

Georgia Southern University

Digital Commons@Georgia Southern

Association of Marketing Theory and Practice
Proceedings 2013

Association of Marketing Theory and Practice
Proceedings

2013

The Effect of Antecedent Mood On Customer Loyalty Intentions: A Mood-By-Gender Interaction

Michael L. Thomas

Lindsay Larson

Linda G. Mullen

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/amtp-proceedings_2013

 Part of the [Marketing Commons](#)

This conference proceeding is brought to you for free and open access by the Association of Marketing Theory and Practice Proceedings at Digital Commons@Georgia Southern. It has been accepted for inclusion in Association of Marketing Theory and Practice Proceedings 2013 by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons@Georgia Southern. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@georgiasouthern.edu.

The Effect of Antecedent Mood On Customer Loyalty Intentions: A Mood-By-Gender Interaction

Michael Lee Thomas
Georgia Southern University

Lindsay R.L. Larson
Georgia Southern University

Linda G. Mullen
Georgia Southern University

ABSTRACT

This study suggests that induced antecedent moods may, in a systematic manner, influence subsequent levels of loyalty intention within consumer scenarios. Furthermore, this research finds that there exists differential responses to induced mood states by gender, which fall in line with research on the underlying gender differences in cognitive processing, levels of risk aversion, motivation, and the experience of emotion while shopping. Past studies in this area have shown only a mild connection between induced antecedent mood state and loyalty intentions, which may be due in part to the issue of an emotion by gender interaction. This paper reinforces previous work and extends this relationship to include gender as moderator. With a better understanding of the way in which different mood states influence customer loyalty intentions, a new approach to managing customer mood-states emerges.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers and theorists have set out to describe the connection between a retailer's ability to incite mood states such as delight (or dissatisfaction) and enhanced (or deteriorated) customer loyalty towards that business. Much of the existing work in this area has focused primarily on the 'consumption emotion,' or the state brought on by interacting directly with a product or service (Dube' & Menon, 2000; Arnold & Reynolds, 2009). However, it is often the case that customers enter a retail scenario already set in some mood state; incidental antecedent moods may be entirely unrelated to the retail scenario (e.g., a customer just ended a phone call with an angry spouse before entering the store) or directly caused by preceding service scenarios (e.g., a customer is walking from store-to-store through a mall or shopping center, and the delight of a wonderful shopping experience in one store remains active as the customer enters the next one). Therefore, a discussion regarding the effects of mood states upon customer loyalty must also consider these more nonspecific, diffuse and incidental effects of mood state on customer loyalty intentions.

Moods are affective states that *include* emotions (Luomala & Laaksonen, 2000), however mood states are differentiated from ‘emotional states’ in that moods persist over a length of time at lower levels of intensity than a singular emotional episode. One can envision an ‘emotional state’ as a few brief and intense seconds of surprise (e.g., someone has a large dog lunging towards them), while a ‘mood state’ might be a persistent negative feeling that lasts at a low level over many hours. Antecedent moods may unintentionally influence subsequent experiences and perceptions despite the absence of a clear referent event of origin (Davidson, 1994; Ekman, 1994), and are of particular interest because of their ability to alter subjective experience without a person’s conscious consideration or appreciation of this impact. Mood states have been shown to influence a wide range of consumer behaviors (Lee & Sternthal, 1999; Swinyard, 1993; Barone, Miniard), and to play a role in customer satisfaction (Andreassen & Lindestad, 1993; Bagozzi, Gopinath & Nyer 1999; Stauss & Neuhas, 1997).

Importantly, mood states can be fairly difficult to articulate (Luomala & Laaksonen, 2000), which creates problems for any study in which mood is measured with self-report and then correlated with scales of consumer intention. Therefore, mood induction through priming methodology (Velten, 1968) is an ideal option in the study of mood effects upon the consumer, as it does not rely on the measurement of mood through self-report. As antecedent mood states may alter consumer perceptions (Burke & Edell, 1989) and can be incidental in nature, induced mood can be categorized as a form of emotional priming. Priming effects hold deep roots in the modern psychological understanding of judgment and decision-making (Bargh, 2006). In fact many recent studies on consumer behavior have utilized laboratory-based priming methodology to explore questions ranging from choice in the grocery store (Dijksterhuis, Smith, van Baaren & Wigboldus, 2005) to shopping engagement (Kettle & Haubl, 2011).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Customer Delight, Satisfaction & Dissatisfaction

