1.3 The Concept of Brand Switching	Error!
Bookmark not defined.8	
1.4 Factors contributing to brand switching	Error!
Bookmark not defined.0	
1.5 Dissatisfaction with the digital service quality as an antecedent of brand switching intentions	23
1.6 Digital Service Quality: Definition	Error!
Bookmark not defined.5	
1.7 Dimensions of Digital Service Quality	Error!
Bookmark not defined.	
1.8 Relationship between dissatisfaction with digital service quality and brand switching intentions	<u>28</u>
2. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY	
2.1 Aim of the Research	34
2.2 Conceptual Model and Hypothesis	34
2.3 Research Design	37
2.4 Methods and Procedures of Data Collection	37
2.5 Selection (Sampling) of Respondents	38
2.6 Instrument for Data Collection	39
2.7 Method and Statistics of Data Analysis	40
2.8 Scope of the Research	40
2.9 Ethical Implications	41

3.	ANALYSIS ON IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY	43
3.1	Reliability of Collected Data	45
3.2	Discussion of Hypothesis	47
4.	CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
4.1	Conclusion	66
4.2	Implications	67
4.2.1	Practical Implications	67
4.2.2	Theoretical Implications	67
4.3	Limitations to this study and Recommendations for Further Research	68
	REFERENCES	70
	ANNEXES	76
	Annex 1: Questionnaire	76
	Annex 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlational Analysis	81

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Research Model of Digital Service Quality (by author 2025)	-	-	34
--	---	---	----

INTRODUCTION

The growth of digital food delivery has greatly changed consumer lifestyles and how often they go to traditional restaurants (Suryawardani & Wulandari, 2020). The rise of this industry has increased rivalry among food-ordering sites as consumers can compare their services and switch brands without double-guessing what to buy (Ahn, 2025). Consequently, the standard of a web-based service has become a very important factor that influences what buyers think about and do after buying in this food-burden market (Su et al., 2022).

In the new age of digital economy, brands lose their identity due to physical looks only. Instead, their identity gets shaped by endless interactions enabled by technology (Alegre & Garau, 2010). Delivery brands use digital faces such as mobile apps, online sites, and real-time tracking tools to supplant the process of physical stores and offline deliveries for better value for customers (Dalimunthe & Suryani, 2024). Between these digital destinations, consumers perception of trust, ease of use and operational transparency play a role in enhancing operational transparency and consequently, brand personality (Su et al., 2022). Negative digital experiences can really hurt these perceptions and lead to dissatisfaction and brand abandonment (Sharma, Pathak, & Ahuja, 2023).

Food delivery services are a name for a one-of-a-kind service situation because they have digital ordering with delivery of physical food that is time sensitive (Chang et al., 2023). Failures of services like late delivery, wrong orders, or system failures are often emotionally charged and very important to consumers (Suryawardani & Wulandari, 2020). The fact these failures can be seen by the public through online reviews and ratings can make the dissatisfaction worse and discredit the brand's reputation (Tan et al., 2024). Because of this, the dissatisfaction with digital service quality might have a stronger effect on switching behaviour in food delivery than in other digital service industries (Ong, Chang, & Lee, 2013).

Literature gaps include that:

Past research on digital food service industries has looked at factors such as service quality, satisfaction, loyalty, trust, fairness, and switching plans (Nikbin et al., 2016; Sozer et al., 2018; Hoang & Le Tan, 2023; Amoako et al., 2023). In the digital service research, scholars have found many dimensions of digital service quality, such as reliability, responsiveness, convenience, system usability, and personalisation (Su et al., 2022; Garga, Maiyaki, & Sagagi, 2019).

Findings of research and relationship to dissatisfaction and switching behaviour has been inconsistent, especially in digital environments where switching costs is low and there are many choices readily available (Chen et al., 2014; Suryawardani & Wulandari, 2020). Some studies

suggest that dissatisfaction has a direct effect on the plans to switch (Han & Ryu, 2012; Tan et al., 2024). Others find intervening factors, such as the perceived fairness of the system, service recovery, or believing who is to blame; mediate the link between dissatisfaction and switching plans. (Han & Ryu, 2012; Tan et al., 2024). Even with what has been learned, how dissatisfaction of digital service quality leads to brand switching for food delivery services, specifically, has not been well studied.

Furthermore, studies on food delivery applications have been mainly on drivers of satisfaction. They have paid less attention to antecedents as well as outcomes of dissatisfaction. As a result, they did not shed enough light on why loyalty wanes in this sector. The hybrid nature of food-delivering services that combine a digital platform with a service delivery, limits the extent that conventional service quality and switching models that were meant for other industries can be used in this sector (Chang et al., 2023; Dalimunthe & Suryani, 2024). This discrepancy makes it clear that there is need for context-specific research that clearly looks at the dissatisfaction of digital service quality in the food delivery sector and this study set out to fill that gap.

Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of digital service quality dissatisfaction on brand switching intentions within the food delivery industry.

Objectives of the Study

1. Study previous literature on digital service quality, consumer dissatisfaction and brand switching in the food delivery industry.
2. Create a conceptual framework for the present research grounded in existing scientific evidence, and formulate corresponding research hypotheses.
3. Carry out a survey to understand consumers' experiences of digital service quality dissatisfaction in the food delivery industry;
4. Develop recommendations on how to improve digital service quality so as to lessen consumers' dissatisfaction and switching intentions in the food delivery industry.

The used Methods for the Current Study

This research adopted a quantitative research approach. Data from the respondents were collected using a survey. However, secondary data from earlier studies were gathered through desk research using Internet and library resources, including books, journals, online content, and other relevant publications, in order to generate the theoretical component of this study. In the

end, a quantitative analysis and additional discussion were conducted using the gathered empirical data.

Project Outline

The study has five chapters. The first chapter contains an introduction. It provides contextual information, an elucidation of the problem, the study's aim and objectives, the methodologies used, and a summary of the thesis. The second chapter examines literatures on the fast-food industry, their use of digital services and dissatisfaction with the quality of digital services. The third chapter covers research techniques, sampling, data gathering, analysis, and ethical consideration and overall methodology. Chapter four delineates and examines the results of the investigation. The results were synthesised and concluded in Chapter 5. The chapter five also provides suggestions for further investigation.

1. A THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION ON IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY

1.1 Concept of Service Quality

Service quality has traditionally been perceived as a central construct in marketing and service management research, and it determines the level of customer satisfaction, loyalty, and behavioral intentions in various industries (Han, Pervez, Khanum, and Khan, 2023). It entails a general assessment of excellence or superiority of a service by a customer, both the tangible and intangible aspects of service experience (Lee, Hung, and Chen, 2022). In theoretical terms, service quality works as relative evaluation between the consumer expectations and the actual performance of the service as the basis of satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Lin, 2012). It is an evaluative process that defines the perception of consumers about how a service has performed above, below, or according to expectation; meaning it affects the future attitudes and behavior regarding the brand (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013).

Conventional models, the most prominent of them being SERVQUAL, have attempted to construct service quality into five dimensions namely reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy, and tangibles (Moehl & Friedman, 2022). Reliability, which is usually quoted as the most significant factor, is the stable and reliable performance throughout the time-span- making sure that the services can be brought out correctly and as expected (Han et al., 2023). It communicates to the customers that they can look on the organization to deliver its duties without failing or mistake (Lee et al., 2022). Responsiveness, in its turn, embodies the speediness and the readiness of the employees to offer assistance to customers and give it on time, especially when it comes to solving problems or responding to requests (Nikbin, Marimuthu, and Hyun, 2016). Assurance reflects the knowledge, politeness, and belief of the employees that build trust and credibility in the minds of the customers (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). Empathy indicates how the service provider is able to care and attend to the personal needs of customers which is an indicator of emotional involvement and customer-centricity (Han et al., 2023). Tangibles refer to the physical setting, equipment, the appearance of personnel, and other material indicators of professionalism and service excellence (Lee et al., 2022). These dimensions provide a multidimensional view of consumer experience and judgment of service quality (Lin, 2012).

Although it has a fundamental nature, the conventional approach to service quality has faced continuous discussion and development (Nikbin et al., 2016). While the SERVQUAL model offers

a useful framework, it assumes a rather stable and linear connection between the performance of the service and customer satisfaction (Han et al., 2023). But it is increasingly being supported by empirical evidence that the association is much more dynamic and context-specific (Lee et al., 2022). In fact, some attributes of service that customers might view as having a disproportionate effect on overall satisfaction may exist in the context of other service attributes being satisfactory (Lin, 2012). Such an imbalance means that gains in one area of services result in decreasing returns, and the slippage in another area, especially reliability or empathy, can ruin perceptions (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). In this way, the quality of a service should not be considered as a fixed, accumulative phenomenon but an evolving and dynamic process that changes depending on the industries and personal experience (Han et al., 2023).

More importantly, studies have revealed that the high quality of services does not necessarily lead to the retention of customers or brand loyalty (Nikbin et al., 2016). The contextual variables of behavioural intentions of customers depend on a complicated interaction of the variables, such as price sensitivities, convenience, the barriers to switching, and competitive substitutes (Lin, 2012). Even loyal customers can change brands as rival companies provide them with better perceived value or more convenient service choices (Han et al., 2023). This observation disproves the long-standing belief that satisfaction mediates all quality-loyalty relationships (Lee et al., 2022). Satisfaction is a necessary, but not a sufficient condition of loyalty in a lot of service situations, and other psychological, social, and situational variables are influential (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). In this regard, to have a clear picture of the service quality, it is necessary to go beyond the functional performance analysis and encompass the relational, emotional, and contextual determinants of customer behavior (Han et al., 2023).

In addition to that, the methodology of service quality measurement has been subject to significant criticism (Lin, 2012). Critics state that SERVQUAL can be inaccurate in depicting cognitive processes of customers when facing a service encounter owing to its dependence on expectation-perception gaps (Lee et al., 2022). The gap measurements can be dynamic because customers tend to change their expectations depending on previous experiences or the circumstances and the fixed gap measurements can be inaccurate (Nikbin et al., 2016). Moreover, the relative significance of the different dimensions can vary depending on cultural, industrial, and demographic backgrounds (Han et al., 2023). To provide an example, reliability can predominate in utilitarian services like banking or healthcare, and empathy and assurance can be of a higher level in the hospitality or educational industry (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). Thus, the concept of service quality will never have a universal model, which is why industry-specific

frameworks should be considered to consider contextual peculiarities and the heterogeneity of customers.

Service quality, in addition to its structural aspects and assessment frameworks, is also a wider organizational philosophy that enshrines how the firms are conveying their values, competencies, and service culture into customer experiences (Han, Pervez, Khanum, and Khan, 2023). It is not only a quantifiable result of performance but a compounded understanding that customers develop through all workability of contact with a service supplier (Lee, Hung, and Chen, 2022). This impression is not just on the transactional level, but also on the service provider, attentiveness, communication, consistency, and perceived commitment to the welfare of the customer (Nikbin, Marimuthu, and Hyun, 2016). In that regard, service quality is both a process and a product, a continuous process of interaction between customer expectations, which the firm is providing, and the emotional impact resulting of such an experience (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013).

In its most simple definition, service quality may be regarded as the fulfillment of the promise of an organization and its capacities to address it over time and touchpoints (Han et al., 2023). Quality is frequently perceived by customers who are exposed to interior service experiences, but also symbolically by the reputation of the brand, the atmosphere surrounding the service, and the manner of employees (Lee et al., 2022). For example, clean, orderly and attractive service environment sends subliminal messages of competence and reliability that strengthens the customer faith in the service provider (Lin, 2012). Likewise, the intention of the tone of communication, the responsiveness of employees, and even the punctuality of follow-up contacts are all factors that influence the perceived smoothness of the quality of services (Nikbin et al., 2016). As a result, the quality of service is not a result of what is offered but how it is offered and the way this offering makes the customer feel (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013).

Moreover, organizational culture and employee engagement are directly related to the quality of services since the employees are the key actors who follow and implement the service philosophy of a firm (Han et al., 2023). The attitude, professionalism, and empathy of frontline staff play a significant role in determining the perception of a customer with regard to service quality (Lee et al., 2022). When the perceived quality remains low because of tangible factors, enthusiastic, attentive, and problem-solving-oriented employees have the tendency to uplift the perceived quality (Nikbin et al., 2016). On the other hand, a situation of apathy or ownership of service staff may sabotage the most advanced service systems (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). This shows how human service has been central in the quality of service, a service that is more reliant

on internal motivation and culture than on external systems and processes (Lin, 2012). Thus, organizations that invest in employee empowerment, education, and appreciation have a higher probability of sustaining a constant and good quality service delivery across settings (Han et al., 2023).

The other important but frequently neglected aspect of service quality is also its continuity in time, or the capacity to provide repeated experiences in the context of repeated interactions (Lee et al., 2022). Customers do not only consider individual transactions, but accumulated experiences over time, which become the foundation of long-term satisfaction and loyalty (Nikbin et al., 2016). Stability in delivery creates a perception of reliability and dependability, whereas lack of stability undermines even a good experience in service provision (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). This is why the quality of service is not a single accomplishment but a continuous effort that needs to be organized and give feedback and respond in a flexible manner to evolving demands (Lin, 2012). The sustainability of the quality of services is defined by the effectiveness of organizations in institutionalizing learning to detect deviations and to take proactive action in case of failure or changing consumer requirements (Han et al., 2023).

Also, the quality of the service is multi-polar and is not only between firms and customers, but also between customer and firm, and between customer and customer (Lee et al., 2022). Customer active participation in the development of the quality perception has been caused by the emergence of participatory service systems, as well as in user-reviewed platforms (Nikbin et al., 2016). How responsive a firm to the feedback, to make mistakes, and to act in a transparent manner have become the main predictors of perceived service excellence (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). In addition, peer behavior and social interactions also affect perceived quality in service settings, including restaurants, hotels, or through online platforms (Han HeeSup et al., 2023). Therefore, the current conceptual understandings of quality of service acknowledge it as a co-created value phenomenon, the one that develops in the course of several stakeholders within the service ecosystem (Lin, 2012).

Similarly, service quality serves as a strategic differentiator in the highly competitive market where products are equal and competition is intense (Han et al., 2023). The intangible quality experience is the key aspect of a brand image and consumer preference in the industries where the tangible qualities can be easily imitated (Lee et al., 2022). Customers are becoming attracted to services that depict caring, responsiveness, and authenticity as opposed to efficiency (Nikbin et al., 2016). In such a way, the high quality of service services will serve as sort of emotional branding - establishing the organization in the memory of the customer and strengthening the loyalty of

returning (Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra, 2013). Organizations, which interpret and provide quality in a holistic, affective and relational phenomenon, are better placed to build long-term customer relationships and maintain competitive power (Lin, 2012). In this expanded perspective, service quality not only turns out to be an operational performance difference but a living manifestation of what an organization is, what its ethics are, and what its relationship with the customer is like (Han et al., 2023).

Collectively, digital service quality reflects the total of interactions, feelings, and anticipations that characterize the customer experience. Therefore, the interpretation and control of service quality require not only precision of operation, but also emotional awareness, cultural compliance, and vision.

1.2 Dissatisfaction and Its Distinction from Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction is one of the focal points of the service and consumer behavior studies, which is usually viewed as an emotional or cognitive reaction to the expectation fulfillment. Positive reinforcement, loyalty and repurchase intention are normally linked to satisfaction (Van Ryzin, 2013). Dissatisfaction, however, is not the negative reflection of satisfaction. It is a specific emotional, cognitive, and behavioral construct that occurs in case of the unmet, partially met, or violated expectations (Suryawardani and Wulandari, 2020). Although satisfaction is likely to lead to continuity and repeat usage of a brand or service, dissatisfaction may also result in active behavior, such as switching, complaint behaviors, negative word-of-mouth, and even boycotts (Elshaer, et al, 2025).

When the perceived service or product performance is lower than what the customers expect, it leads to dissatisfaction (Van Ryzin, 2013). The Expectancy-Disconfirmation Theory (EDT) is a powerful theory explaining this phenomenon because it posits that the satisfaction is experienced when performance is at or above the expectations, and dissatisfaction arises when performance is below the expectations by a significant margin (Schiebler, Lee, and Brodbeck, 2025). Wang and Zhou (2023) believe that the larger the disconfirmation, the higher the degree of discontent. Even such minor dissatisfaction as delays in the supply of a service or mistakes in the performance can lead to disproportionate adverse reactions, especially when the customer considers them to be unjust or avoidable (Sharma, Pathak, and Ahuja, 2023). This highlights the need to understand the psychological mechanisms that sustain dissatisfaction, which are different from those that create satisfaction, as the former could be related to greater levels of emotional arousal, stress and frustration (Su et al., 2022).

One of the most important distinctions between satisfaction and dissatisfaction is the behavioral consequence. As Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1996) prove, customers who are not satisfied with the product or service tend to be more inclined to negative behavior like switching brands or creating negative word-of-mouth than their satisfied counterparts. Wu, Gao, Hayat, Long, Yang, and Al Mamun (2024) demonstrate that dissatisfaction can be immediately followed by the observable behaviors that are aimed at reducing the perceived losses or penalizing service providers. Conversely, satisfaction is more likely to generate less sudden loyalty and needs a series of positive experiences to strengthen behavior (Xu, Blankson, and Prybutok, 2017). This imbalance suggests that dissatisfaction is not the opposite of satisfaction: it has its own cognitive, emotional, and social burden.