Customer delight has been variously described as being a subset of customer satisfaction research (Johnston, 2004); as being a distinct construct that, while related to customer satisfaction, is separate and different (Berman, 2005); and as representing ‘100% satisfaction’ (Ngobo, 1999). The commonality between these varied definitions is the acknowledgement that customer delight is something beyond mere satisfaction, and that delight may include affective aspects such as joy and surprise (Berman, 2005) that are not characteristic of mere satisfaction. In theory, delighted customers should be more loyal than simply satisfied customers (Hallowell, 1996), because the customer’s emotional involvement ties them to the product (Edwards, 2003), and much has been written about this potential relationship (see Fornell, Johnson, Cha & Bryant, 1996). The relationship between positive mood states and enhanced reported consumer satisfaction has already been developed by prior research (Prakash, 1984-1985; Knowles, Grove, and Pickett, 1993) and it is often assumed that a satisfied customer is surely a loyal customer. However, in several studies of customer loyalty intentions, antecedent mood has been found to explain only a very small amount of variance in loyalty intentions (de Ruyter & Bloemer, 1999; White & Yu, 2005).

One of the ongoing debates within the satisfaction/delight research surrounds the linear relationship between customer dissatisfaction, satisfaction and delight (Coyne, 1989; Fornell et al., 1996; Ngobo, 1999; Berman, 2005). Specifically, the relationship between dissatisfaction, satisfaction, and delight variables may not occur linearly on a metric continuum. Kano (1984) illustrates this by breaking satisfaction/delight into three realms: Must-Be Requirements; Satisfier Requirements; and Attractive Requirements. Essentially, the must-be requirements are those basic consumer expectations that must be met in order to avoid dissatisfaction or outrage. Satisfier requirements are those that are necessary to exceed expectations (satisfy the customer). Attractive requirements are those that are not expected by customers and therefore tend to delight the customer. Satisfied customers, because they have had their expectations met, may show some level of loyalty, but do not tend to become ambassadors of the brand. Although satisfaction may fall at some theoretical midpoint between delight and dissatisfaction, the specific relationship between these three concepts remains uncertain.

Mood Induction

The development of mood induction procedures (MIPs) is fundamental in the study of mood states and their effect on perception, cognition and behavior. Mood induction techniques include several methods meant to invoke a mood-state within the laboratory setting, in order to study the impact of mood in real time. These fairly simple techniques have been shown to successfully alter everything from future outlook (Schwarz & Clore, 1983), to levels of creativity (Adaman & Blaney, 1995), as well as basic interpretations of ambiguous circumstances (Bisson & Sears, 2007). One of the earliest MIPs developed was the Velten Mood induction (Velten, 1968), which involves the participant reading off a series of self-referent emotional statements from a set of cards. More recently, a variety of induction methods have been developed and utilized towards the same end, to include musical mood inductions (Clark, 1983), visual inductions via emotional video clips (Gross & Levensen, 1995), and autobiographical recall of emotional scenarios (Brewer, Doughtie & Lubin, 1980).

Larsen and Sinnett (1991) concluded that the Velten MIP does have a genuine effect on mood, which is independent of demand characteristics. However, when experimental demand has the potential to threaten the validity of a study, MIPs with more indirect content than the Velten MIP are preferable. In other words, since mood induction may be considered a form of non-conscious priming, an indirect and subtler induction method (or one utilizing a cover story) is preferable. For this reason, autobiographical recall was chosen for the current study.

Autobiographical recall (aka 'Imagination MIP'), is an induction procedure in which participants are asked to vividly recollect emotional moments from their own lives, and also asked to write down associated perceptions and feelings to further evoke the desired mood-state. The autobiographical procedure has been found to be highly effective in inducing mood states, whereby participants asked to recall positive autobiographical events have subsequently experienced significantly better moods, and participants who recall negative autobiographical events experienced a worsened mood, as compared to those who recall neutral life events. Mood validation scales on this method have shown highly significant mood effects at $p < .01$ (Forgas, 1995; Forgas, Laham & Vargan, 2005). Westermann, Spies, Stahl & Hesse (1996) have further

established through meta-analysis a mean weighted effect of .359 for the induction of positive moods, and .522 for negative moods with autobiographical recall MIPs. Additionally, there is an underlying assumption that additive effects exist upon combining more than one MIP (see Bower, 1981), especially if one procedure serves as a backdrop to the more cognitively involved procedure (for example, an emotional image viewed while completing an autobiographical emotion task). For this reason, an additive background visual MIP (pretested for display of the intended mood-state) was provided within the current study alongside the autobiographical task to bolster induction effects.

Gender, Mood and Information Processing in the Retail Environment

Gender is also known to interact with mood effects (Kellaris & Mantel, 1994; Martin, 2003) and information processing (Klinterberg, Levander, & Schalling, 1987; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991), while mood states in turn can also alter information processing differentially by gender (Blackhart, Kilne, Donohue, LaRowe, & Joiner, 2001). People in positive moods are more likely to process information in a heuristic fashion (Mackie & Worth, 1989), however the 'heuristic' utilized may vary by gender. The current study suggests that emotional states can affect levels of customer loyalty, but in different manners by gender. This hypothesis is rooted in theory regarding gender differences in shopping behavior, motivations and cognitive processing.

Men and women are known to process information differently (Meyers-Levy, 1989; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991), and are thought to have fairly different cognitive structures that organize and guide consumer perceptions (Cross & Madson, 1997; Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 1991; Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991). This suggests that the shopping behavior of men and women is inherently different (Grewal, Baker, Levy & Voss, 2003; Otnes & McGrath, 2001), and gender is considered to be one of the major characteristics relevant to appreciating consumer behavior (Meyers-Levy and Maheswaran, 1991). Furthermore, mood states are known to affect each gender's information processing style in a different manner. For example, negative mood states have been shown to flip the processing style of men (but not women) to a more reflective and motivated style (Martin, 2003) and psychophysiological research has suggested that men and women show significantly different brain activation during judgments made while in a negative mood (Blackhart, Kilne, Donohue, LaRowe, & Joiner, 2001). Positive mood states also have been shown to have differential effects on the processing styles of men and women in their response to advertising (Martin, 2003). Three main differences between the genders drive our hypotheses in relation to the effect of mood states on customer loyalty; namely gender differences in shopper variety-seeking, emotional engagement with shopping, and tendencies towards risk aversion.

Variety Seeking: While many lay people assume that women tend to be more loyal customers than men (Lin, 2008), it has been shown that women are actually prone to seek out a wider assortment of options and novelty than men as consumers (Shim, 1996; Shim & Kotsiopoulos, 1993). Consumer behavior research cites both sociological & biological reasons for these types of gender differences, including the standard 'hunter' vs. 'gatherer' mindset argument (Bem, 1981; Moschis, 1985; Reinisch, Gandelman & Spiegel, 1979). In fact, less than one in ten men report seeking novelty in surveys regarding their shopping behavior and shopping preferences

(Bakewell & Mitchell, 2004). More specific studies on assortment seeking in shopping scenarios have shown that, while women may be the more service-loyal sex, men actually show greater loyalty when it comes to retail settings (Lin, 2008).

Emotional Engagement: Men and women also differ in the emotional rewards they associate with shopping, in that men do not report experiencing the high levels of emotional engagement that women experience from the activity of browsing and selecting items in retail settings (Brody & Hall, 2003; Stearns, 1992). Women as a group traditionally skew much higher on the Recreational Shopper Identity scale, which indicates a connection to shopping that goes beyond mere enjoyment and potentially enters aspects of the self-concept (Guiry, 2006). Additionally, gender-schema theories (Bem, 1981) suggest that men, more so than women, tend to experience shopping within the framework of success and achievement (Firat & Dholakia, 1998). From this perspective, men view shopping as a competition which they are attempting to ‘win’ through efficient and swift decision-making, while women experience greater levels of satisfaction from the general activity of shopping itself (Otnes & McGrath, 2001) and derive more enjoyment than men simply from the act of selecting between alternative options (Mattila, 2010). Male retail loyalty may therefore actually be an artifact of the achievement they experience in feeling they’ve made quick and accurate decisions.

Risk Aversion: Studies suggest that men tend to have higher levels of self-confidence in their decisions (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974) and in their ability to process information than women within the context of achievement tasks (Kempf, Palan & Laczniak, 1997)—and as noted above, shopping may be experienced as an achievement task by men. Women tend to not only have lower levels of confidence in their own ability to process information; they also tend to be more risk-averse than men (Eckel, 2008), and perception of risk has been known to influence loyalty (Yung-Shen, 2010). There is ample evidence of gender differences when it comes to choice under risk (Niederle and Vesterlund 2007; Gneezy, Leonard, and List 2009). Importantly, while there exists no significant difference in levels of risk aversion for men in positive versus negative mood states, positive mood has been shown to significantly reduce risk aversion in women (Andersen, 2008). This is perhaps another indication of why women tend to seek out wider assortments while shopping when in a positive mood, and this serves as the basis for the first hypothesis:

H1: Women will report lower intentions of loyalty than men towards known brands when in an antecedent state of delight.

A state of delight may induce women’s heuristic processing style, which in turn could lower levels of loyalty, increase risk-taking and brand switching. In this way, customer loyalty is primarily about hedging risk for women, because sticking with familiar products or brands creates less potential for unexpected negative results. This assumption serves as the basis for our second hypothesis regarding women:

H2: Women will report greater loyalty intentions towards known brands than men when in a state of dissatisfaction.