Technology-mediated and hybrid service settings are especially dissatisfied, where the customer has limited control, and failure is also very visible (Zehir and Narcikara, 2016). Tan et al. (2024) show that the consequences of dissatisfaction can be enhanced by negative word-of-the-mouth that is fast and far-reaching, which is generated when there is a failure in a service within AI-driven or online platforms. Equally, Wu et al. (2024) indicate that a failure in digital services tends to attract higher emotional responses, including frustration, anger, and distrust, compared to the same failure in the offline traditional setting. Su et al. (2022) observe that customers view such failures as signs of incompetence or negligence that may destroy long-term trust despite satisfactory offline interactions. It implies that the dissatisfaction with the digital or hybrid environment is a multi-dimensional concept, i.e. functional, psychological, and social dimensions of dissatisfaction.

Dissatisfaction is determined by consumer expectations and fairness. According to Sozer and Civelek (2018), negative emotional responses may be enhanced by the perceived inequity or inconsistency of service delivery. The customers usually become frustrated when they see a discrepancy between the promised and provided. Wang and Zhou (2023) also emphasize that dissatisfaction is strongly influenced by the contextual framing of expectations that includes experiences of the past and comparative standards. In service-based businesses where physical and digital aspects co-exist, a failure in one area, i.e. a failure interface or a failure in physical delivery, can either create a lot of dissatisfaction or do so in combination. This ambivalence highlights the multidimensional and multi-layered character of dissatisfaction as compared to the more linear phenomenon of satisfaction.

Socially-mediated behaviors are also a manifestation of dissatisfaction which vary significantly as compared to the internal impacts of satisfaction. Salma, Rabbaniah, Nuh, and Wibowo (2024)

demonstrate that unhappy people can go on boycotts or find socially responsible options, especially in case of service failures that are seen as preventable or morally problematic. Zhang and Weng (2025) further note that those who observe complaints on the social platform often side with the unhappy customers, which increases the reputational consequences of a brand or service provider. Conversely, satisfied customers usually develop contained internalized loyalty behavioral tendencies instead of societal or publicly observed behavioral tendencies (Wu, Wei, Tseng, and Cheng, 2018). This imbalance brings out the social aspect of dissatisfaction, which is usually ignored in traditional service research.

Dissatisfaction is longer lasting psychologically than satisfaction. According to Saharinen et al. (2014), long-term dissatisfaction may adversely affect the general attitudes toward quality, trust, and engagement, developing the effect of compounding them and forming a certain impact on future choices. The recurring malfunctions of the service, both online and offline, are cumulative and serve to strengthen the negative perception and complicate the corrective measures (Wu et al., 2024). Satisfaction, in turn, is usually weak and conditional on the continuous positive reward (Sözer, Uzpeder, & Özcan, 2023). Such continued dissatisfaction points to the necessity to develop active management policies that not only address short-term failures, but also point towards long-term perceptions.

Van Ryzin (2013) notes that there is a severe theoretical gap: the notions of satisfaction and dissatisfaction are frequently regarded as the opposites of each other, whereas new evidence indicates that they are asymmetrical. Dissatisfaction is also more likely to be strong, short-term, and behaviorally affective than satisfaction (Wu et al., 2024; Sözer & Civelek, 2018). The impact of negative feedback, a high presence of mistakes, and the combination of functional and emotional malfunctions are multiplied in digital and hybrid service settings (Su et al., 2022; Zehir and Narcikara, 2016). It is important to note that dissatisfaction is a construct that cannot be viewed as a lack of satisfaction but rather as a construct that helps develop effective service recovery strategies, handle switching behaviors, and increase long-term engagement (Suryawardani and Wulandari, 2020; Zhang and Weng, 2025).

To sum up, dissatisfaction and satisfaction have absolutely opposite beginnings, processes, and outcomes. Although satisfaction is a positive reinforcement and the realization of expectations, dissatisfaction is an unmet or breached expectation and a motivation to switch, complain, and act negatively (Suryawardani and Wulandari, 2020; Tan et al., 2024). Its impact is usually more enduring, higher and social as compared to satisfaction (Zhang and Weng, 2025). The interpretation of dissatisfaction as a construct in its own right is vital in-service management in

the traditional and digital environment (Wu et al., 2024). Its multi-dimensional nature, which involves functional failures, emotional reactions, social amplification, and cumulative effects, should be considered in future studies to create effective solutions to the reduction of dissatisfaction and customer behavior management in the modern service setting.

Put together, the literature clearly shows that customer dissatisfaction is not just the opposite of satisfaction, it is a separate phenomenon with its own patterns of thought, feeling and action. Satisfaction appears when expectations are met and slowly strengthens loyalty. Conversely, dissatisfaction appears when expectations are ignored or broken and usually provokes swift, strong but also widely shared negative reactions. The consequences of dissatisfaction last longer, disturb behaviour more and carry greater weight in digital as well as hybrid service settings, where service failures are easy to see and spread quickly.

1.3 The Concept of Brand Switching

Brand switching is a practice whereby consumers cease purchases from their preferred brand and begin acquiring products from a competing brand (Ahn, 2025). It is also theorized as an evaluative choice that is conscious and not an impulsive or random choice (Chang et al., 2023). Shin and Kim (2008) stress that brand switching is a dynamic consumer behavior, which is determined by personal evaluation of alternatives and expectations. Wirtz, Xiao, Chiang, and Malhotra (2014) add that it reflects a transitional point in the relationship between the consumer and the brand, when loyalty is disrupted at the moment of choosing another alternative. However, Han, Kim, and Hyun (2011) place brand switching as a predictable intention that is followed by switching behavior, which is predictive.

Switching of brands takes place at various degrees of consumer contact. At the micro level, it helps in capturing the decision-making process in terms of product performance, brand perception, symbolic meaning as well as lifestyle alignment (Chou and Lu, 2009). On the macro level, it is a group phenomenon of the market that is determined by the socio-economic trends, cultural changes, and technological advances (Shin and Kim, 2008). Han, Kim, and Hyun (2011) note that switching is conceptually different as compared to either satisfaction or loyalty; it involves a discrete shift in the current consumer-brand relationship as opposed to a temporary dissatisfaction. Wirtz et al. (2014) also state that brand switching is a calculated breakage in habitual purchasing behavior, which means that it is theoretically important as a result of cumulative consumer assessment.

Importantly, brand switching does not mean variety-seeking or experimental behavior. Pillay (2025) points out that switching is a deliberate change of the previous consumption patterns.

According to Shin and Kim (2008), it represents a cognitive-emotional evaluation of trade-offs and alternatives. Han et al. (2011) place switching as a result and a signifier of the changing consumer expectations, and emphasize its dual conceptual nature. Ofori et al. (2015) also emphasize that brand switching is evaluated judgment and strategic consumer behavior, but not a response or spontaneous behavior.

Moreover, the idea of brand switching involves the psychological and the market-based approach. Wirtz et al. (2014) note that the switch decision includes evaluative decisions of perceived value, relational equity, and opportunity cost. Lehto et al. (2015) substantiate the fact that switching is a part of the adaptive mechanism within the overall decision-making process of the consumer. It serves as a prism to examine how personal decisions accumulate to determine market trends (Bernarto, 2020). According to Chou and Lu (2009), brand switching represents a theoretical gap between consumer cognition, emotion and behavior, thus, it is a fundamental construct that has been used to study loyalty, retention and competitive dynamics. Therefore, brand flipping is considered more complex than just removing a brand in today's marketing landscape. According to Chang et al. (2023), it is instead defined as a voluntary, consumption-driven renegotiation of the brand relationship in which loyalty and trust are assessed in relation to brand equity, ethics, and alignment with the consumer's multicriteria.

Furthermore, brand switching may be investigated via the lenses of behavioural, sociological, and strategic communication studies. Customers' opinions of competing products are often altered by social branding, social cognitive reasoning, and social learning (Chou & Lu, 2009). To put it another way, brand flipping is a shift in communication and behaviour caused by exposure to emotionally charged content, persuasive framing, and narrative imagery in social media and advertising (Chang et al., 2023). Thus, it is a behavioural outcome of both non-rational reasoning (novelty seeking, craving social approval, or increasing dissatisfaction) and rational reasoning (cost-benefit analysis, brand encumbrance, rational loyalty, or loyalty trap) (Ahn, 2025). Brand switching is the deliberate or unintentional, active or passive act of altering one's brand loyalty due to social validation, emotional appeal, clearly stated functional value, and constantly shifting marketing rhetoric that aims to redraw the lines of allegiance (Dawi et al., 2018). Brand switching is the process by which customers or households switch brands within the same category of products or services (Karimbanakkal & Mullappallykayamkulath, 2022). This behaviour is often explained by a change in how the brand, its quality, value, or experience are perceived (Malhotra & Kubowicz-Malhotra, 2013). The relationship between customers and brands is symbiotic and always changing as a result of marketing tactics, customer service,

changes in taste and preference, innovation, and brand alterations (Malhotra and Kubowicz-Malhotra, 2013).

Brand switching is a key marketing tactic that demonstrates how consumer behaviour is evolving. Customers transfer brands for a number of reasons, according to more research on the topic. Concerning Ibrahim-Awwad et al (2025). Brand switching is defined by consumer behaviour as the act of a customer moving to a different brand, which may occur due to competition or brand dissatisfaction. Furthermore, Shatat and Hayat (2020) emphasise the range of variables that affect consumer loyalty and point out that this conduct may result from a customer's positive brand loyalty rather than a negative one. Because it varies over time and is not continuous, customer loyalty presents a difficulty for marketers. The primary reasons for this variable commitment are new marketing initiatives and changing marketing tactics (Ilham, 2018). In terms of service quality, Lin (2012) discovered that the main cause of consumer brand switching is poor service. It also illustrates how customer loyalty may be significantly impacted by the brand's service quality. To put it simply, a brand's service quality must meet the standards in order to reduce the likelihood of a customer transferring. It also emphasises that a customer may decide to quit a company if it does not provide good quality service, which might harm the brand's image (Ilham, 2018).

Chang et al (2023) focused on brand switching, defining it as the act of purchasing from a competitor and subsequently switching to a different brand. Furthermore, advertising efforts, loyalty plans, and queue extensions could have an impact on these modifications (Ahn, 2025). According to certain research, brand switching is the process by which consumers choose to use a rival brand rather than their preferred one (Chuang and Tai, 2016). This is often caused by marketing strategies, rival price offers, changing customer preferences, negative past experiences, discontent with the product or service, or overall discontent with the perceived value obtained (Ibrahim-Awwad, 2025).

Taken together, brand switching is a consumer behaviour that is both complicated and constantly changing. It is not a sudden or impulsive act, instead, it shows that the shopper has thought again about the link between self plus brand. The consumer has reached a turning point where earlier loyalty breaks down because expectations shift, the offer seems less valuable, service quality drops, emotional pull fades or another firm provides a better option. People weigh facts and also respond to feelings or social cues but also the outcome appears both in single households and across the whole market altering how rivals compete as well as how goods are consumed. Because of that, brand switching is a key idea for grasping why loyalty weakens, how markets

move and what strategic problems brands confront in arenas that grow more crowded or more talkative every year.

1.4 Factors contributing to brand switching

There are many reasons why people switch brands. In reality, the adoption of new technology has recently caused problems for a number of businesses. According to Cheng et al. (2021), over 62% of users discontinue meal delivery applications because of poor order tracking, poor UI design, and a lack of utility. According to Cheng and Ahmad et al. (2025), the availability of technology has boosted competition and sparked a need for more seamless technology, particularly among the younger Z generation. Technology is a convenience factor that influences customer loyalty (Banerjee et al., 2019).

One social pull element of the push-pull migration theory is operational inefficiency, which drives customers to seek out faster, less inefficient, and more dependable services (Chang et al., 2023). Failing to provide requested items is one example of operational inefficiency that weakens brand trust and heightens brand competition. According to Osman et al. (2024), convenience is another element that transforms operational inefficiency into a psychological problem. According to Osman et al. (2024), loyalty manifests as cognitive heuristics in queue circumstances. Put another way, any degree of operational inefficiency would result in a loss of customers in a market that is highly competitive. Operational effectiveness is a key kind of strategy in these situations. In this case, subpar operations lead to the simultaneous loss of customers, market share, and reputation (Tan, et al, 2024).

The concept of lifestyle fit and situational relevance is important as well since consumers tend to switch to the brands that can better suit their needs or situations at the moment (Lehto, Park, and Gordon, 2015). The switching incentives can be fueled by platform specificities and usability in the case of digital services, where interface design, ease of navigation, and the availability of features can form formidable pull forces to competitors (Tseng and Teng, 2014).

Past experiences of brand failure such as perceived unfairness or inconsistencies increase switching propensities, which are moderated by brand attachment and switching costs (Anton, Camarero, and Carrero, 2007). Perception and comparisons of prices are still influential stimuli, as clients will swiftly turn to the other options that provide superior financial or emotional rewards (Li and Cheng, 2014). There is contractual elasticity, offers, as well as perceived rewards that affect switching intentions, particularly highly price-sensitive groups (Patel, 2024). Moreover, brand image, trust, and emotional ties are also determinants of the essential nature, and the emotional resonance strength can reduce switching despite the occurrence of small failures, whereas the weak brand perception can hasten it (Lehto et al., 2015; Nimako and Ntim, 2015). The changing behavior is further enhanced by social and peer pressure because

recommendations, reviews, and network pressure form extrinsic validation that can lead consumers to shift towards other brands (Patel, 2024).

One important factor in brand switching is price sensitivity (perception). Customers often switch brands in search of better value (Bernarto et al., 2020). Price, according to Akegbejo-Samsons (2021), is crucial for customer loyalty and value in online meal delivery. Brand loyalty is weak when customers discover comparable services at much lower costs. Price-sensitive students and young professionals are particularly at risk from this trend (Bernarto et al., 2020). Ahmad et al. (2025) demonstrate that when a brand keeps its prices close to or below rival offers, customers are more willing to open the same meal delivery app again. The data leave no doubt - firms that refuse to match competitors' short-term deals are, in effect failing at basic customer care. Banerjee et al. (2019) report the same pattern among Generation Z, who drop brands with uncompetitive prices - taken together, the studies point to price as the main lever that decides whether a client stays.

Image and simple brand recognition also steer switching behaviour. Bernarto et al. (2020) find that when buyers view a brand as trustworthy and reliable they stay but one burst of negative publicity is enough to reverse that loyalty. The moment quality or dependability is questioned; shoppers start looking elsewhere. A brand caught in a public relations scandal sees trust evaporate and patrons leave in large numbers. Chang et al. (2023) apply the push-pull-mooring model to on demand food delivery. Their work identifies which brand attributes attract, which conditions repel and which barriers keep customers from moving. A reputation for green practices pulls environmentally minded buyers - reports of wasteful or harmful policies push them away. The overall standing of the brand therefore decides whether loyalty rises or falls.

Emotional attachment underlies many of those effects - when buyers feel a strong bond with a brand they stay - without it they switch. Ahn (2025) shows that those emotional ties are among the strongest predictors of whether a consumer will abandon one food delivery service for another. Strong brand identification makes consumers more tolerant of subpar customer service or high prices. If brands fail to build an emotional connection with their customers, they run the danger of being seen as just commodities (Bernarto et al., 2020).

Branding initiatives that include an ethos expression, a story, or a combination of these are successful in creating emotional bonds (Osman et al, 2024). Customers are less likely to choose a rival brand when a business uses this kind of branding. According to Ahn (2025), marketers should concentrate on creating emotional ties in order to increase loyalty and reduce the likelihood of switching. Social marketing, referral marketing, and other trends are examples of external

factors that impact switching. These information sources are created and disseminated via a customer's social networks or relationships.

Banerjee et al. (2019) state that consumer switching and poor branding often target companies, which, if left unchecked, may seriously harm a brand's reputation and cause consumers to switch brands. Consider what happens to businesses when they are accused of not being socially responsible. Customers strongly choose socially conscientious businesses, according to Banerjee et al. (2019). Because of the competitive environment, marketers must persuade consumers to switch brands. In reaction to the threat presented by new rivals, established businesses work to protect their customers and market share. The availability of substitute brands may influence consumers to switch to new ones, especially if they believe the new brands provide better quality and value (Chang et al, 2023). In general, companies need to maintain market reactivity, agility, and brand integrity because they are factors needed to sustain customer loyalty and confidence.

1.5 Dissatisfaction with the digital service quality as an antecedent of brand switching intentions

Like any other establishment, the digital services sector faces intense competition, thus it must continuously assess the quality of customer service. Customers are more inclined to look for better options from other suppliers if they are dissatisfied with digital services. Consumers will be dissatisfied if the service provided does not live up to their expectations, which will lower customer loyalty and retention (Elkhani and Bakri, 2012). Customers would therefore actively research other brands).

Also, dependability, certainty, and responsiveness all influence consumer perceptions and brand trust. Customer satisfaction and service quality were shown to be significantly correlated by Falk, Hammerschmidt, and Schepers (2010), with any discontent lowering the perceived value of the service. By comparing performance against expectations, the expectancy disconfirmation gap and service quality model illustrates how service quality is assessed (Demirel, 2022).

When digital services fall short of customers' expectations, they lose value (Eaint, 2022). These ramifications will gradually weaken brand loyalty and make it disposable (Elkhani and Bakri , 2012). A brand's reputation might be harmed by unfavourable comments. Fatima and Billah (2022) claim that dissatisfied consumers comment about their bad experiences, which damages a brand's reputation and encourages them to choose rivals. Social media has made it simple for millions of people to hear about poor service, which may harm a brand's image. In the digital world, bad customer service can shrink a company's share of the market and destroy the loyalty

customers feel toward the brand (Eaint, 2022). Firms must realise that inferior service steadily wears away that loyalty.