With dissatisfaction and negative mood states comes enhanced uncertainty in one's decisions, and a preference for brands already deemed 'safe' would be a likely response for this highly risk-averse gender demographic. As mood states do not affect levels of risk aversion as heavily in men, a negative mood should not enhance loyalty for them in the same manner that it does for women.

H3: Men will show significantly lower levels of loyalty intentions towards known brands, as compared to women, when men are in a state of dissatisfaction.

Since the male information processing style in retail scenarios is one of speed and efficiency, and because they do not often find shopping to be an emotionally rewarding activity, delight may actually serve as strong indication to men that they have effectively 'won' the task of making a good consumption choice. Once a man feels he has made the right choice while shopping, the likelihood that he will continue to stick with that choice should increase.

H4: Men will show greater loyalty intentions than women towards known brands when men are in a state of delight.

As men do not typically derive emotional enjoyment from the activity of shopping, the especially strong positive emotion associated with a state of delight may actually be an unexpected and highly relevant cue to men that they've chosen correctly.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

A total of one hundred and sixteen college students in a southeastern school participated for course credit. A post-experimental questionnaire included funneled debriefing to determine whether participants had guessed at the true purpose of the study, and data from participants who offered accurate guesses were removed from the analysis (n = 6), leaving n = 110 participants. The breakdown by participant gender included 54 male and 56 female participants, in the age range of 19 to 28 years.

Procedure

As noted by Goritz and Moser (2006) regarding the administration of Web-based MIPs, attention must be paid to participant compliance in order for mood effects to be properly elicited.

Therefore, though the experiment was conducted within a computer-based survey, all participants were individually scheduled and greeted by a research assistant as participants ran through the experiment at a private computer station. Individually, each subject was administered the experimental materials using a Qualtrics computer-based survey platform. Each participant was randomly assigned in a double-blind manner by the program to one of three possible mood-induction scenarios, to include 'Satisfaction' (n = 38), 'Dissatisfaction' (n = 37)

and 'Delight' (n=35). The Satisfaction condition was included as a non-emotional comparison group for the Delight and Dissatisfaction conditions.

The autobiographical mood induction was modeled after prior research (Forgas, 1995), in which participants are asked to recall and write about a time in their life when they felt either delight, satisfaction or dissatisfaction, depending on which scenario a participant was randomly assigned. The delight and dissatisfaction prompts included more overtly emotional descriptors such as recalling a time of 'overwhelming joy and surprise' or 'unhappiness and things going worse than ever expected,' respectively, while the satisfaction prompt was more benign; asking for recall of a time when things went 'just as expected.' Both the delight and dissatisfaction conditions specifically requested an interpersonal scenario, as both of these emotional constructs are thought to differ from satisfaction on this particular dimension (Verma, 2003).

To bolster the induction through the addition of a background visual MIP (Gross & Levensen, 1995), a line drawing depicting a person experiencing the appropriate mood-state accompanied each autobiographical recall prompt. A pre-test of stimuli was administered (n = 20) to determine whether the drawings were perceived to have a basic emotional match with the induction states, and these materials were found to have 100% inter-rater agreement on the emotional match. The mood induction itself was presented as an 'Emotional Memory Task,' in which participants were explicitly asked to recall a particular emotional state as vividly as possible.

The style of induction was designed to mirror the wording used successfully by Forgas, et.al. (2005). In order to diminish experimental demand, the prompt was phrased so as to avoid use of the exact emotional terms intended for induction ('delight,' 'satisfaction,' and 'dissatisfaction'); for example the delight prompt read "Your task is to think of a specific event that has occurred in your life, that made you feel extremely happy because someone had made the effort to surprise you in an unanticipated way; a surprise which brought you overwhelming joy and satisfaction."

Additionally, the mood induction task itself was framed with the use of a basic cover story, which suggested that the purpose of the autobiographical recall task was to create content for a 'memory task' to be completed at a later time during the survey. This cover story was also meant to motivate prolonged activation of the mood-state content, in anticipation of a later memory test. Although the true purpose of the study in the larger sense was not revealed at this time, the intention of invoking a mood-state was fairly explicit. In administering a mood induction, when participants are directly instructed to recall a mood, the induction method tends to produce larger effect sizes (Westermann, et.al, 1996).