The gap between what customers expect plus what they receive in this setting is too large to ignore. People form their expectations from advertising or from what they have gone through before - when the real experience falls short, they often respond with anger or outrage (Antón, Camarero, & Carrero, 2007). That reaction sharply raises the chance that they will switch to a rival. It is essential to grasp that when a firm's promises and its day-to-day performance do not match, customers read the mismatch as dishonesty. The lesson is plain, if a company wants to avoid dissatisfaction but also the resulting loss of loyalty, it must deliver a service that lives up to the expectations it has created (Su, et al, 2022).

The way a digital service looks and behaves on the screen is critical, because it decides whether the experience delights or disappoints the user as well as it reveals how capably the firm can engage and serve its public. Dalimunthe and Suryani (2024) state that a clear, well planned interface raises users' opinions of the service or their enjoyment of it. When the interface is clumsy or confusing, people feel anger, irritation and deep dissatisfaction. Those who already find technology difficult may abandon the service also search for something simpler. Good design, therefore, keeps customers in the online market.

Eaint (2022) widens the lens, looking at other elements of satisfaction that hinge on how the service is delivered. Eaint (2022) states that a digital service is often hard to use - the reason is that customer care staff work under tight time limits and other rigid conditions. Because pages load slowly, users can be sent to a competing provider within seconds.

Cleme, Gan and Ren (2011) show that the final outcome depends on how satisfied the customer is, how valuable the service seems plus how good the service actually is. If the digital offer is weak, loyalty falls. In markets that hold many buyers and strong competition, people change brands with little effort. The ease of switching underlines the worth of the service but also pushes firms to meet the highest standards.

Overall, a bad digital product speeds up brand turnover and when buyers are dissatisfied with what they receive, they stop trusting the firm. Slow systems, unstable performance, weak help desks and clumsy screens frustrate them as well as they turn to other brands for support. As such, a small slip in service harms the firm's image and causes switching intentions, because switching to another brand is often easy and bad reviews travel fast.

1.6 Digital Service Quality Definition

“Digital service quality” is the full judgement of the technical, functional and experiential features of a digital platform and how those features shape user satisfaction and loyalty. Digital service quality looks at mobile app speed, the look of the interface, safe payments, tailored user experience, reliable delivery and on time completion next to quick interaction (Khan et al., 2023). E-service quality, according to researchers that examine food delivery companies, is a system of interconnected elements that affect customer impression, including service assurance, assistance, and logistical integration (Cheng et al., 2021). This idea takes into account consumer psychology as negative electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) from dissatisfaction in a digital setting often lowers brand loyalty (Sharma et al., 2023). Regardless of competition, e-service quality boosts purchase intent, referral propensity, emotional and behavioural attachment, long-term loyalty, and enduring trust (Su et al., 2022; Osman et al., 2024). Online interactions have the ability to damage a brand's reputation. Digital service quality has become a crucial indicator of market competitiveness, as reliable digital interactions and ecosystems are growing market share while ineffective online interactions are speeding up competitor attrition (Wu et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2024). Therefore, in an increasingly competitive digital market for stiff organisations, the quality of digital services should be seen as both a current operational criteria and a strategic indication of customer loyalty and competitive advantage.

The customer's experience with a digital service, including their website visit, navigation and layout, responsiveness, and functionality, determines its quality (Hernando and Gunawan, 2021). Zehir and Narcikara (2016) state that first rate digital services raise satisfaction and keep clients. Karimbanakkal and Mullappallykayamkulath (2022) show that optimistic e-loyalty rises when a site reacts quickly, looks clear plus works without fail. Su et al. (2022) add that service quality on any online platform has the same strong effect on loyalty. The frame covers technical parts, functional parts and visual parts. Lin et al. (2023) report that reliable logistics raise satisfaction but also the wish to order again, while Wu et al. (2024) stress that quality digital service keeps the buyer.

Cheng et al. (2021) define digital service quality as the shopper's ability to finish a task - examples are food preparation, delivery and help-desk care. Khan et al. (2023) insist that digital services must be orderly as well as work well. Osman et al. (2024) find that risk checks and service quality inside an online halal food delivery system strongly shape satisfaction. One judges an online service by its digital quality. In fact, Lin et al. (2024) list four drivers that steer both service quality or user action - ease of use, personal fit, speed and quick reply. Strategic service quality is the

top sign of digital engagement and loyalty. It emphasises that every online touchpoint must give clear value.

Service now runs through digital platforms. Satisfaction also leads to loyalty rise when the firm meets expectations and that depends on reliable digital tools next to on the shift of processes into digital form (Eaint, 2022). Eaint (2022) counts timeliness, reliability, overall design and site parts as core digital traits. A steady, trouble free design raises satisfaction plus loyalty. Demirel (2022) shows that a firm's digital goods lift satisfaction and loyalty. Su et al. (2022) treat digital service quality as the blend of technical traits, functional traits but also firm reputation - they also note that consistent corporate image rests on consistent digital goods.

Inclusively, responsiveness, speed, reliability, security, personal fit and design are all important in understanding what digital service quality entails. This is because, high-quality digital services provide businesses a significant competitive edge in today's digital-first industries by raising customer satisfaction.

1.7 Dimensions of Digital Service Quality

Several dimensions may be used to assess the quality of digital services. Among them is reliability. Reliability is an important factor in determining digital service quality. It is concerned with the service's capacity to provide results and fulfil performance requirements within a certain time frame. According to Lin et al. (2024), consumers anticipate faultless execution of digital services aimed for mobile phones and other portable devices since they are so significant. Consumers get enraged when services fail to offer critical information in a timely way. Lin (2012) suggests that customers of digital services may have unrealistic expectations of speed and accuracy. As consumers' concerns about service acquisition rise, they want services, particularly health services, that are provided with amazing accuracy. Patients, in particular, want digital services to be reliable and available at all times. This issue was raised by Malhotra and Malhotra (2013), who said that in the mobile services business, service reliability is an important aspect in determining client satisfaction.

Digital service consistency is critical for establishing user trust and loyalty, which enhances retention. Furthermore, although dependability has a long-term influence on customer retention, the benefits extend well beyond addressing a client's immediate needs. According to Nikbin, Marimuthu, and Hyun (2016), perceived service fairness and reliability have a significant impact on customer loyalty, retention, and willingness to transfer providers. When consumers believe a service meets their expectations, they are less inclined to switch and are more likely to develop a

connection with the source (Su et al., 2022). As a result, consistently reliable digital services are critical for long-term loyalty and customer pleasure.

Responsiveness is a well-known dimension of quality digital services that is often regarded as essential, but its value is not limited to answering inquiries of customers (Lin et al., 2023). It was found out that responsiveness directly influences customer satisfaction and indirectly influences loyalty as it forms the image of service reliability and fairness (Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman, 1996). Nevertheless, the major weakness of the current research is the premise that responsiveness is sufficient to guarantee engagement; the empirical data reveal that even highly responsive services could be unable to retain the customers when other aspects of service quality are overlooked (Wu et al., 2024). Besides, the aspect of responsiveness is especially significant in case of service failures, since the response can be timely to prevent adverse effects, but poor consistency in the quality of responses can further frustrate the customers (Tan et al., 2024). In digitally mediated services, Suryawardani and Wulandari (2020) claim that delays or poor response not only lead to a decrease in satisfaction but also to switching intentions, which is why the responsiveness in the operation of online and offline settings is asymmetrical.

Personalization is another important aspect of the quality of digital services, but its efficiency is determined by the accuracy and applicability of customization (Mannayong, 2024). Although the literature generally depicts personalization as something that is always good, research has shown that improperly done personalization can increase customer dissatisfaction, particularly when customer expectation is not fulfilled or when privacy is violated (Zehir and Narcikara, 2016). According to Nikhashemi, Valaei, and Tarofder (2017), meaningful customer data should be the basis of personalization to increase perceived value, but numerous digital services do not incorporate the idea of behavioral insights, thus restricting the perceived value of the practice in building loyalty. According to Xu, Blankson, and Prybitok (2017), in the design of integrated service strategies, these interdependencies are important to gain maximum satisfaction and minimize switching behavior.

As a qualitative aspect of digital service, convenience is directly connected to usability and accessibility, although the role in loyalty is under-theorized (Lin et al., 2024). Convenience is not just about the ease of access but includes navigation, user-friendly interfaces, and effective completion of tasks (Opare-Ansah, 2024). Web-based literature reviews indicate that most of the platforms focus too much on technical efficiency and do not take into account the cognitive load required of users, which may negatively affect perceived convenience and heighten switching intention (Wu, Gao, et al., 2024). Van Ryzin (2013) points out that convenience measures rely on

consistency with user expectations and therefore disconfirmation in regards to convenience may cause disproportions of negative responses. Moreover, Suryawardani and Wulandari (2020) emphasize that convenience is a factor that interacts with the trust and perceived reliability, as even a convenient platform may not be able to keep customers in case of errors or failures.

The main shortage of present research is the absence of focus on the interaction of digital service quality dimensions. According to Su et al. (2022), the emphasis put on a single dimension, e.g., responsiveness or personalization, can yield minimal positive effects since customers consider services as a whole. To illustrate, a service can react promptly to questions, however, insufficient personalization or a complicated interface can still lead to dissatisfaction (Zehir and Narcikara, 2016). Likewise, Wu et al. (2024) believe that reliability and lack of responsiveness can lead to frustration and propose that a combined model is necessary. According to Pereira et al. (2015), cross-dimensional interaction is expected to help organizations to develop more unified digital experiences, but empirical research on integrative models of cross-dimensional interaction is limited.

More so, the quality of digital services should be assessed within the more general framework of the behavioral response, which consist of switching intentions and negative electronic word-of-mouth. As Tan et al. (2024) show, the lack of responsiveness or personalization may rapidly increase the level of dissatisfaction and cause a public outcry, which can further affect the position of bystanders in favor of negative customer experiences (Zhang and Weng, 2025). This highlights the imperativeness of tracking, revival, and holistic service design since digital failures possess both direct and mediated socially effects (Wu et al., 2024; Zehir and Narcikara, 2016). According to Lin et al. (2023), future studies are advised to explicitly model these interactions in order to offer practical lessons to managers aiming to minimize attrition and create loyalty in digital environments that are complex.

Therefore, responsiveness, personalization, and convenience are part of key dimensions of digital service quality.

1.8 Relationship between dissatisfaction with digital service quality and brand switching intentions

In a more digital market, customer dissatisfaction with the quality of digital services has become one of the most prevalent antecedents of brand switching behaviour (Lin, Au, and Baum, 2024). Online services influence the attitudes of consumers toward brand competence and commitment and that when they fail, the interaction can lead to strong psychological responses previously unrelated in the traditional service paradigm (Karimbanakkal and Mullappallykayamkulath, 2022).

According to Jung (2023), nowadays users associate being convenient and reliable with being professional within a brand; anything that does not follow these criteria decreases the level of satisfaction and loyalty. The emotions associated with dissatisfaction occur when the digital experience fails to comply with the assured value, leading consumers to reconsider their association with the brand (Lee, Hung, and Chen, 2022). The modern digital buyer is no longer forgiving to technological setbacks as before; even small glitches or lag in responses are a trigger to migrate to other companies that provide a smoother experience (Osman, Omar, Ratnasari, Furqon, & Sultan, 2024). This is particularly strong in sectors like online food delivery and mobile commerce, where the interaction is consistent, and the demands to find an immediate solution are inculcated (Lin, Mamun, Yang, and Masukujjaman, 2023). Because of that, the dissatisfaction with the quality of digital services ceases to merely indicate a negative experience, it redefines the attitude of customers who look at the overall brand relationship (Opare-Ansah, 2024).

Reliability is also a decisive factor of digital satisfaction and a key precursor of switching intention (Xu, Blankson, and Prybutok, 2017). Reliability in the online setting means more to the operational performance, but it is also a matter of integrity and consistency in online interactions (Zehir and Narcikara, 2016). Customers lose their sense of reliability when they have a failure or a promise that is broken, and the trust is lost within a short period of time (Khan, Pervez, Khanum, and Khan, 2023). The lack of reliability, as highlighted by Xu et al. (2017), leads to a cognitive dissonance developing among the users as they start doubting whether the brand will be able to fulfill even its most fundamental promises. The uncertainty redefines brand meaning and what used to be reliable has been turned into something frustrating. As proved by Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra (2013), the failure of reliability with mobile services over time raises a level of distrust that is long-lasting and cannot be overcome by service recovery. These failures create permanent memories in the mind of the consumer, and this affects their decision-making in the future. It does not only lead to dissatisfaction of transactions but also the consumer emotional state that may turn contemptuous or resentful of the brand (Peng, Scott, Prybutok, and Sidorova, 2014).

Reliability, as an inconsistent aspect, also disputes the concept of fairness and accountability (Nikbin, Marimuthu, and Hyun, 2016). According to Zehir and Narcikara (2016), digital users perceive trustworthy systems as an indicator that the company can be trusted, and breaches are indicative of a lack of concern about the customer. This point of view correlates with the expectancy-disconfirmation theory, in which the lack of fulfillment causes the perceived inequity and disconfirmation of previous beliefs (Lee et al., 2022). The customer tolerance level decreases as they are subjected to repeated service failures, and the level of dissatisfaction increases (Suryawardani and Wulandari, 2020). This way, reliability is an ethical measure and not

necessarily a technical measure. In cases where companies do not take this dimension into consideration, consumers tend to convert reliability inconsistencies into what they consider moral failures, which further increase their desire to switch (Xu et al., 2017). The ultimate effect of the lack of reliability is, therefore, more severe than instant frustration- it erodes trust, speeds up defection and destroys brand equity.

Responsiveness is one more important element of digital service quality that has a significant influence on satisfaction and switching behaviour. It means the timeliness and sufficiency of the response of the firm to consumer needs (Lin et al., 2023). Online customers want immediate responses, 24/7 support, and active communication (Osman et al., 2024). In the event that these expectations are not delivered, consumers feel abandoned, and this is a direct trigger to dissatisfaction (Wang and Zhou, 2023). Lin (2012) discovered that responsiveness has the ability to compensate the dissatisfaction in case of service failure, which indicates its compensatory ability. However, the same can be said in the opposite: even small problems are turned into big complaints by an unresponsive system. Indifference is felt as customers lose confidence in the competency of the brand when digital platforms cannot provide the answers in a reasonable amount of time (Tan, Li, Yang, Yan, and Lin, 2024).

Besides, responsiveness has a two-fold role in digital service recovery and customer retention. According to Sozer and Civelek (2018), the feeling of respect and attentiveness is supported by responsiveness of service systems, and the slow or impersonal interaction results in the perception of arrogance. Speed is not the only expected attribute in digital responses as customers have begun to demand empathy (Zhang and Weng, 2025). Combining automated solutions and human touchpoints in brands develops increased satisfaction and loyalty as stated by Lin et al. (2024). Meanwhile, companies that use robotic, generic responses only face a risk of losing users who demand more than just a reply (Wu et al., 2024). Responsiveness therefore acts as a psychological assurance system. It is an indication that the firm appreciates the time and concerns of the customer and establishes a stronger relationship. Once the responsiveness reduces, the bond breaks down, and the intentions switch.

Moreso, personalization also determines the course of dissatisfaction and brand switching. Mannayong (2024) notes that digital customization has ceased to be a luxury marketing tool and now serves as a service requirement. The customers desire the brands to foresee their needs, recall preferences, and customize communication (Nikhashemi, Valaei, and Tarofder, 2017). The failure to fulfill these expectations causes the customers to perceive the experience as impersonal, which provokes disengagement (Nikbin et al., 2016). The lack of personalization is

therefore a source of dissatisfaction that diminishes the perceived depth of the relationship of the service (Lin et al., 2024). Unpersonalization in the online space makes the user believe that no one sees them and does not appreciate them, which strengthens the belief that one is of no interest to the brand (Osman et al., 2024).

Importantly, the lack of personalization does not simply decrease the satisfaction--it increases the comparisons. Customers compare the non-data-driven, personalized experience to other competitors who have adaptive and data-driven customization (Jung, 2023). Tolerance to generic service declines sharply as it is realized by customers that they have encountered high levels of personalization in other places (Opare-Ansah, 2024). This relative discontent drives them to the brands that are more relevant and comprehensive. On the other hand, generic service encounters bring about cognitive disconnection and increase the switching motivation. Therefore, personalization is a buffer between exit behaviour and dissatisfaction. It has no emotional anchors, which maintain long-term relationships, resulting in a faster rate of consumer churn (Karimbanakkal & Mullappallykayamkulath, 2022).

Another aspect of digital service quality, convenience, has been a prominent influence on satisfaction and a major factor in switching intention (Opare-Ansah, 2024). The convenience is measured by the customers based on the factors of access, ease of navigation, and efficiency of the task (Lin et al., 2023). When online services require too many procedures or lack user-friendly design, the frustration will accumulate, and the dissatisfaction will occur (Su et al., 2022). According to Wu et al. (2018), digital consumers relate convenience with time respect. Thus, inaccessibility and complicated interfaces are indicators of non-caring of the user needs. The ensuing discontent stimulates them to find other more efficient alternatives.

There is also an interaction between convenience and perceived control and usability. In cases where users have difficulties in performing simple tasks, they feel a sense of loss of control, which increases dissatisfaction (Van Ryzin, 2013). This powerlessness contributes to some negative emotional reactions and diminished faith in the system (Zehir & Narcikara, 2016). Convenience has a direct impact on the purchase intentions and levels of satisfaction in the food delivery and e-commerce industries (Wu et al., 2024). According to Lin et al. (2024), the brands that simplify the digital experience develop the habitual loyalty, whereas those with the clumsy systems develop disloyalty and switching. Opare-Ansah (2024) discovered that the disruptions in the service or downtime even in brief cases can trigger disproportional responses among consumers who are already used to instant access. Hence, not only does convenience failures produce

dissatisfaction, but it symbolically serves to signify how the brand lacks the thinking of its customers.

On top of these personal dimensions, the contextual variables that mediate the relationship between dissatisfaction and brand switching include loyalty, fairness perception and switching cost. According to Sozer, Uzpeder, and Ozcan (2023), dissatisfaction is not necessarily always associated with immediate switching behaviour but it combines with the strength of loyalty and cost-benefit considerations. The issue is that sometimes loyal customers can accept low-quality digital services as emotions are more important than frustration (Zehir & Narcikara, 2016). But, according to Malhotra and Kubowicz Malhotra (2013), these emotional reserves are worn out by repeated dissatisfaction, forcing even loyal consumers to switch. Conversely, exit behaviour can be inhibited temporarily by high switching costs, both financial and psychological and procedural (Sharma et al., 2023). However, in the online world, these expenses are reducing because technology is making comparison and migration easier (Peng et al., 2014). Hence, the moderating effect of switching cost decays with time, and dissatisfaction is a more direct and effective predictor of brand switching.

More than that, this relationship is complicated by motivational prejudices. Van Ryzin (2013) discovered that when customers relate service failures to external factors, the less inclined to blame the brand. But as the dissatisfaction grows, the attribution is inwarded - the brand does not provide the perceived source of frequent frustration (Lee et al., 2022). This shift of mind turns dissatisfaction into a willful rejection. The negative experiences are therefore not discrete stimuli but the accumulation of the judgment against brand competence (Suryawardani and Wulandari, 2020). Satisfaction becomes contagious; when fuelled by social pressure and online criticism, it goes viral across the digital network (Tan et al., 2024). Unsatisfied customers often complain on social media, which defines the perception of the rest of the customers and makes a collective switching behaviour process faster (Zhang and Weng, 2025).

Finally, customer dissatisfaction with the quality of digital services is more than a breakdown in the performance of operations: it is an indicator of a breakdown in the relationships (Xu et al., 2017). Trust is destroyed by reliability failures; care is disrupted by unresponsiveness; attachment is destroyed by lack of personalization; and frustration is created by inconvenience (Mannayong, 2024). The net impact of these dimensions is that dissatisfaction is converted into active search (Opare-Ansah, 2024). With the maturity of digital markets and the increase in customer expectations, those companies that ignore the psychological and emotional aspects of the service quality may face an irreparable loss of brands (Lin et al., 2024). In response to this, companies

have to move beyond reactive recovery and focus on proactive digital empathy, which involves predicting problems and adjusting services and constantly tracking customer sentiment (Wu et al., 2024). It is by being this strategically alert that companies can alleviate dissatisfaction and maintain loyalty and decrease brand switching in a digital age of immediacy and consumer empowerment (Zehir & Narcikara, 2016).

This sub-section therefore, proves that the dissatisfaction with the quality of digital service directly increases brand switching intentions. This is especially true in digital markets where changing brands takes no time at all.

2. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY

2.1 Aim of the Research

In academic research, methodology serves as the basis for scientific enquiries. According to Gupta and Gupta (2022) and Ahir and Deshmukh (2025), methodology is a comprehensive concept that incorporates the systematic techniques, concepts, and philosophical foundations that govern the collecting, processing, and interpretation of data in order to make the results reliable. Asemah and Nwaoboli (2024) argue that a methodology that has been methodically designed expounds not only the technical procedures that were used but also the justification behind the effectiveness of those processes in accomplishing the study objectives.

Furthermore, in accordance with the aforementioned academic assertions, this chapter outlines the methodological frameworks that were used in order to carry out an empirical study on the impact of Digital Service Quality Dissatisfaction on Brand Switching Intentions in the Food Delivery Sector. This chapter provides an overview of the study design, the methodological framework, the sampling strategy, the instrument construction, the data analysis techniques, and the ethical considerations that were taken into account throughout the research process. As stated earlier, the aim of this study is to investigate the impact of digital service quality dissatisfaction on brand switching intentions within the food delivery industry.

2.2 Conceptual Model and Hypothesis

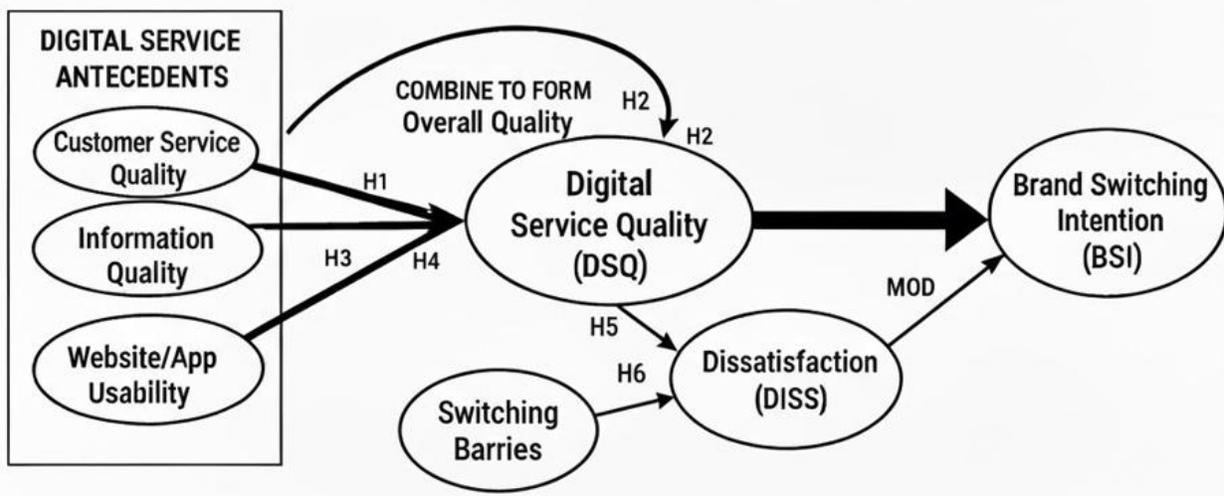


Figure 1: Research model of Digital Service Quality (by author, 2025)

Figure 1 shows the Conceptual Model of the Research. This model shows the impact of digital service quality (DSQ) on the customer's intention to switch brands in the food delivery service industry in both direct and indirect effects. The study understands and analyses the digital service quality concept as customer service quality, information quality, and usability of the website / app as the three primary constituents and the overall performances of the digital services as the customer's perception of the digital services to be controlled.

Furthermore, the model shows dissatisfaction as the main moderator and explains mechanism of how digital service quality failure leads customers to switch to another food delivery service. Although DSQ does have direct impact on switching intention, the model describes dissatisfaction as the main emotional response and digital services failure as the service.

The model includes switching barriers to capture the moderating impact of external factors such as effort, cost, alternatives, or dependence on specific features of the platform that may either lessen or heighten the impact of dissatisfaction on intention to switch. In this regard, even dissatisfied users may stay on a service if switching is difficult.

The following hypotheses are developed to examine the connections among digital service quality, customer dissatisfaction, and brand switching. They investigate how elements like customer support, the quality of information provided, and the ease of platform use affect digital service quality, how reductions in service quality result in customer dissatisfaction, and how dissatisfaction along with other factors contribute to the intention to switch brands.

Therefore, the hypotheses are explained thus:

H1 - The Quality of Customer Service Positively Impacts the Digital Service Quality (DSQ)

In case of digital service recovery scenarios, the overall customer service quality remains the central pivot of digitised service evaluation. Customer support in online food delivery services, tech telecommunications, and mobile services, have, and continue, to demonstrate through quick empathetic support that service quality perceptions can be positively influenced and negative service failure reactions can be mitigated (Osman et al 2024; Opore-Ansah 2024). When customer support systems work well, users trust the provider's digital operations more and rate the overall digital service more highly. So, higher customer service quality contributes positively to perceived *Digital Service Quality*.

H2 - Quality of Information Positively Impacts Digital Service Quality (DSQ).

In the scale of Information Quality criteria including accuracy, clarity, completeness, timeliness, and relevance, to digital service delivery, Information Quality is a great predictor of digital service

delivery. Information confusion and mistrust fostered by poor quality information, results to dissatisfaction (Osman et al 2024). The information high in quality promulgates trust and increases confidence and user efficiency (Ong et al, 2013). Therefore, quality information services reduces perceived risk, enhances decision-making and contributes significantly to service quality perceptions.

H3 – Website/App Usability has a positive influence on Digital Service Quality (DSQ)

Usability, the ease with which users find their way, click and finish tasks, has repeatedly been tied to favourable verdicts on online services (Ong et al., 2013). A tidy layout, a navigation path that works plus a design that serves a clear purpose all lift the user's view of digital service quality. Usability is a key driver of DSQ.

H4 – Reductions in Digital Service Quality Significantly increases Dissatisfaction with Digital Service Quality (DSQ)

When customers notice that a digital service is not performing optimally, they tend to grow dissatisfied because they sense the service is no longer meeting their needs and is letting them down. On food delivery platforms, where speed, accuracy but also reliability matter most, any decline in service quality triggers harsher judgments and stronger negative feelings (Osman et al., 2024). Gaps between what customers expect as well as what they receive widen the dissatisfaction showing that a fall in DSQ leads straight to unfavourable reactions (Opere-Ansah, 2024). Lower DSQ is therefore expected to raise customer dissatisfaction markedly.

H5 – Dissatisfaction (DISS) positively impacts Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Researchers such as Ofori, Otu & Addae (2015) and Patel (2024) who worked on service quality and customer satisfaction suggest that dissatisfaction reflects a breakdown in the psychological relationship between user and service and explains the mechanism by which user abandonment is motivated. This explains and supports why dissatisfaction leads to greater switching intention. Within the scope by which users leave a service provider, dissatisfaction is the strongest moderator of switching intention in the fields of telecommunications, mobile service providers, and users of digital delivery platforms (Patel, 2024). This implies that when users become dissatisfied, they will seek other providers.

H6 – Dissatisfaction (DISS) mediates the relationship between Digital Service Quality (DSQ) and Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

The negativity that dissatisfaction carries is the primary reason service quality (or the quality of digital service in this case) is not the sole driver of switching intention, but rather the negative

emotion that service quality (or digital service quality) generates. Research shows that in digital environments, quality failures initiate the cycle which results in switching dissatisfaction, then intention to switch (Patel, 2024; Ong et al., 2013). This explains why lack of service quality (or digital service quality) mediates the relationship between DSQ to BSI.

H7 – Switching Barriers are influenced by Dissatisfaction and impact Brand Switching Intention

Switching barriers such as financial cost, time required to switch, contract obligations and limited alternatives can make a potential consumer want to switch. If it is hard to switch, people who are dissatisfied with a company may stay with it even after bad experiences. People want to switch quickly when they are unhappy when barriers are low (Ofori et al., 2015; Patel, 2024). So, switching barriers can either make the effect of dissatisfaction on BSI stronger or weaker.

H8: Digital Service Quality (DSQ) positively influences Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Dissatisfaction is a core mediator in the model. However, previous researches propose that low perceived service quality can trigger switching behaviour directly and without emotional mediation (Ofori et al., 2015; Patel, 2024). It is also expected that when users perceive low DSQ compared to other competitors, this can trigger an intention to switch even if dissatisfaction has not yet been fully realised. Thus, DSQ is expected to positively influence Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

2.3 Research Design

A research design is a well-defined strategy that explains the methods used to gather and evaluate data in order to guarantee that the outcomes are accurate, objective, and capable of being replicated (Verma, Verma and Abhishek, 2024). In fact, Willmott (2020) asserts that the study design functions as a methodical framework that establishes a connection between theoretical assumptions and empirical facts.

The study relied on a survey that asks every respondent the same questions. The fixed format lets researchers gather answers from many people and later test whether dissatisfaction with digital services really pushes users to switch providers (Ahir & Deshmukh, 2025; Mishra & Alok, 2022). Only numbers that could be compared were used, because the goal was to measure how much dissatisfaction affects switching intention.

2.4 Methods and Procedures of Data Collection

The work follows a positivist view which believes that if something cannot be observed and counted, it is not admitted as evidence. Ahir and Deshmukh (2025) note that figures collected this way are less distorted by the researcher's own opinions and let the reader see how changes in

one variable line up with changes in another. Willmott (2020) adds that once the figures are in hand, standard statistical tests give a clear verdict on each hypothesis, the quantitative route was adopted to secure an accurate outcome.

2.5 Selection (Sampling) of Respondents

Sampling means taking a small group that stands for the whole crowd (Mishra & Alok, 2022). Purposive sampling was applied - people were chosen because they had specific experience with the digital services under study, a tactic Asemah and Nwaoboli (2024) recommend when expertise, not randomness, is required.

Individuals who resided residing in Lithuania and who make use of online meal delivery service websites and their Applications such as Bolt (<https://bolt.eu/en-ng/food>), Wolt (<https://wolt.com/?utm=>) and LastMile (<https://www.lastmile.lt/>) were the target audience for this study. The use of this method ensured that the study was conducted with just those persons who had direct experience in the interactions that take place with digital service providers and have at one time or the other been dissatisfied with food service delivery industries. To ensure that only those who have had experiences of dissatisfaction were sampled, the questionnaire will indicate that only those who have had such experience are the ones qualified to fill the questionnaire. Moreso, in order to ensure that respondents to this study have indeed experienced service dissatisfactions, this study will purposively have screening questions at the start of the questionnaire. Respondents will be asked if they have used food delivery applications over the past six months and if they had at least one service experience dissatisfaction on their most recent delivery service experience. This will be determined using mandatory filter questions such as, "On your last order where you used a food delivery app, did you experience any type of dissatisfaction regarding service delivery such as, customer service, timeliness, etc.?" People answering "Yes" will be the only ones who will be able to answer the full survey and others excluded from the study. This process will help the researcher capture the potential full-service dissatisfaction experience to ensure the real response will be valuable to the study and will reflect the true underlying dissatisfactions of service delivery systems and the intention to switch brands within food delivery. This method is in agreement with the findings of Saharan et al (2024), who argue that the use of purposive sampling enhances the statistical significance of the information gathered during the examination of specialist groups.

To reach a sample size, the researcher conducted a comparative examination of 5 previous researches that were conducted under similar conditions which adopted quantitative research

methods with a focus on dissatisfaction, brand switching. After the analysis, the average (220) of the sample size was then selected for this study.

Table 1.

Sample Size determination

S/N	Author	Number of Respondents
1.	Antón, Camarero and Carrero (2007)	247
2	Yeo, V. C. S., Goh, S. K., & Rezaei, S. (2017).	224
3.	Majeed, M. I., Mahmood, R., & Munir, S. (2022)	200
4.	Tarmazi, S. A. A., Wan Ismail, W. R., Noor Azmin, N. A. S. and Abu Bakar, A. R. (2021)	147
5.	Homyamyen, P., & Benchakhan, K. (2025).	321
6.	Fatima, R., & Billah, U. I. (2022).	300
7.	Yuan, H., & Wang (2025).	101
	Total	1,540
	Average	220

2.6 Instrument for Data Collection

For the purpose of gathering the information needed for this study, a structured questionnaire was adopted. In their study, Asemah and Nwaoboli (2024) assert that questionnaires are valuable instruments that have the potential to rapidly collect standard information from large groups of individuals. According to Gupta and Gupta (2022), questionnaire make it simpler to compare responses and reduce the likelihood that the researcher conducting the study would be biased.

The questionnaire was divided into two sections, Section A (demographic information) and Section B (the section that focused on the further statement questions on the central topic of the thesis: *Impact of Digital Service Quality Dissatisfaction on Brand Switching Intentions in the food delivery Industry*). Each variable in this study was based on specific questionnaire construct. The digital Service Quality (DSQ), was measured by customer support, reliability, accuracy of the information and service, and consistency of the service quality. Customer Service Quality focused on responsiveness, problem solving, and politeness. Information Quality dealt with clarity, coverage, and relevance of the information supplied. Website/App Usability measured the simplicity, ease of use, and ordering. Dissatisfaction was how the user was frustrated, and how their expectations were not filled, with Switching Barriers which was effort needed, inconvenience,

only dealing with limited options), and Brand Switching Intention which was how likely they would want to try another. All items were five-point Likert, from 1 (Strongly Disagree), to 5 (Strongly Agree). In addition, the questionnaire accessible on Google Forms for a period of 10 days. Social media platforms, consumer forums, and user groups for meal delivery services were all places where the questionnaire was disseminated.

This structured approach is in line with what Saharan et al. (2024) and Mishra & Alok (2022) found, which is that self-administered online surveys are the best way to study digital platform users because they make sure the data is accurate and easy to get to.

2.7 Method and Statistics of Data Analysis

In order to analyze data for this study, the 25th version of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized. In the analysis, there were two primary stages, and these phases were descriptive and inferential respectively. The objective of the descriptive analysis was to offer a summary of the demographic features of the respondents and to indicate broad trends in the discontent with digital services and the inclination to switch brands. The inferential analysis consisted of using correlation and regression methods with the purpose of putting the hypotheses of the research to the test and gaining an understanding of the nature and extent of the connections that exist between the variables in the study. The selection of this technique was deemed acceptable due to the fact that it assists in determining the predictive impact of one variable on another, therefore exposing the amount of the influence that exists between dissatisfaction with digital service and switching behaviour.