Upon completion of the mood induction, participants were thanked for their work on the Emotional Memory Task, and reminded that they may be asked to return to this task later in the study. Participants were then prompted to begin a 'second study' on consumer opinions, in which subjects were asked to complete a likert-based scale questionnaire. The 'Brand Switcher' scale (Raju, 1980) was taken from the "Marketing Scales Handbook," by Bruner & Hensel (1992), and was chosen to reflect the previously hypothesized connection between antecedent mood and its impact on customer loyalty intentions. 'Brand Switcher' is a seven-item, seven-

point rating meant to measure self-reported preference for either sticking with familiar brands or trying new brands, across several general shopping scenarios. The scale is reported to have reliability (Spearman-Brown) of .832 with student samples, and was scored to indicate high levels of intended loyalty with higher scores. Upon completion of the questionnaire, participant demographic information was collected and all were debriefed.

RESULTS

A two-factor Analysis of Variance was conducted, with two between-subject factors: the mood induction, which had three levels (Delight, Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction) and gender, a two-level factor which was determined from a post-experimental demographics questions. Results are displayed in Table 1. The dependent variable consisted of participant scores on the 'Brand Switcher' Scale. Therefore, the design examined the main effects of primed mood manipulation condition, gender, and the interaction between the mood manipulation and gender on loyalty intentions.

Table 1
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Emotion	6.391	2	3.195	3.149	.047	.057
Gender	.191	1	.191	.188	.666	.002
Emotion*Gender	11.873	2	5.937	5.850	.004	.101
Error	105.536	104	1.015			
Total	2363.899	110				
Corrected Total	123.522	109				

R Squared = .146 (Adjusted R Squared = .105)
Dependent Variable: Brand Switcher Scale (Raju, 1980)

Significant interactions at the $< .05$ level were followed by simple main-effects t-tests for comparison within the levels of each factor. Means for each grouping of the 3x2 ANOVA are presented in Table 2. Analysis of Variance shows a significant main effect of the mood condition ($F(2, 104) = 3.149, p < .05; \eta^2 = .057$), which suggests that the mood induction influenced loyalty intentions. No significant main effect of gender was shown ($F(1, 104) = .188, p = .666; \eta^2 = .10$) between subjects.

Table 2.
Means Table

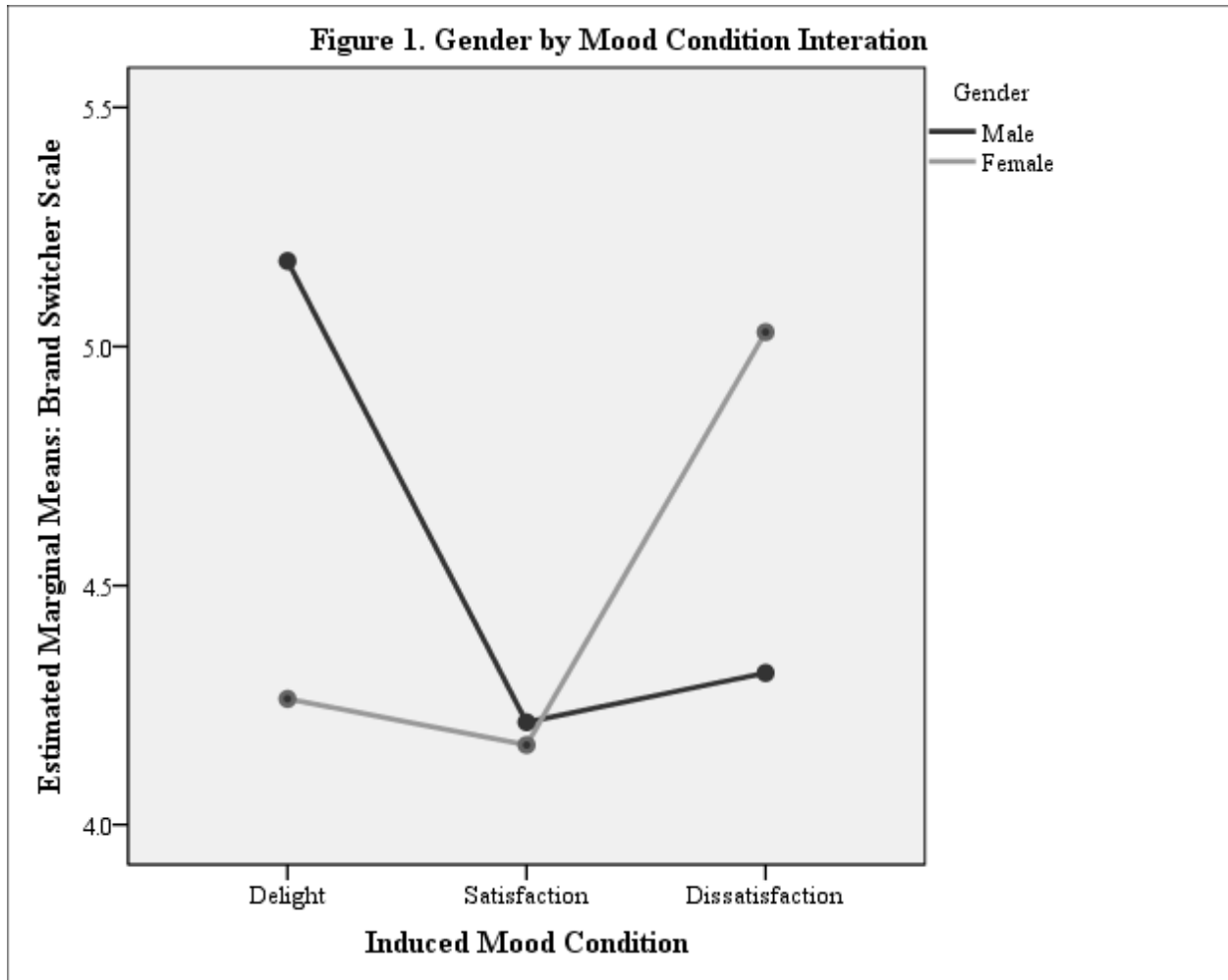
Condition	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Delight	Male	5.17	1.13	16
	Female	4.26	.88	19
	Total	4.68	1.09	35
Satisfaction	Male	4.21	.95	20
	Female	4.16	1.03	18
	Total	4.19	.97	38
Dissatisfaction	Male	4.31	.97	18
	Female	5.03	1.06	19
	Total	4.68	1.07	37
Total	Male	4.53	1.08	54
	Female	4.49	.05	56
	Total	4.51	1.06	110