2.8 Scope of the Research

This research investigates how digital service quality dissatisfaction influences brand switching within the food delivery industry. This research concentrates on digitally mediated food delivery service mediums – ordering for food through websites and applications. This particular industry is selected as it has real time serviced coordinated needed for complex and digitally dependent interfaces, and it is also highly competitive. This makes the digital serviced failures very visible and relevant and can cause dissatisfaction leading to switching behaviors. Lithuania is used as the geographic scope of study as it has a high use of digital and app delivery platforms such as Bolt (<https://bolt.eu/en-ng/food>), Wolt (<https://wolt.com/?utm=>) and LastMile (<https://www.lastmile.lt/>). This means the people being surveyed will have valid and consistent digital service experience. The study will survey people who have used the delivery application or website within the last 6 months and have experienced some level of dissatisfaction with the service.

2.9 Ethical Implications

Ethics in research ensures that academic investigations are transparent, truthful, and courteous (Asemah and Nwaoboli, 2024; Thomas and Thomas, 2021). At each and every level, this study adhered to ethical guidelines in a stringent manner. The individuals who participated in the survey were informed of its purpose, that their identities would not be disclosed, and that they had the option to decide whether or not they would take part in the survey.

Before the questionnaire began, each participant signed a consent form that promised the data would stay private and secure. Saharan et al (2024) state that anyone may leave the survey whenever they wish. Every secondary source has been cited in the exact way required by the seventh edition rules of the American Psychological Association as no passage not originating from the researcher is presented as original work. Therefore, adhering to rigorous ethical norms throughout the whole research procedure contributed to an increase in the research's credibility, openness, and academic independence as well as overall ethical consideration.

3. ANALYSIS ON IMPACT OF DIGITAL SERVICE QUALITY DISSATISFACTION ON BRAND SWITCHING INTENTIONS IN THE FOOD DELIVERY INDUSTRY

This part of the study describes the analyses performed in order to evaluate the impact of digital service quality dissatisfaction on brand switching intentions in the food delivery industry. It measures the descriptive statistics, as well as reliability assessments. The breakdown starts with a demographic outline of respondents, including gender, age, income, nationality, employment status, and usage frequency of food delivery services. The aim is to affirm the attributes of the research sample. Thereafter, reliability tests using Cronbach's Alpha were measured based on the key measurement constructs which include service quality, website/app usability, dissatisfaction, switching cost, and switching intention, which are necessary to evaluate the internal consistency and appropriateness of the dissertation instrument. The analyzed data show that the measurement scales used in the study are statistically reliable and appropriate for further inferential analysis. The tables that follow provide detailed presentation of the statistical results gotten from the analysis.

Table 2.

Sample structure by gender

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid			
Male	131	59.5	59.5
Female	84	38.2	97.7
Prefer not to say	5	2.3	100.0
Total	220	100.0	

Source: SPSS, 2025

Table 2 shows the respondents' gender distribution. 59.5% of the respondents were men, and 38.2% were women. Furthermore, five respondents (2.3%) said they would rather not reveal their gender. This suggests that men made up the majority of the meal delivery service consumers included in this study.

Table 3.

Sample structure by age

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid			
18–29	77	35.0	35.0
30–39	58	26.4	61.4
40–49	51	23.2	84.5
50+	34	15.5	100.0
Total	220	100.0	

Source: SPSS, 2025

Table 3 shows the respondents' age distribution. According to the findings, majority of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 29, 26.4% were between the ages of 30 and 39, and 23.2% were between the ages of 40 and 49. Additionally, 15.5% were 50 years of age or older. This suggests that young adults made up the bulk of the responses, suggesting that those in economically active age groups are the ones who use meal delivery services the most.

Table 4.

Sample structure by income

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid			
Less than 1201 euros	94	42.7	42.7
1201–1450 euros	56	25.5	68.2
1451–1500 euros	27	12.3	80.5
More than 1500 euros	43	19.5	100.0
Total	220	100.0	

Source: SPSS, 2025

Table 4 shows how much money the respondents take home each month. One quarter earn between 1201 euros and 1450 euros and slightly more than four in ten earn below 1201 euros. Close to one fifth earn above 1500 euros, while one eighth earn from 1451 euros to 1500 euros. Although most of the people questioned belong to low or middle-income brackets, food delivery services appeal to households with different spending power.

Table 5.

Sample structure by nationality

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid			
Lithuanian	152	69.1	69.1
Other European	26	11.8	80.9
Other non-European	42	19.1	100.0
Total	220	100.0	

Source: SPSS, 2025

Table 5 lists the respondents' nationality. The table states that 19.1 percent of the respondents came from countries outside Europe, 11.8 percent came from European countries other than Lithuania and 69.1 percent were Lithuanian. The figures indicate that a noticeable proportion of foreign residents in Lithuania use food delivery services.

Table 6.

Sample structure by employment status

	Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid			
Employed Full-Time	108	49.1	49.1
Employed Part-Time	59	26.8	75.9
Student	48	21.8	97.7
Unemployed	5	2.3	100.0
Total	220	100.0	

Source: SPSS, 2025

Table 6 shows the employment status of the respondents. Just under half, 49.1 percent, held full time jobs; 26.8 percent worked part-time; 21.8 percent were students; and 2.3 percent were unemployed. Because more than nine in every ten respondents had either work or study commitments, the data suggest that people whose days are already crowded turn to food delivery services.

Table 7.

How often do you use food delivery service?

		Frequency	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	More than 4 times a month	145	65.9	65.9
	2–3 times per month	63	28.6	94.5
	Once a month	10	4.5	99.1
	Less than once a month	2	.9	100.0
	Total	220	100.0	

Source: SPSS, 2025

Table 7 shows how often respondents order food for delivery. About two thirds of them do it more than four times a month - slightly more than one in four (28.6 %) order two or three times a month. One in twenty-two (4.5 %) orders once a month and fewer than one in a hundred (0.9 %) order less than once a month. Because most respondents order food frequently, they have more chances to become dissatisfied and to think about switching to another provider.

3.1 Reliability of Collected Data

Table 8

Results of Reliability Tests

Items	Cases		Reliability Statistics	
	Valid	%	Cronbach's Alpha	No Items
<i>Service Quality</i>	220	100	0.995	14
<i>Delivery app/Website</i>	220	100	0.989	5
<i>dissatisfaction.</i>	220	100	0.985	4
<i>Switching cost</i>	220	100	0.965	4
<i>Switching Intention.</i>	220	100	0.985	5

Table 8 shows how reliable the measurement variables are. The factors are service quality, how easy the app or website is to use, dissatisfaction, the cost of switching and the intention to switch. We used Cronbach's Alpha to check whether the survey questions keep measuring the same idea. All 220 returned questionnaires were used - none were thrown out - no data were missing. The dataset is therefore large enough for a sound reliability check.

Service quality was measured with fourteen questions - the Alpha value reached 0.995 showing that the questions hang together almost perfectly and contain very little error. The five questions about app or website ease of use gave an Alpha of 0.989, again showing strong unity. The four questions on dissatisfaction produced an Alpha of 0.985 confirming that they capture negative feelings about the digital service in an even way. Furthermore, the switching cost scale (four

items) achieved a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.965, while the switching intention scale (five items) reported a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.985, both of which exceed recommended reliability thresholds and confirm robust internal coherence. Collectively, all constructs exhibit Cronbach's Alpha coefficients substantially above the conventional benchmark of 0.70, providing strong empirical evidence of measurement reliability.

3.2 Discussion of Hypothesis

H₁: Customer Service Quality has a positive impact on Digital Service Quality (DSQ).

This sub-section discusses how the study hypotheses were systematically tested, their effect on digital service quality, customer dissatisfaction and brand switching intention. The section also shows how the factors work within the original food delivery service.

Table 9 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between quality of customer service and digital service quality. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that the quality of customer service positively does not significantly impacts the digital service quality. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study's objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 1 (H₁), which claims that customer service quality has a positive impact on Digital Service Quality (DSQ). The investigation looked at several important aspects of customer service quality, such as how politely employees are treated, how quickly customer service responds, how well information is communicated, how well problems are resolved, and whether customer assistance is available when needed. The reliability of the digital delivery service was used to gauge the quality of the digital service. With a correlation coefficient of R = .956, the model summary shows a very significant association between DSQ and customer service quality.

The combined customer service quality variables account for about 91.4% of the variance in digital service quality, according to the R Square value of .914. The model's robustness and explanatory power are further supported by the adjusted R Square of .912, which indicates that perceived dependability of digital services is significantly influenced by customer service quality. The regression model is statistically significant ($F = 454.767$, $p = .000$), according to the ANOVA findings, suggesting that the predictors together have a significant impact on Digital Service Quality. This demonstrates that compared to a model with no predictors, the total model offers a noticeably better fit.

The results in Table 9 indicate that variable of customer support resolves issues successfully with a coefficient value of 0.89 is positive and significant by 5% level. By implication, 1 unit increase in the value of Likert scale used to quantify the respondent's perspective concerning 'customer support resolves issues successfully' will lead to appreciating increase of 0.89 unit in the mindset that digital service quality has met the expectations of society. This is a strong point that implies that customer support resolves issues successfully' will have a significant impact on digital service quality has met the expectations of society.

Also, the results in the Table 9 indicate that variable of customer support is responsive with a coefficient value of 0.16 is positive and significant by 5% level. By implication, 1 unit increase in the value of Likert scale used to quantify the respondent's perspective concerning 'customer support is responsive' will lead to appreciating increase of 0.16 unit in the mindset that digital service quality has met the expectations of society. This is a strong point that implies that customer support resolves issues successfully' will have a significant impact on digital service quality has met the expectations of society.

Furthermore, the results in the Table 9 indicate that variable of Customer service representatives respond with articulate information with a coefficient value of 0.12 is positive and not significant by 5% level. By implication, the respondent's perspective concerning 'Customer service representatives respond with articulate information' does not have any substantial impact on the mindset that digital service quality has met the expectations of society. This shows a very weak relationship between 'Customer service representatives respond with articulate information' and digital service quality has met the expectations of society.

Additionally, the results in Table 9 indicate that the variable "Customer support is available if needed" has a negative coefficient value of -0.28 and is not statistically significant at the 5% level ($t = -1.622$, $p = 0.106$). By implication, respondents' perceptions regarding the availability of customer support do not exert any meaningful influence on the belief that digital service quality has met societal expectations. The numbers show that when customer support is easier to reach, people are only slightly less likely to feel that the digital service quality matches what society expects. The link is weak and runs in reverse - more support, slightly lower approval.

The statement "Customer service treats me courteously" produced a positive coefficient of 0.06 but with $t = 0.405$ plus $p = 0.686$ it falls short of the 5 % threshold. In plain terms, polite treatment by staff does not sway respondents' views on whether the service quality meets societal standards. The relation is positive but negligible.

In contrast, the results show that how well customer support works - especially how fast it responds and how effectively it fixes problems - has a strong, clear but also positive impact on the belief that digital service quality lives up to what society expects. In contrast, attributes such as articulate communication, support availability, and courteous treatment show weak and statistically insignificant effects. This suggests that customers place greater value on functional problem-solving outcomes than on interpersonal or accessibility-related service attributes. Consequently, effective resolution and timely response emerge as the primary drivers of perceived digital service quality.

Table 9: Regression Analysis of Quality of Customer Service and Digital Service Quality

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
(Constant)	0.09	.980	.328
Customer support resolves issues successfully.	0.89*	10.368	.000
Customer support is responsive	0.16*	2.138	.034
Customer service representatives respond with articulate information.	0.12	.796	.427
Customer support is available if needed.	-0.28	-1.622	.106
Customer service treats me courteously.	0.06	.405	.686
Adj-R ²	0.91		
f-stat	454.77		0.00

Source: Author' computation using SPSS. Dependent Variable: Digital service quality. * denotes significant at 5% level.

The hypothesis stated for this analysis is in a group form which has 5 variables as a subset. Therefore, each of the variable is presented as a separate and specific hypothesis and not a general hypothesis, which will amount to 5 subset hypotheses. From the interpreted results, 'customer support resolves issues successfully' variable shows that the coefficient is significant and positive then the null hypothesis is rejected and we conclude that 'customer support resolves issues successfully' has a significant impact on digital service quality. For the variable of 'customer support is responsive' shows that the coefficient is significant and positive then the null hypothesis is rejected and we conclude that 'customer support is responsive' has a significant impact on digital service quality.

For the variable of 'Customer service representatives respond with articulate information' shows that the coefficient is insignificant and positive then the null hypothesis is accepted and we conclude that 'Customer service representatives respond with articulate information' has no

significant impact on digital service quality. For the variable of 'Customer support is available if needed' shows that the coefficient is insignificant and negative then the null hypothesis is accepted and we conclude that 'Customer support is available if needed' has no significant impact on digital service quality. For the variable of 'Customer service treats me courteously' shows that the coefficient is insignificant and positive then the null hypothesis is accepted and we conclude that 'Customer service treats me courteously' has no significant impact on digital service quality.

H2 - Quality of Information Positively Impacts Digital Service

Table 10 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between quality of information service and digital service. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that the quality of information positively does not significantly impacts the digital service. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study's objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 2 (H₂), which claims that Quality of Information Positively Impacts Digital Service. The investigation looked at several important aspects of quality of information, such as information quality, such as information's clarity and ease of comprehension, menu information's currency, order-related information's accuracy, delivery time estimates' dependability, and the suitability of the app's level of detail. The reliability of the information service was used to gauge the quality of the digital service. With a correlation coefficient of $R = .979$, the model summary shows a very significant association between information quality and digital service quality.

The R Square value of 0.958 shows that the five information quality items together explain 95.8 % of the variance in the Digital Service Quality score. The adjusted R Square is 0.957, a figure almost identical to the unadjusted value - the closeness of the two numbers indicates that the model is stable and that information quality is a core ingredient of a dependable digital service.

The ANOVA table gives an F-value of 971.810 and a p-value of 0.000. Those numbers mean the regression model is statistically significant plus the link between information quality besides Digital Service Quality is almost certainly not because of chance.

Table 10 shows that the statement "The service provides correct information about orders" has a coefficient of 0.157 and a p-value of 0.080. Because the p-value is above 0.05, the coefficient is not significant at the five percent level. In practical terms, when a respondent moves one unit higher on the scale for correct order information, the perceived Digital Service Quality score rises by 0.157 unit but this change is too small to be trusted.

The same table reports that the statement “Delivery time estimates are reliable” has a coefficient of 0.282 and a p-value of 0.001. The p-value is below 0.05 - the coefficient is significant. A one unit increase in the belief that delivery estimates are reliable raises the perceived Digital Service Quality score by 0.282 unit, a gain large enough to matter.

The item “The menu information is current” has a coefficient of 0.399 but also a p-value of 0.000. Because the p-value is well under 0.05, the coefficient is significant. A one unit rise in the belief that menu information is up to date lifts the perceived Digital Service Quality score by 0.399 unit, the strongest positive effect among the five items.

The statement “Information is provided to the right level of detail in the app” has a coefficient of 0.115 and a p-value of 0.254. The p-value exceeds 0.05 - the coefficient is not significant. Respondents’ views about detail richness therefore have little bearing on whether they judge digital service quality as meeting societal expectations.

The item “The information is easy to understand” has a coefficient of - 0.025 and a p-value of 0.520. The p-value is far above 0.05 - the negative sign is not significant. Clarity of wording appears to exert virtually no influence as well as the direction of the tiny effect runs counter to expectations.

Table 10: Quality of Information Impacts Digital Service Quality

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
(Constant)	.240	3.466	.001
The service provides correct information about orders.	.157	1.761	.080
Delivery time estimates are reliable.	.282	3.221	.001
The menu information is current.	.399	3.826	.000
Information is provided to the right level of detail in the app.	.115	1.144	.254
The information is easy to understand.	-.025	-.645	.520
Adj-R ²	0.96		
f-stat	971.810		0.00

The hypothesis stated for this analysis is in a group form, consisting of five variables as subsets. Consequently, each variable is treated as a separate and specific hypothesis, resulting in five subset hypotheses rather than a single general hypothesis. From the interpreted results, the variable “The service provides correct information about orders” shows that the coefficient is positive but not statistically significant at the 5% level; therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted,

and it is concluded that providing correct information about orders has no significant impact on digital service quality. For the variable “Delivery time estimates are reliable,” the coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 5% level; thus, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that reliable delivery time estimates have a significant impact on digital service quality. For the variable “The menu information is current,” the coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 5% level; hence, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that current menu information has a significant impact on digital service quality. For the variable “Information is provided to the right level of detail in the app,” the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant; therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that the level of information detail provided in the app has no significant impact on digital service quality.

Finally, for the variable “The information is easy to understand,” the coefficient is negative and statistically insignificant at the 5% level; consequently, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that ease of understanding of information has no significant impact on digital service quality.

H3 – Website/App Usability has a positive influence on Digital Service Quality (DSQ)

Table 11 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between website/app usability service and digital service quality. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that Website/App Usability positively does not significantly impacts the digital service quality. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study’s objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 3 (H_3), which claims that Website/App Usability has a positive impact on Digital Service Quality (DSQ). The investigation looked at several important aspects of concentrated on important aspects of the digital platform's usability, such as how easy it is to place orders, how quickly the app or website loads, how easy it is to navigate, and how clear and user-friendly the layout is. We judged the quality of the digital service - asking people how reliable they thought the delivery system was. The correlation coefficient is 0.959 - website and app usability and service quality move almost together. The R-square is 0.920; therefore, the five usability items explain ninety-two per cent of the differences in the reliability score. After the small penalty for the number of predictors the adjusted R-square is 0.919 showing that the figure is stable and that usability shapes the feeling of a dependable service. The ANOVA test gives $F = 494.943$ with $p < 0.001$, the whole set of usability items jointly affects service quality plus the model fits far better than an empty one.

Table 11 shows that the item “The app/website is easy to navigate” has a coefficient of - 0.41 and $p < 0.001$. If a respondent scores one point higher on navigation ease, the perceived service quality drops by 0.41 points - hence navigation ease relates strongly but in reverse.