Dependent Variable: Brand Switcher Scale (Raju, 1980)

While gender alone did not significantly correlate with the loyalty intention scores, the gender-by-mood condition interaction was significant ($F(2, 104) = 5.93, p < .005$), and disordinal in nature (see Figure 1 for a graphical display of the interaction; higher scores indicate higher levels of customer loyalty intentions).

To further explore the mood by gender interaction, post-hoc tests were performed. Tukey HSD showed that within the group of female participants, those induced with satisfaction and delight did not significantly differ from each other on loyalty intention scores ($p = .953$) but both did significantly differ from the set of females induced with dissatisfaction ($p = .029$ and $p = .054$, respectively) such that loyalty intention scores were highest when female participants experienced an antecedent mood induction of dissatisfaction.

Conversely, within the group of male participants, those induced with satisfaction and dissatisfaction did not significantly differ from each other on loyalty intention scores ($p = .948$), but both did significantly differ from the set of males induced with delight ($p = .018$ and $p = .045$, respectively). In this case, loyalty intention scores were highest when male participants experienced an antecedent mood induction of delight. What this suggests is that across all tested mood states, there exists no significant main effect of gender on loyalty intentions, however, within the context of specific mood states there exists a significant difference between men and women, in support of the current hypotheses.



DISCUSSION

In addition to these findings on conditions of delight and dissatisfaction, the subjects in the ‘Satisfaction’ group further inform this study’s findings. Satisfaction was included as a comparison condition because it is considered a fairly neutral, non-emotional state (Berman, 2005). The authors’ anticipated, post-hoc, that this condition might yield some level of intermediary data between delight and dissatisfaction conditions due to the spectrum-based hypothesis of mood (Coyne, 1989). However, rather than placing squarely in between the two major conditions of interest, the satisfaction condition results hung together with the conditions yielding lowest levels of loyalty intention by gender. More specifically, for female participants, loyalty intentions in an induced state of satisfaction did not differ significantly from those in a state of delight, while both satisfaction and delight conditions differed significantly from those in a state of dissatisfaction. For male participants, this pattern was inverted, such that a state of

induced satisfaction did not differ from induced dissatisfaction, while both of these conditions differed significantly from delight.

What could be the reason for this relationship with satisfaction? Much of the theoretical background on gender differences described in the literature review can be utilized to describe this pattern, in terms of which mood state is more unanticipated within the retail scenario by gender. As noted earlier, women as a segment differ from men in that they tend to derive emotional enjoyment from the act of shopping (Brody & Hall, 2003). When women consider shopping scenarios, states of satisfaction may be close in nature with states of delight, because a state of dissatisfaction would be the unexpected emotional outlier. On the other hand, for men a state of dissatisfaction may actually be closer in nature to a state of satisfaction within shopping scenarios. As men do not tend to derive highly positive emotions from the act of shopping, it might be a state of delight that is most unexpected. While satisfaction can be viewed as a neutral but positive state of being, it may not be a strong enough cue for men to elicit loyalty intentions towards retailers—that kind of influence on men might require delight. Likewise, a satisfactory shopping experience may not be a surprising enough cue to shift a woman's mood state in a way that redirects cognitive processes.