Also, the item “It is easy to place an order” carries a coefficient of 0.31 and $p = 0.020$. A one point rise in the ease-of-order score raises the perceived quality score by 0.31 points - easy ordering improves the service image. The item “The layout is clear but also user-friendly” has a coefficient of 0.18 but $p = 0.180$, which exceeds the five per cent threshold. Layout clarity therefore does not sway the quality verdict in a noticeable way. The item “The app/website loads fast” posts a coefficient of 0.68 with $p < 0.001$. A one-point gain in the speed rating lifts the quality rating by 0.68 points - loading speed is a key driver.

The item “The design makes ordering simple” shows the largest coefficient: 0.84 and $p < 0.001$. A one-point rise in this score pushes the quality score up by 0.84 points revealing that a design which simplifies ordering has the strongest effect. In short, the adjusted R-square of 0.92 and the significant F-statistic confirm that the combined features of the website or app strongly shape how people rate digital service quality.

Table 11: Website/app influence on digital service quality

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
	-.06	-558	.58
The app/website is easy to navigate.	-41	-3.56	.000
It is easy to place an order.	0.31	-2.39	.02
The layout is clear and user-friendly.	0.18	1.34	.18
The app/website loads fast.	0.68	6.52	.000
The design makes ordering simple.	0.84	10.84	.000
Adj-R ²	0.92		
f-stat	494.943		0.00

The hypothesis tested here is expressed as a set of five variables. Each variable is examined on its own and the study ends up with five distinct hypotheses instead of one broad statement.

The results for the variable “The app/website is easy to navigate” give a coefficient that is negative and significant at the 5 % level. The null hypothesis is rejected plus ease of navigation is judged to exert a clear influence on digital service quality. For the variable “It is easy to place an order,”

the coefficient is positive and also significant at the 5 % level. The null hypothesis is rejected but also ease of placing an order is judged to exert a clear influence on digital service quality.

Addressing the variable “The layout is clear and user-friendly,” the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant; hence, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that layout clarity and user-friendliness have no significant impact on digital service quality.

As it relates to the variable “The app/website loads fast,” the coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 5% level; therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that fast loading speed has a significant impact on digital service quality. Furthermore, for the variable “The design makes ordering simple,” the coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 5% level; consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that design simplicity has significant impact on digital service.

H4 – Reductions in Digital Service Quality Significantly increases Dissatisfaction

Table 12 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between Digital Service Quality and Dissatisfaction. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that the digital service quality positively does not significantly elevates dissatisfaction. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study's objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 4 (H₄), which claims that customer service quality has a positive impact on Digital Service Quality (DSQ). The investigation looked at several important aspects of whether the digital service fulfilled expectations, the perceived dependability of the digital service, and the consistency of the digital experience were among the key indicators of digital service quality that were analyzed. We measured dissatisfaction, asking respondents how dissatisfied they were after their most recent service encounter. The model summary gives a correlation of $R = 0.942$ showing a very strong link between digital service quality and unhappiness.

R Square is 0.888 - the digital service quality variables explain roughly 88.8 % of the differences in unhappiness. The adjusted R Square is 0.886, which confirms that the model is both stable and reliable - changes in service quality closely match changes in customer discontent.

ANOVA results show the regression model is statistically significant ($F = 425.254$, $p < 0.001$), which means the link we observe is not because of random chance - taken together, the digital service quality factors strongly affect dissatisfaction.

Table 12 shows that the statement “Broadly speaking, this delivery service provides dependable digital service” has a coefficient of 0.09 plus a p-value of 0.45. Because the p-value exceeds 0.05, the effect is not significant. A one-point rise in perceived dependability raises dissatisfaction by only 0.09 points, a trivial change.

The statement “The digital service has met my expectations” also has a coefficient of 0.09 and a p-value of 0.26. The p-value is above 0.05 - whether the service meets expectations has no meaningful influence on dissatisfaction. The statement “It is a consistent digital experience” has a coefficient of 0.36 and a p-value below 0.001. A one-point increase in perceived consistency raises dissatisfaction by 0.36 points, a sizeable but also significant effect. Inconsistent service clearly aggravates customers.

The item “I feel confident while using this delivery app or website” has a coefficient of 0.35 and a p-value below 0.001. A one-point rise in confidence raises dissatisfaction by 0.35 points. Lower confidence therefore translates directly into higher dissatisfaction.

Table 12: Reductions in Digital Service Quality Significantly elevates Dissatisfaction

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
(Constant)	-14	-1.34	.18
In general, this delivery service provides dependable digital service.	.09	.75	.45
The digital service has met my expectations.	.09	1.12	.26
It is a consistent digital experience.	.36	3.37	.00
I feel confident while using this delivery app/website.	.35	3.255	.00
Adj-R ²	0.89		
f-stat	425.254		0.00

The hypothesis stated for this analysis is in a group form, consisting of four variables as subsets. Every variable is handled as its own distinct hypothesis, which gives four separate sub hypotheses instead of one broad statement.

When the results are interpreted, the item “Broadly speaking, this delivery service provides dependable digital service” yields a positive coefficient but the value fails to reach significance at the 5 % level. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted and the study concludes that perceived

digital service dependability does not materially affect dissatisfaction. For the statement “The digital service has met my expectations,” the coefficient is again positive but still falls short of significance at the 5 % level. The null hypothesis is accepted and the study concludes that whether the digital service meets expectations does not materially affect dissatisfaction. For the variable “It is a consistent digital experience,” the coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 5% level; hence, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that digital service consistency has a significant impact on dissatisfaction.

Finally, for the variable “I feel confident while using this delivery app/website,” the coefficient is positive and statistically significant at the 5% level; consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that user confidence while using the app or website has a significant impact on dissatisfaction.

H5 – Dissatisfaction (DISS) positively impacts Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Table 13 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between brand switching intentions and Dissatisfaction. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that Dissatisfaction (DISS) positively impacts Brand Switching Intention. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study’s objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 5 (H_5), which claims that Dissatisfaction (DISS) positively impacts Brand Switching Intention. The investigation looked at several important aspects of as unhappiness with the digital experience, dissatisfaction with previous service experiences, unfulfilled expectations, and irritation with the delivery process, were analyzed. Respondents' thoughts of moving to a different meal delivery service was used to gauge their brand switching intention.

With a correlation coefficient of $R = .970$, the model summary shows a very high association between brand switching intention and discontent. The R Square value of 0.941 shows that dissatisfaction variables explain 94.1 % of the variance in Brand Switching Intention. The adjusted R Square of 0.940 supports the same conclusion, customers who feel more dissatisfied are markedly more inclined to abandon the brand. ANOVA returns $F = 861.697$ and $p = 0.000$ - the regression model is statistically significant - the joint influence of the dissatisfaction variables on Brand Switching Intention is large plus the link is almost certainly not because of chance.

Table 16 reports that the statement “I was not pleased with my recent service experience” carries a coefficient of 0.68 and is significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.000$). Each additional unit of

agreement with the statement raises dissatisfaction by 0.68 units confirming a strong positive tie between displeasure with the latest service episode but also overall dissatisfaction.

Table 13 shows that the statement “This service did not meet my expectations” has a coefficient of 0.11 and is significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.001$). Each extra unit of perceived expectation failure raises dissatisfaction by 0.11 units. The link between unmet expectations as well as dissatisfaction is positive and significant but the effect is comparatively small.

The statement “I felt frustrated with the delivery process” receives a coefficient of - 0.08 and is not significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.206$). Frustration during delivery therefore does not materially alter overall dissatisfaction - the relation is weak or negative. The statement “The digital experience did not satisfy me” obtains a coefficient of 0.11 but fails to reach significance at the 5 % level ($p = 0.101$). Dissatisfaction with the digital interface exerts no meaningful influence on overall dissatisfaction - the association is weak and positive.

The adjusted R^2 of 0.940 also the significant F-statistic ($F = 861.697$, $p = 0.000$) demonstrate that the model accounts for nearly all variation in dissatisfaction.

Table 13: Dissatisfaction (DISS) positively impacts Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
(Constant)	-29	-5.11	.000
I was not pleased with my recent service experience.	.68	12.13	.000
This service did not meet my expectations.	.11	3.43	.001
I felt frustrated with the delivery process.	-08	-1.27	.206
The digital experience did not satisfy me.	.11	1.65	.101
Adj- R^2	0.940		
f-stat	861.697		0.00

The analysis began with one umbrella statement that contained four distinct parts. Each part is now examined on its own giving four separate hypotheses instead of a single broad one. Results for the statement “I was not pleased with my recent service experience” show a positive coefficient that is significant at the 5 % level. The null hypothesis is rejected - displeasure with the latest service visit clearly raises overall dissatisfaction.

Results for the statement “This service did not meet my expectations” also yield a positive coefficient that is significant at the 5 % level. The null hypothesis is rejected - when the service falls short of expectations, dissatisfaction rises in a measurable way. For the variable “I felt frustrated with the delivery process,” the coefficient is negative and statistically insignificant at the 5% level; hence, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that frustration with the delivery process has no significant impact on dissatisfaction. Lastly, for the variable “The digital experience did not satisfy me,” the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant at the 5% level; consequently, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that dissatisfaction with the digital experience has no significant impact on overall dissatisfaction.

H6 – Dissatisfaction (DISS) mediates the relationship between Digital Service Quality (DSQ) and Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Table 14 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between respondents’ dissatisfaction, Digital service and brand switching intention. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that Dissatisfaction (DISS) does not mediate the relationship between Brand Switching Intention and digital service. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study’s objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 6 (H_6), which claims that Dissatisfaction (DISS) mediates the relationship between Brand Switching Intention and digital service. To ascertain their combined and mediated effects on Brand Switching Intention, the model incorporated important Digital Service Quality indicators in addition to factors related to discontent. The combined Digital Service Quality and discontent variables account for 95.0% of the variance in Brand Switching Intention, according to the model summary, which displays an extraordinarily strong connection ($R = .975$) with a R Square of .950. The model's great explanatory ability is confirmed by the considerable R Square change ($\Delta R^2 = .950$, $F = 572.924$, $p = .000$).

The regression model is statistically significant, according to the ANOVA results ($F = 572.924$, $p = .000$). Dissatisfaction indicators, especially not being satisfied with recent service experience ($\beta = .535$, $p = .000$) and service not meeting expectations ($\beta = .263$, $p = .000$), had strong, significant positive influences on Brand Switching Intention, according to analysis of the regression coefficients. In contrast, when dissatisfaction is incorporated into the model, the majority of Digital Service Quality variables exhibit diminished or non-significant direct effects on Brand Switching Intention.

The results in Table 14 indicate that the variable “In general, this delivery service provides

dependable digital service” recorded a positive coefficient value of 0.83, but is not statistically significant at the 5% level ($p = 0.29$). By implication, a one-unit increase in respondents’ perception of digital service dependability leads to an increase of 0.83 units in dissatisfaction; however, this effect is not statistically meaningful. This suggests a positive but insignificant relationship between perceived digital service dependability and dissatisfaction.

The results further indicate that the variable “The digital service has met my expectations” has a negative coefficient value of -0.15 and is statistically significant at the 5% level ($p = 0.01$). When people believe the digital service has lived up to their expectations, dissatisfaction drops by 0.15 points for every extra point of perceived success. The figures show a clear opposite link - the better the match with expectations, the lower the dissatisfaction.

The statement “It is a consistent digital experience” returned a coefficient of 0.17 and a p-value of 0.02. In plain terms, each step up in perceived consistency raises dissatisfaction by 0.17 points. Inconsistency therefore pushes dissatisfaction upward.

The item “I feel confident while using this delivery app/website” produced a coefficient of 0.08 plus a p-value of 0.26. Confidence while using the platform has no measurable impact on dissatisfaction - the link is weak and falls short of the 5 % threshold.

Table 14 also shows that the item “I was not pleased with my recent service experience” has a coefficient of 0.50 but also a p-value below 0.01. Each extra point of displeasure lifts dissatisfaction by half a point revealing a strong and clear upward connection.

The item “This service did not meet my expectations” yields a coefficient of 0.24 as well as a p-value below 0.01. Each extra point of perceived failure raises dissatisfaction by 0.24 points, again showing a solid upward link. The item “I felt frustrated with the delivery process” carries a coefficient of -0.36 and a p-value of 0.43. Frustration with the delivery steps does not sway dissatisfaction in any reliable way - the negative slope is weak or not significant.

The model explains the data well - the adjusted R^2 equals 0.948 and the F-statistic is 572.924 with a p-value below 0.001. Taken together, the variables account for almost all variation in dissatisfaction.

Table 14 – Dissatisfaction (DISS) mediates the relationship between Digital Service Quality (DSQ) and Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
(Constant)	.30	4.47	.00
In general, this delivery service provides dependable digital service.	0.83	1.06	.29
The digital service has met my expectations.	-.15	-2.76	.01
It is a consistent digital experience.	.17	2.44	.02
I feel confident while using this delivery app/website.	.08	1.14	.26
I was not pleased with my recent service experience.	0.50	7.99	.00
This service did not meet my expectations.	0.24	4.34	.00
I felt frustrated with the delivery process.	-.036	-.79	.43
Adj-R ²	.948		
f-stat	572.924		0.00

The hypothesis used in this analysis is expressed as a group of eight variables. Each variable is handled on its own giving eight distinct hypotheses instead of one broad statement.

The results for the statement “Broadly speaking, this delivery service provides dependable digital service” yield a positive coefficient that lacks statistical significance. The null hypothesis is accepted and digital service dependability is judged to have no noticeable influence on dissatisfaction.

For the statement “The digital service has met my expectations,” the coefficient is negative plus significant. The null hypothesis is rejected and meeting expectations is found to exert a clear influence on dissatisfaction. The statement “It is a consistent digital experience” returns a positive but also significant coefficient. The null hypothesis is rejected and digital service consistency is judged to affect dissatisfaction.

The statement “I feel confident while using this delivery app/website” yields a positive but insignificant coefficient. The null hypothesis is accepted as well as user confidence is considered to have no meaningful effect on dissatisfaction.

The statement “I was not pleased with my recent service experience” produces a positive and significant coefficient. The null hypothesis is rejected or displeasure with the latest experience is

found to influence dissatisfaction. The statement “This service did not meet my expectations” gives a positive and significant coefficient. The null hypothesis is rejected also unmet service expectations are judged to affect dissatisfaction.

Finally, for the variable “I felt frustrated with the delivery process,” the coefficient is negative and statistically insignificant; hence, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that frustration with the delivery process has no significant impact on dissatisfaction. These results validate that the association between Digital Service Quality and Brand Switching Intention is mediated by discontent, supporting Hypothesis 6. This implies that low-quality digital services raise customer unhappiness, which in turn influences consumers' propensity to transfer brands.

H7 – Switching Barriers are influenced by Dissatisfaction and impact Brand Switching Intention

Table 15 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between brand switching intentions and Dissatisfaction. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that Switching Barriers doesn't moderate the relationship between Dissatisfaction and Brand Switching Intention. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study's objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 7 (H_7), which claims that Switching Barriers moderate the relationship between Dissatisfaction and Brand Switching Intention. the model included dissatisfaction indicators in addition to switching barrier variables such perceived annoyance, effort needed to switch, loss of advantages, and availability of alternatives.

Dissatisfaction and switching barrier variables together account for 94.8% of the variance in brand switching intention, according to the model summary, which shows a very high connection ($R = .973$) with a R Square of .948. The ANOVA findings verify that the overall model is significant ($F = 476.574$, $p = .000$), and the R Square change is statistically significant ($\Delta R^2 = .948$, $F = 476.574$, $p = .000$).

The results in Table 15 indicate that the variable “I was not pleased with my recent service experience” recorded a positive coefficient value of 0.65 and is statistically significant at the 5% level ($p = 0.00$). When a respondent's displeasure with the latest service rises by one unit, the intention to switch increases by 0.65 units. The link between service displeasure and switching intention is therefore strong, positive plus significant.

The statement "This service did not meet my expectations" has a coefficient of 0.15 and is significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.01$). A one unit rise in the perception of unmet expectations raises switching intention by 0.15 units - unmet expectations relate positively but also significantly to switching intention.

The statement "I felt frustrated with the delivery process" has a coefficient of - 0.06 and is not significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.42$). Frustration with the delivery process does not materially alter switching intention - the relationship is weak as well as negative. The statement "The digital experience did not satisfy me" has a coefficient of 0.11 and is not significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.09$). Dissatisfaction with the digital experience does not exert a measurable effect on switching intention - the relationship is weak or positive.

The statement "Switching to another food delivery service would be an inconvenience" has a coefficient of 0.07 and is not significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.31$). Perceived inconvenience from switching does not meaningfully change switching intention.

The statement "It takes too much effort to switch to another platform" has a coefficient of 0.09 also is not significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.95$). Perceived effort required to switch does not materially influence switching intention. The statement "I may lose some benefits if I switch" has a coefficient of 0.06 and is not significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.37$). The fear of losing benefits does not significantly affect switching intention.

The statement "There are very limited alternatives available to switch to" has a coefficient of - 0.21 next to is significant at the 5 % level ($p = 0.00$). A one unit rise in the belief that alternatives are scarce lowers switching intention by 0.21 units. Limited alternatives therefore discourage switching. The model explains variation in switching intention well - adjusted R^2 equals 0.946 and the F-statistic is 476.574 ($p = 0.000$).