A combination of key account management and customer satisfaction/delight is necessary to best manage the varying groups of customers every firm deals with. Furthermore, the question arises: should an organization attempt to manage the pre-existing mood state that customers enter a store with? Just how much of an effect can antecedent mood have on subsequent loyalty intentions once the customer walks in the door? If antecedent mood irrelevant to the store can influence loyalty intentions towards the store, concern for organization-induced customer delight may be even more vital.

Managerial Implications

First, the significant main effect of mood on loyalty intentions should indicate to managers that a shopper's mood matters. Sales people and other "front-line" employees should be trained to take note of a customer's mood and adjust their approach accordingly. Second, along this same vein of thought, the mood/gender interaction shows that men and women respond differently with regard to their current mood state. Once again, employees should be trained to alter their customer service approach according to gender and perceived antecedent customer mood. For example, female customers exhibiting a negative mood should not be encouraged to perform any switching behavior, while men in the same mood might be encouraged to try something new.

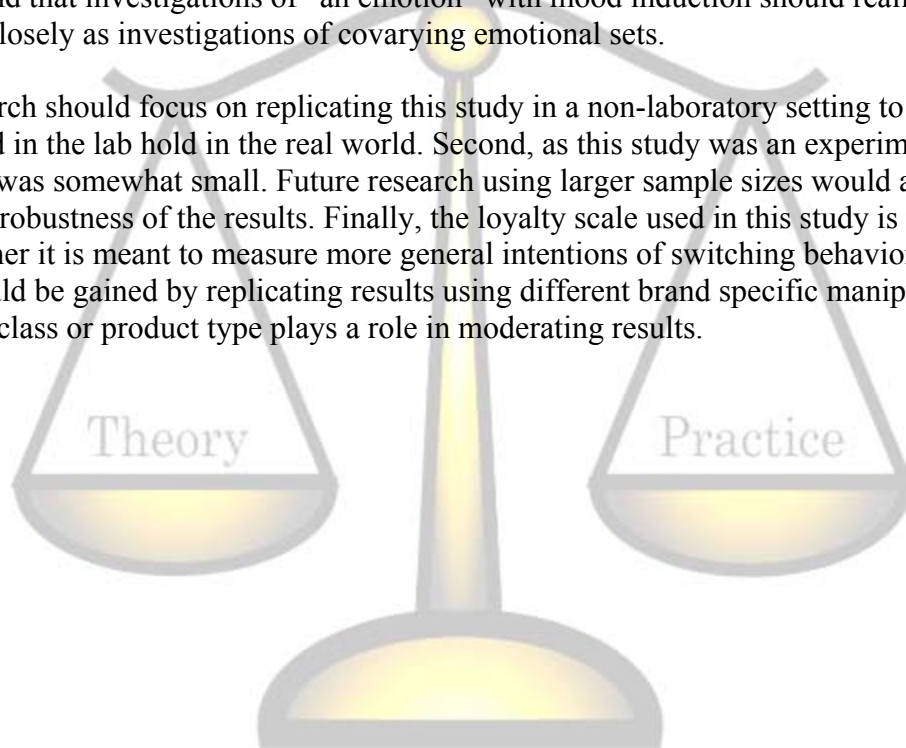
Finally, it should be noted that the study does not suggest that employees should try to put any group of customers into a bad mood for purposes of loyalty or otherwise. Rather, the implication is that a sales or service approach may be altered depending on perceived customer mood to maximize certain loyalty behavior. The salesperson can more strategically implement relationship-marketing behaviors and appreciate their value at key moments. For example, if they recognize a frequent (female) customer entering the store in a negative mood, this mood may actually be a part of the reason she has decided to shop there. That is, the shopper may be visiting a particular store seeking to regulate her negative mood by turning to the familiar, and in

this case the salesperson might do well by fostering those feelings of familiarity with the shopper (e.g., calling her by name, greeting her in a personal way) to help allow for the resolution of her negative mood via loyalty with a familiar store.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

While this study points out new avenues in mood induction and customer loyalty intentions, it is not without its shortcomings. First, this study is an experiment, which artificially manipulates subject's mood states. Of course, with complex emotions such as 'delight,' a range of affective experiences may be induced simultaneously, and it should not be presumed that a complex emotion could be induced in any 'pure' sense. Past studies of mood induction have found that in addition to the target mood, related emotions are typically induced (e.g. Atkinson & Polivy, 1976; Strickland, Hale & Anderson, 1975). Polivy's (1981) review points out that emotions tend to covary, and that investigations of "an emotion" with mood induction should really be researched closely as investigations of covarying emotional sets.