Table 15: Switching Barriers are influenced by Dissatisfaction and impact Brand Switching Intention

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
(Constant)	.34	6.04	.00
I was not pleased with my recent service experience.	.65	11.90	.00
This service did not meet my expectations.	.15	2.56	.01
I felt frustrated with the delivery process.	-.06	-.80	.42
The digital experience did not satisfy me	.11	1.69	.09
Switching to another food delivery service would be an inconvenience	0.07	1.01	.31
It takes too much effort to switch to another platform.	0.09	1.68	.95
I may lose some benefits if I switch.	0.06	.89	.37
There are very limited alternatives available to switch to.	-.21	-4.21	0.00
Adj-R ²	.946		
f-stat	476.574		0.00

The hypothesis stated for this analysis is in a group form, consisting of eight variables as subsets. Consequently, each variable is treated as a separate and specific hypothesis, resulting in eight subset hypotheses rather than a single general hypothesis.

From the interpreted results, the variable “I was not pleased with my recent service experience” shows that the coefficient is positive and statistically significant; therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that displeasure with recent service experience has a significant impact on switching intention. For the variable “This service did not meet my expectations,” the coefficient is positive and statistically significant; thus, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that unmet expectations have a significant impact on switching intention. For the variable “I felt frustrated with the delivery process,” the coefficient is negative but statistically insignificant; hence, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that delivery-process frustration has no significant impact on switching intention.

For the variable “The digital experience did not satisfy me,” the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant; therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that digital

experience dissatisfaction has no significant impact on switching intention. For the variable “Switching to another food delivery service would be an inconvenience,” the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant; consequently, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that perceived switching inconvenience has no significant impact on switching intention.

For the variable “It takes too much effort to switch to another platform,” the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant; thus, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that perceived switching effort has no significant impact on switching intention. For the variable “I may lose some benefits if I switch,” the coefficient is positive but statistically insignificant; hence, the null hypothesis is accepted, and it is concluded that perceived loss of benefits has no significant impact on switching intention. In all, for the variable “There are very limited alternatives available to switch to,” the coefficient is negative and statistically significant; therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and it is concluded that limited availability of alternatives has a significant impact on switching intention.

H8: Digital Service Quality (DSQ) positively influences Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Table 16 presents an analytical table that shows the regression results between digital service quality intentions and brand switching intention. The results is an attempt to validate the hypotheses which state that Digital Service Quality does not positively influences Brand Switching Intention. The study will rely on the testing and acceptance of the hypotheses to give a structured and fact-based assessment of the study’s objectives.

A multiple regression analysis was performed utilizing responses from 220 respondents in order to evaluate Hypothesis 8 (H_8), which claims that Digital Service Quality does not positively influences Brand Switching Intention. The study examined multiple clear signs of discontent - customers felt unhappy about recent service encounters, found their expectations had not been met, disliked the digital side of the service and were annoyed by the delivery process. The researchers measured the wish to switch to a rival meal delivery service - asking how often people thought about leaving the current one. The statistical model shows that dissatisfaction alone explains 94.1 % of the reason why people consider switching - the link is extremely strong ($R = .970$, $R^2 = .941$). An ANOVA test confirms the model is valid ($F = 861.697$, $p < .001$).

Table 16 shows that the statement “Broadly speaking, this delivery service provides dependable digital service” has a coefficient of 0.08 but the p-value is 0.43 - the result is not significant at the 5 % level. A one step rise in how dependable the digital service is seen to be raises the intention to stay by only 0.08 steps - the change is too small to be trusted.

The item “The digital service has met my expectations” carries a coefficient of - 0.02 and a p-value of 0.77 - it also fails the 5 % threshold. Believing that the service meets expectations therefore has no meaningful impact on whether people think of leaving - the link is tiny and negative.

In contrast, the item “It is a consistent digital experience” has a coefficient of 0.38 and a p-value below .001 - the result is significant. A one step increase in perceived consistency raises the intention to remain by 0.38 steps. Consistency in the digital experience is therefore an important factor in keeping customers.

The statement “I feel confident while using this delivery app/website” has a coefficient of 0.36 and a p-value below .001 - it is significant. A one step rise in user confidence raises the intention to stay by 0.36 steps. Confidence in the app or website clearly matters.

Taken together, the model explains much of the variation in customer intention - the adjusted R^2 is 0.889 and the F-statistic is 441.073 ($p < .001$) - the set of digital experience variables accounts for the outcome in a reliable way.

Table 16: Digital Service Quality (DSQ) positively influences Brand Switching Intention (BSI).

Variables/Statistics	Coefficients	t-stat	p-value
(Constant)	.13	1.40	.16
In general, this delivery service provides dependable digital service.	.08	.79	.43
The digital service has met my expectations.	-.02	-.29	.77
It is a consistent digital experience.	.38	3.89	.00
I feel confident while using this delivery app/website.	.36	3.67	.00
Adj-R ²	.889		
f-stat	441.073		0.00

Dependent Variable: I am considering switching to another food delivery service.

The analysis begins with one overall statement that splits into four distinct claims. Each claim stands on its own - together they form four separate hypotheses instead of one broad statement.

For the statement “Broadly speaking, this delivery service provides dependable digital service,” the estimated coefficient is positive but falls short of statistical significance. We retain the null hypothesis and treat perceived digital service dependability as having no measurable influence on the outcome variable.

For the statement “The digital service has met my expectations,” the coefficient is negative plus also lacks statistical significance. We again retain the null hypothesis and conclude that whether the service meets expectations does not materially affect the outcome variable.

For the statement “It is a consistent digital experience,” the coefficient is positive but also significant at the 5 % level. We reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the consistency of the digital service does exert a meaningful influence on the outcome variable.

For the statement “I feel confident while using this delivery app/website,” the coefficient is positive as well as significant at the 5 % level. We reject the null hypothesis and conclude that user confidence while interacting with the app or website has a tangible influence on the outcome variable.

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to examine how digital service quality influences customer dissatisfaction and how such dissatisfaction causes brand switching in the food delivery industry. The results show that digital service quality is important. It is not a background factor but a central driver of customer behaviour. When digital services fail, customers reassess their relationship with the brand and become more open to switching.

The results of this study lead to clear and consistent conclusions. The strong internal reliability of all measurement scales confirms that customers evaluate digital service dissatisfaction in a stable and systematic way. This indicates that dissatisfaction is not incidental or random, but formed through repeated and identifiable service problems, making switching behaviour both intentional and predictable just as also found by Mishra and Alok (2022).

The study also confirm that dissatisfaction in customer service, platform usability, and information accuracy are primary sources of dissatisfaction. Weaknesses in the platform show that it cannot deliver the basics and trust fades a little more after every failure. Chang and Lee (2013) and Mannayong (2024) find that when digital faults occur again and again - rather than as one off glitches - customers abandon the app. The data also reveal that dissatisfaction moves straight into a plan to leave. Low reliability and slow replies push users toward rival services. Malhotra or Kubowicz Malhotra (2013) but also Nimako and Ntim (2015) treat dissatisfaction as the spark that turns annoyance into an active decision to quit.

Barriers that are supposed to lock customers in give only brief relief. They may delay the moment of departure but prolonged dissatisfaction outweighs the bother, the cost and the mental effort of moving elsewhere (Nikbin, Marimuthu, & Hyun, 2016). Retention plans that rely only on lock ins fail unless the service itself improves. Price gaps matter less than expected - buyers still leave when the difference is small, a result that echoes Peng et al. (2014). Digital service quality, not price, now decides who keeps the customer.

In short, poor digital service feeds the wish to switch brands in the food delivery sector. Continued dissatisfaction corrodes trust as well as loyalty until the user switches brands. To hold on to customers, food delivery firms must treat reliable, fast and easy-to-use digital service as a core strategic goal, not a routine detail.

4.2 Implications

4.2.1 Practical Implications of the Study

The findings of this study have some practical implications to stakeholders that work in the food delivery sector. This includes digital service providers, service managers, and digital product designers. First, the high consistency in both service quality and usability scales show that clients see digital service experiences as a whole. This means that when one part of service fails like services on responding to clients takes longer than expected or each order has wrong information; it also means people think the whole platform is bad. Therefore, people in charge must take all the parts of service quality as one and same. They need to all match when it is concerning client help desk, app used (how easy it is to use the app), making things work when they are being delivered to the client, and the accuracy of information.

Second, the strength of the link between dissatisfaction and switching plan reveals that when an unforeseen, damaging moment or time happens it can be bad enough to get people to stop being customers. Because of this, digital service providers who sell food should work on fixing people's dissatisfaction before they hit the unhappy point. They should do this by fixing a complaint before the client goes away, saying what will happen if the service stops or is bad, and fixing them after they offer an on-time take away for the customer. This has to happen a lot since the field of food delivery service is very competitive.

Third, the research cautions on over-reliance on switching cost mechanisms such as loyalty points or promotional lock-ins. This is because, doing so can go against being good at keeping customers as clients. Admittedly, persistent dissatisfaction can override perceived switching barriers. In other words, when customers see some sort of leftover service failure, they may stay with the food delivery brand rather than switch. This means that there is a need to build a business to consumer relation and trust by having dependable service for customers.

4.2.2 Theoretical Implications

The study adds to the current knowledge of service quality, dissatisfaction, and consumer switching behaviour by extending the application of these concepts in the context of digitally mediated food delivery platforms from a theoretical perspective. There is abundant research on switching behaviour in the literature for traditional service environments; however, this study shows that even in highly technologized, platform-based settings, the notion of dissatisfaction is still relevant and powerful.

The findings support attribution theory empirically by showing how customers make sense of repeat service failures resulting in us blaming the service always and always believing if there is

an issue, then it is within our control. When digital service failures are out of customers' control, they are more likely to blame the platform than they are to provide other absence of responsibility to other reasons, such as user control and competence. This increases the probability of a corrective approach and re-enforces the relevance of attribution-based explanations in contemporary digital consumption environments.

Furthermore, this research enriches the general body of knowledge on switching behaviour with the aspect that we question the idea that structural switching costs are the only reasons why consumers do not switch. The findings imply that consumers' experience-based evaluations, and in particular dissatisfaction as a result of unfulfilled expectations, can override the label inconvenience or effort of switching platforms.

The results also sharpen the behavioural models used in studies related to dissatisfaction with digital service quality by once more treating lived experience as a force that shapes how people act online. From the methodology angle, the scales used here returned markedly high reliability scores giving the field a sturdy empirical platform for its next steps. Answers stayed coherent across every construct showing that digital service quality, dissatisfaction and the wish to switch provider all can be gauged with solid precision, which in turn reassures future researchers that their own measurements will stand firm.

4.3 Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Further Research

Despite the contributions of this research, several limitations should be taken into account. The first one stems from the cross-sectional survey data, which hinder the capturing of dynamic shifts in customer perceptions at different points in time. Even if the statistical relationships are strong, they provide no solid ground for causal claims. Repeated research over a period of time explaining's how service experiences in total have the potential to lead to switching decisions would provide better insights.

Based on the limitations of this study, it is recommended that longitudinal studies could help researchers understand how dissatisfaction and switching intentions change over long periods of time, especially in response to multiple service failures or recovery attempts. Such research designs would allow for a better understanding of causality and behavioural inertia.

Secondly, the present research could be expanded to research moderator variables such as income, frequency of platform use or prior brand attachment to see if specific customer segments are more or less sensitive to digital service quality deficiencies. Segment-based

analyses would provide more detailed understanding of heterogeneity in switching behaviour.

In addition, studies comparing multiple platforms or national markets could better explain how competitive intensity, culture norms or regulations influence customer judgement of digital service quality. This would improve the external validity of the present results and could lead to theory development across different service settings.

Finally, applying qualitative methods such as in-depth interviews or focus-group research would enable a richer discussion of the psychological and cognitive mechanisms behind dissatisfaction and switching decisions. A mixed methods approach would complement the quantitative results and result in a richer understanding of consumer rationality in platform-based service settings.

References

1. Ahir, M. V., & Deshmukh, N. A. (2025). *Research methodology*. Geh press.
2. Ahn, J. (2025). Understanding food delivery service customers' switching behavior. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 16(1), 124–138.
3. Akegbejo-Samsons, T. (2021). *The role of e-service quality and food quality in customers' satisfaction towards online food delivery service in Estonia* (Master's thesis, Eesti Maaülikool).
4. Ahmad, P., Kumar, A., & Shekhar, R. (2025). If not more, then provide the same! Determining the reuse intention of food delivery apps. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 1–26.
5. Ahn, J. (2025). Understanding food delivery service customers' switching behavior. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 16(1), 124–138.
6. Alegre, J., & Garau, J. (2010). Tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(1), 52–73.
7. Amoako, G. K., Caesar, L. D., Dzogbenuku, R. K., & Bonsu, G. A. (2023). Service recovery performance and repurchase intentions: The mediation effect of service quality at KFC. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 6(1), 110–130.
8. Antón, C., Camarero, C., & Carrero, M. (2007). Analysing firms' failures as determinants of consumer switching intentions: The effect of moderating factors. *European Journal of Marketing*, 41(1/2), 135–158.
9. Asemah, E. S. & Nwaoboli, E. P. (2024). *Seminar writing and presentation in media and communication* Asemah, studies. Jos: Jos University Press.
10. Banerjee, S. P., Jain, D., & Nayyar, R. (2019). Measuring service quality of food delivery services: A study of generation Z. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 8(2), 1–12.
11. Banerjee et al. (2019). Consumer boycotts and fast-food chains: Economic consequences and reputational damage. *Societies*, 15(5), 114.
12. Bernarto, I., Berlianto, M. P., Meilani, Y. F. C. P., Masman, R. R., & Suryawan, I. N. (2020). The influence of brand awareness, brand image, and brand trust on brand loyalty. *Jurnal Manajemen*, 24(3), 412–426.
13. Chang, I. C., Shiau, W. M., Lin, C. Y., & Shih, D. H. (2023). Consumer intentions to switch on-demand food delivery platforms: A perspective from push-pull-mooring theory. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research*, 18(4), 2217–2232.
14. Chen, A., Lu, Y., Gupta, S., & Xiaolin, Q. (2014). Can customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction coexist? An issue of telecommunication service in China. *Journal of Information Technology*, 29(3), 237–252.
15. Cheng, C. C., Chang, Y. Y., & Chen, C. T. (2021). Construction of a service quality scale for the online food delivery industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 95, 102938.
16. Choi, I. Y., Moon, H. S., & Kim, J. K. (2019). Assessing personalized recommendation services using expectancy disconfirmation theory. *Asia Pacific Journal of Information Systems*, 29(2), 203–216.

17. Chou, P. F., & Lu, C. S. (2009). Assessing service quality, switching costs and customer loyalty in home-delivery services in Taiwan. *Transport Reviews*, 29(6), 741–758.
18. Dalimunthe, P. A., & Suryani, W. (2024). Exploring the impact of user interface and service quality in enhancing repurchase intentions. *Target: Jurnal Manajemen Bisnis*, 6(1), 41–50.
19. Dawi, N. M., Jusoh, A., Streimikis, J., & Mardani, A. (2018). The influence of service quality on customer satisfaction and customer behavioral intentions by moderating role of switching barriers in satellite pay TV market. *Economics & Sociology*, 11(4), 198.
20. Demirel, D. (2022). The effect of service quality on customer satisfaction in digital age: Customer satisfaction-based examination of digital CRM. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 23(3), 507–531.
21. Eaint, M. (2022). An assessment of e-service quality for online food delivery services in Yangon, Myanmar. *Suranaree Journal of Social Science*, 18(1), 1–18.
22. Elkhani, N., & Bakri, A. (2012). Review on “expectancy disconfirmation theory” (EDT) model in B2C e-commerce. *Journal of Information Systems Research and Innovation*, 2(12), 95–102.
23. Elshaer, I. A., Azazz, A. M., Fayyad, S., Kooli, C., Fouad, A. M., Hamdy, A., & Fathy, E. A. (2025). Consumer boycotts and fast-food chains: Economic consequences and reputational damage. *Societies*, 15(5), 114.
24. Falk, T., Hammerschmidt, M., & Schepers, J. J. (2010). The service quality-satisfaction link revisited: Exploring asymmetries and dynamics. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 38, 288–302.
25. Fatima, R., & Billah, U. I. (2022). Contributors of brand switching: The mediating role of brand image and customer satisfaction. *JISR Management and Social Sciences & Economics*, 20(2), 143–164.
26. Garga, E., Maiyaki, A. A., & Sagagi, M. S. (2019). Factors influencing brand switching behaviour of mobile phone users and the mediating effect of customer satisfaction: A literature review. *Journal of Education, Society and Behavioural Science*, 29(1), 1–11.
27. Gupta, A., & Gupta, N. (2022). *Research methodology*. SBPD publications.
28. Han, H., Kim, W., & Hyun, S. S. (2011). Switching intention model development: Role of service performances, customer satisfaction, and switching barriers in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 619–629.
29. Han HeeSup, H. H., Kim WanSoo, K. W., & Hyun SungHyup, H. (2011). Switching intention model development: Role of service performances, customer satisfaction, and switching barriers in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30, 619–629.
30. Hayat, H., Gunathilake, M., Senamanthila, D., & Samaradiwakara, P. (2020). Factors affecting brand switching behaviour of millennials: Experience from the Sri Lankan telecommunication industry. *South Asian Journal of Marketing*, 1(2), 47–73.
31. Hernando, H., & Gunawan, W. H. (2021). Loyalty among online food delivery customers: Extended scale of e-service quality. *Jurnal Manajemen Maranatha*, 20(2), 167–174.

32. Hoang, H., & Le Tan, T. (2023). Unveiling digital transformation: Investigating technology adoption in Vietnam's food delivery industry for enhanced customer experience. *Heliyon*, 9(9).
33. Homyamyen, P., & Benchakhan, K. (2025). *Exploring the delicious connection: How customer satisfaction bridges menu diversity and the sustained use of online food delivery services*. *International Journal for Quality Research*, 19(2), 437–450. (Sample size = 321)
34. Ibrahim-Awwad, R., Ibrahim, B., George, C., Hamdan, S., & Nair, K. (2025). Facts or belief: Examining the effect of cognitive dissonance on brand switching, purchase regret, and satisfaction level. *Global Knowledge, Memory and Communication*, 74(3/4), 1209–1222.
35. Ilham, R. (2018). Improve quality of e-loyalty in online food delivery services: A case of Indonesia. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Information Technology*, 96(15), 4760–4769.
36. Jung, S. M. (2023). The effects of food delivery app offline service quality on the food delivery app users' satisfaction and continuous use intention. *Culinary Science & Hospitality Research*, 29(9), 67–79.
37. Karimbanakkal, S., & Mullappallykayamkulath, M. A. (2022). An empirical study on e-service quality and e-loyalty towards online food delivery service—millennials' perspective. *International Journal of Applied Marketing & Management*, 7(2), 1–5.
38. Khan, S., Pervez, S., Khanum, S., & Khan, M. N. (2023). The impact of online-logistics service quality on negative word of mouth and repurchase intention for drop-shipping services in food industry. *Asian Journal of Academic Research*, 4(3), 1–15.
39. Lee, C. P., Hung, M. J., & Chen, D. Y. (2022). Factors affecting citizen satisfaction: Examining from the perspective of the expectancy disconfirmation theory and individual differences. *Asian Journal of Political Science*, 30(1), 35–60.
40. Lehto, X. Y., Park, O. J., & Gordon, S. E. (2015). Migrating to new hotels: A comparison of antecedents of business and leisure travelers' hotel switching intentions. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 16(3), 235–258.
41. Li, Z., & Cheng, Y. (2014). From free to fee: Exploring the antecedents of consumer intention to switch to paid online content. *Journal of Electronic Commerce Research*, 15(4), 281.
42. Lin, P. M., Au, W. C. W., & Baum, T. (2024). Service quality of online food delivery mobile application: An examination of the spillover effects of mobile app satisfaction. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 36(3), 906–926.
43. Lin, W. B. (2012). The determinants of consumers' switching intentions after service failure. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 23(7–8), 837–854.
44. Lin, X., Mamun, A. A., Yang, Q., & Masukujjaman, M. (2023). Examining the effect of logistics service quality on customer satisfaction and re-use intention. *PLOS ONE*, 18(5), e0286382.
45. Majeed, M. I., Mahmood, R., & Munir, S. (2022). A Study of Impact of Price, Online Delivery, Quality of Service, Quality of Food and Quality of the Atmosphere on Customer Satisfaction and Customer Switching Behavior in the Restaurant Industry of Pakistan, *Change Management: An International Journal*. 2(2),

46. Malhotra, A., & Kubowicz Malhotra, C. (2013). Exploring switching behavior of US mobile service customers. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 27(1), 13–24.
47. Malle, B. F. (2022). Attribution theories: How people make sense of behavior. In *Theories in Social Psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 93–120).
48. Mannayong, J. (2024). Evaluation of the effectiveness of digital-based public services in Makassar City. *International Journal of Economics and Management Research*, 3(2), 147–165.
49. Moehl, S., & Friedman, B. A. (2022). Consumer perceived authenticity of organizational corporate social responsibility (CSR) statements: A test of attribution theory. *Social Responsibility Journal*, 18(4), 875–893.
50. Mishra, S. B., & Alok, S. (2022). *Handbook of research methodology*. Educreation publishing.
51. Nikbin, D., Marimuthu, M., & Hyun, S. S. (2016). Influence of perceived service fairness on relationship quality and switching intention: An empirical study of restaurant experiences. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(10), 1005–1026.
52. Nikhashemi, S. R., Valaei, N., & Tarofder, A. K. (2017). Does brand personality and perceived product quality play a major role in mobile phone consumers' switching behaviour? *Global Business Review*, 18(3_suppl), S108–S127.
53. Nimako, S. G., & Ntim, B. A. (2015). Modelling the antecedents and consequence of consumer switching behaviour in Ghanaian mobile telecommunication industry. *International Journal of Business and Emerging Markets*, 7(1), 37–75.
54. Ofori, K. S., Otu, L. S., & Addae, J. A. (2015, November). Antecedents of customer switching intention in the Ghanaian telecommunications industry. *Accounting Forum*, 1, 95–108.
55. Ong, C. S., Chang, S. C., & Lee, S. M. (2013). Website satisfaction dimensions: Factors between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. *Information Development*, 29(4), 299–308.
56. Opere-Ansah, J. (2024). The impact of service disruptions on customer loyalty and satisfaction in the food delivery industry in the French-speaking part of Switzerland.
57. Osman, I., Omar, E. N., Ratnasari, R. T., Furqon, C., & Sultan, M. A. (2024). Perceived service quality and risks towards satisfaction of online halal food delivery system: From the Malaysian perspectives. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, 15(9), 2198–2228.
58. Patel, N. K. (2024). Antecedents of consumers' brand switching behavior in mobile service provider. *South Asian Journal of Marketing*, 5(1), 15–31.
59. Peng, X., Scott, R., Prybutok, V., & Sidorova, A. (2014). Product quality vs service quality in the mobile industry: Is there a dominant driver of customer intention to switch providers? *Operations Management Research*, 7, 63–76.
60. Pereira, F. A. D. M., Ramos, A. S. M., Andrade, A. P. V. D., & Oliveira, B. M. K. D. (2015). Use of virtual learning environments: A theoretical model using decomposed expectancy disconfirmation theory. *Journal of Information Systems and Technology Management*, 12(2), 333–350.
61. Pillay, S. (2025). Investigating brand switching in same-day-grocery-delivery mobile sector: the moderating role of income in an emerging market. *Cogent business & management*, 12(1), 2552920.

62. Saharan, V. A., Kulhari, H., Jadhav, H., Pooja, D., Banerjee, S., & Singh, A. (2024). Introduction to research methodology. In *Principles of research methodology and ethics in pharmaceutical sciences* (pp. 1-46). CRC Press.
63. Saharinen, T., Koivumaa-Honkanen, H., Hintikka, J., Kylmä, J., Lehto, S. M., Honkalampi, K., ... & Viinamäki, H. (2014). The effect of long-term life dissatisfaction on health-related quality of life among general population subjects. *Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing*, 21(8), 755–763.
64. Salma, A., Rabbaniyah, N., Nuh, A., & Wibowo, F. E. (2024). The impact of the boycott phenomenon on switching intentions from foreign fast-food chains to local outlets. *Kinerja*, 6(2), 194–208.
65. Schiebler, T., Lee, N., & Brodbeck, F. C. (2025). Expectancy-disconfirmation and consumer satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 1–22.
66. Sharma, H. (2024). Identifying determinants of refurbished apparel adoption: An attribution theory perspective. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 23(1), 3–14.
67. Sharma, P. B., Pathak, R., & Ahuja, D. (2023). Effect of negative customer experience and negative confirmation on electronic word-of-mouth: A case of food delivery apps in India. *Indian Journal of Marketing*, 53(11), 23–40.
68. Shin, D. H., & Kim, W. Y. (2008). Forecasting customer switching intention in mobile service: An exploratory study of predictive factors in mobile number portability. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 75(6), 854–874.
69. Sözer, E. G., & Civelek, M. E. (2018). How does customer experience shape the attitude towards and intention to brand switching? *İşletme Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 10(1), 856–875.
70. Sözer, E. G., Uzpeder, İ., & Özcan, H. (2023). The role of services mix and value-based benefits on customer switching intention: A study on online food delivery services platforms. *Business & Management Studies: An International Journal*, 11(2), 640–657.
71. Su, D. N., Nguyen-Phuoc, D. Q., Duong, T. H., Dinh, M. T. T., Luu, T. T., & Johnson, L. (2022). How does quality of mobile food delivery services influence customer loyalty? Gronroos's service quality perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 34(11), 4178-4205.
72. Suryawardani, B., & Wulandari, A. (2020). Determinant factors of customers switching behavior to customer satisfaction and loyalty in online transportation users in Bandung. *JDM (Jurnal Dinamika Manajemen)*, 11(1), 12-26.
73. Tan, R., Li, Y., Yang, S., Yan, S., & Lin, K. (2024, May). Understanding Consumers' Negative Word-of-Mouth Intention in the Aftermath of AI-Based Service Failure Through Attribution Theory. In *Wuhan International Conference on E-business* (pp. 191-202). Cham: Springer Nature Switzerland.
74. Tarmazi, S. A. A., Wan Ismail, W. R., Noor Azmin, N. A. S. and Abu Bakar, A. R. (2021) "Consumer Purchase Intention toward Online Food Delivery Service: The Implication for Future Research", *Malaysian Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (MJSSH)*, 6(9), pp. 347 - 354. doi: 10.47405/mjssh.v6i9.972.
75. Thomas, C. G., & Thomas, C. G. (2021). *Research methodology and scientific writing* (pp. 135-151). Thrissur: Springer.

76. Tseng, F. C., & Teng, C. I. (2014). Antecedents for user intention to adopt another auction site. *Internet Research*, 24(2), 205-222.
77. Van Ryzin, G. G. (2013). An experimental test of the expectancy-disconfirmation theory of citizen satisfaction. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management*, 32(3), 597-614.
78. Van Tonder, E., & De Beer, L. T. (2024). Promoting continued green helping behaviour: revisiting attribution theory. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 21(1), 226-247.
79. Verma, R., Verma, S., & Abhishek, K. (2024). *Research methodology*. Booksclinic Publishing.
80. Wang, X., & Zhou, R. (2023). Impacts of user expectation and disconfirmation on satisfaction and behavior intention: The moderating effect of expectation levels. *International Journal of Human-Computer Interaction*, 39(15), 3127-3140.
81. Willmott, H. (2020). On research methodology. *The Journal of Organization and Discourse*, 1(1), 1-4.
82. Wirtz, J., Xiao, P., Chiang, J., & Malhotra, N. (2014). Contrasting the drivers of switching intent and switching behavior in contractual service settings. *Journal of Retailing*, 90(4), 463-480.
83. Wu, H. C., Wei, C. F., Tseng, L. Y., & Cheng, C. C. (2018). What drives green brand switching behavior? *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 36(6), 694-708.
84. Wu, M., Gao, J., Hayat, N., Long, S., Yang, Q., & Al Mamun, A. (2024). Modelling the significance of food delivery service quality on customer satisfaction and reuse intention. *PLOS ONE*, 19(2), e0293914.
85. Xu, L. U., Blankson, C., & Prybutok, V. (2017). Relative contributions of product quality and service quality in the automobile industry. *Quality Management Journal*, 24(1), 21-36.
86. Xu, X., & Li, Y. (2016). The antecedents of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction toward various types of hotels: A text mining approach. *International journal of hospitality management*, 55, 57-69.
87. Yeo, V. C. S., Goh, S. K., & Rezaei, S. (2017). Consumer experiences, attitude and behavioral intention toward online food delivery (OFD) services. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer services*, 35, 150-162.
88. Yuan, H., & Wang, J. (2025). Study on the influence of customers' consumption intention in online food delivery service: Calorie label as the moderator variable. *PloS one*, 20(6), e0326617.
89. Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(2), 31-46.
90. Zehir, C., & Narcikara, E. (2016). E-service quality and e-recovery service quality: Effects on value perceptions and loyalty intentions. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 229, 427-443.
91. Zhang, J., & Weng, Z. (2025). Bystanders' support for online customer complaints: an integrated perspective of deontic justice theory and attribution theory. *Nankai Business Review International*, 16(2), 208-238.

ANNEX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am a master's student at Vilnius University Business School. The enclosed questionnaire is part of my master's degree research project aimed to study digital service quality dissatisfaction. The questionnaire is anonymous. It should not take more than fifteen minutes to fill. Please, be informed that there are no right or wrong responses. Kindly fill the questions in the attached questionnaire. Your participation is voluntary. If you choose to complete the questionnaire, you will be considered to have given your consent to participate in the research project and to publish the results of the research project.

Please rest assured that whatever information you give here will only be used for academic judgment for the purpose of attaining the main goal of this research.

Sincerely,

Chidi Richard Orji

Questionnaire on Digital Service Quality Dissatisfaction and Brand Switching Intentions in Food Delivery Services

1 Have you used any food delivery application or website such as Bolt Food, Wolt and LastMile in Lithuania in the last 6 months?

- Yes
- No (If no, please do not fill this questionnaire)

2 Did you feel any form of dissatisfaction during your most recent food delivery order with regard to service? (eg poor customer support, wrong information, app issues)

- Yes
- No (If no, please do not fill this questionnaire)

Section B: Your Food Delivery Usage Behaviour

Once more, consider the food delivery app/website that you selected above as the one you used most recently and answer the following questions about your usage of the app/website.

3 How often do you use food delivery services?

- More than 4 times a month
- 2–3 times per month
- Once a month
- Less than once a month

Please think about the food delivery app/website that you named above again and give your thoughts on the customer service quality via this app/website. On the scale of 1–5 indicate your choice for each question. (1= Strongly Disagree, 5= Strongly Agree).

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
Customer support is responsive					
Customer support resolves issues successfully					
Customer service representatives respond with articulate information					
Customer support is available if needed					
Customer service treats me courteously					
It provides correct information about orders					
Delivery time estimates are reliable					
The menu information is current					

Information is provided to the right level of detail in the app					
The information is easy to understand					
In general, this delivery service provides dependable digital service					
The digital service has met my expectations					
It is a consistent digital experience					
I feel confident while using this delivery app/website					

Section E: Website & App Usability

Please again, think about the food delivery app/website that you named above. Based on your recent usage, indicate your experience with website/app usage of the food delivery service on a 5-point scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 5= Strongly Agree).

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
It is an easy app/website to navigate					
It is easy to place an order					
The layout is clear and user-friendly					
The app/website loads fast					
It makes ordering rather simple with the design					

Please again, think about the food delivery app/website that you named above. Consider the experience. Indicate your agreement on dissatisfaction with the digital service quality of the food delivery service using the following statements on a 5-point scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 5= Strongly Agree).

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I was not pleased with my recent service experience					
This service did not meet my expectations					
I felt frustrated with the delivery process					
The digital experience did not satisfy me					

Please again, think about the food delivery app/website that you named above. Consider the effort, inconvenience, and potential losses if you were to switch to another food delivery service. Indicate your agreement with the following statements on a 5-point scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 5= Strongly Agree).

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
Switching to another delivery service for food would be an inconvenience					
It takes too much effort to switch to another platform					
I may lose some benefits if I switch					
There are very limited alternatives available to switch to					

Please again, think about the food delivery app/website that you named above. Based on your recent experience, indicate your likelihood of switching to another food delivery service on a 5-point scale (1= Strongly Disagree, 5= Strongly Agree).

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
I am considering switching over to another food delivery service					
I will try a different food delivery app soon					
I would probably be switching if I had another bad experience					
It is only after my dissatisfaction that I seek alternatives					
I will probably stop using food delivery services in the near future					

What is your Gender?

• Male

• Female

Prefer not to say

Please, write down how old you are now in years?

Your answer....

What is your Age in years?

18-29

30-39

40-49

50+

Please, mark what average income you have per month?

Less than 1201 euros

1201-1450 euros

1451-1500 euros

More than 1500 euros

What is your nationality?

Lithuanian

Other European

Other Non-European

What is your Employment Status?

Employed Full-Time

Employed Part-Time

Student

Unemployed

Annex 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlational Analysis

Correlations

		Gender	Age	Income per month	nationality	Employee status	Intention to use Food Delivery Services	how often do you use food delivery service?
Gender	Pearson Correlation	1	.869**	.842**	.775**	.872**	. ^b	.855**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220	220	220
Age	Pearson Correlation	.869**	1	.931**	.832**	.894**	. ^b	.814**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220	220	220
Income per month	Pearson Correlation	.842**	.931**	1	.922**	.933**	. ^b	.847**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220	220	220
nationality	Pearson Correlation	.775**	.832**	.922**	1	.859**	. ^b	.860**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220	220	220
Employee status	Pearson Correlation	.872**	.894**	.933**	.859**	1	. ^b	.839**
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
	N							

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220	220
Intentions in Food Delivery Services	Pearson Correlation	. ^b	. ^b	. ^b	. ^b	. ^b	. ^b
	Sig. (2-tailed)
	N	220	220	220	220	220	220
how often do you use food delivery service?	Pearson Correlation	.855**	.814**	.847**	.860**	.839**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	220	220	220	220	220	220

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

b. Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
customer support is responsive	4.0455	1.24149	220
Customer support resolves issues successfully.	3.7136	1.32926	220
Customer service representatives respond with articulate information.	3.9409	1.19785	220
Customer support is available if needed.	3.9273	1.19900	220
Customer service treats me courteously.	3.8364	1.23516	220

Correlations

		customer support is responsive	Customer support resolves issues successfully.	Customer service representatives respond with articulate information.	Customer support is available if needed.	Customer service treats me courteously.
customer support is responsive	Pearson Correlation	1	.927**	.944**	.950**	.946**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220
Customer support resolves issues successfully.	Pearson Correlation	.927**	1	.918**	.929**	.970**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220
Customer service representatives respond with articulate information.	Pearson Correlation	.944**	.918**	1	.989**	.963**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220
Customer support is available if needed.	Pearson Correlation	.950**	.929**	.989**	1	.972**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	220	220	220	220	220
Customer service treats me courteously.	Pearson Correlation	.946**	.970**	.963**	.972**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	220	220	220	220	220

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).