Future research should focus on replicating this study in a non-laboratory setting to see if the results found in the lab hold in the real world. Second, as this study was an experiment, the sample size was somewhat small. Future research using larger sample sizes would add to the validity and robustness of the results. Finally, the loyalty scale used in this study is not brand specific, rather it is meant to measure more general intentions of switching behavior. Further insights would be gained by replicating results using different brand specific manipulations to see if brand class or product type plays a role in moderating results.



REFERENCES

- Adaman, J.E., & Blaney, P.H. (1995). "The effects of musical mood induction on creativity." *Journal of Creative Behavior*, 29, 95-108.
- Andersen, S., Harrison, G.W., Lau, M.I., and Rutstrom, E.E. (2008). "Eliciting risk and time preferences." *Econometrica*, 76, 583-618.
- Andreassen, T. W., & Lindestad, B. (1993). "Customer loyalty and complex services: the impact of corporate image on quality, customer satisfaction and loyalty for customers with varying degrees for service expertise." *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 9, 7-23.
- Arnold, M.J., & Reynolds, K.E. (2009). "Affect and retail shopping behavior: Understanding the role of mood regulation and regulatory focus." *Journal of Retailing*, 85, 308-320.
- Atkinson, C., & Polivy, J. (1976). "Effects of delay, attack, and retaliation on state depression and hostility." *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 85, 570-576.
- Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P.U. (1999). "The role of emotions in marketing." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 27, 184-206.
- Bakewell, C., & Mitchell, V.W. (2004). "Male consumer decision making styles." *International Review of Retail Distribution and Consumer Research*, 14, 223-240.
- Bargh, J.A. (2006). "What have we been priming all these years? On the development, mechanisms and ecology of non-conscious social behavior." *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36, 147-168.
- Barone, M. J., Miniard, P.W., & Romeo, J.B. (2000). "The influence of positive mood on brand extension evaluations." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26, 386 - 400.
- Bem, S. L. (1981). "Gender schema theory: A cognitive account of sex typing." *Psychological Review*, 88, 354-364.
- Berman, B. (2005). "How to delight your customers." *California Management Review*, 48, 129-151.
- Bisson, M., & Sears, C.R. (2007). "The effect of depressed mood on the interpretation of ambiguity, with and without negative mood induction." *Cognition & Emotion*, 21, 614-645.
- Blackhart, G.C., Kilne, J.P., Donohue, K.F., LaRowe, S.D., & Joiner, T.E. (2001). "Affective responses to EEG preparation and their link to resting anterior EEG symmetry." *Personality & Individual Differences*, 32, 167 - 174.

- Bower, G. (1981). "Mood and memory." *American Psychologist*, 36, 129-148.
- Brewer, D., Doughtie, E.B., & Lubin, B. (1980). "Induction of mood and mood shift. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*," 36, 215-226.
- Brody, L., & Hall, J. (1993), Gender and Emotion. In M. Lewis & J. Havilland (Eds.), *Handbook of Emotions* (pp. 447-460). New York: Guilford Press.
- Bruner, G.C. & Hensel, P. (1992). *Marketing Scales Handbook: A Compilation of Multi-Item Measures*. Chicago, IL: American Marketing Association.
- Burke, M.C., & Edell, J.A. (1989). "The impact of feelings on ad-based affect and cognition." *Journal of Marketing Research*, 26, 69-83.
- Clark, D.M. (1983). "On the induction of depressed mood in the laboratory: Evaluation and comparison of Velten and musical procedures." *Advances in Behavior Research and Therapy*, 5, 27-49.
- Coyne, K.P. (1989). "Beyond service fads: Meaningful strategies for the real world." *Sloan Management Review*, 30 (4), 69-76.
- Cross, S.E. & Madson, L. (1997). "Models of the Self: Self-construals and gender." *Psychological Bulletin*, 122, 5-37.
- Davidson, R. (1994). On emotion, mood, and related affective constructs. In P. Ekman & R. Davidson (Eds.), *The Nature of Emotion* (pp.51-55). New York: Oxford University Press.
- de Ruyter, K., & Bloemer, J. (1999). "Customer loyalty in extended service settings: The interaction between satisfaction, value attainment and positive mood." *International Journal of Service Industry Management*. 10 (3), 320-336.
- Dijksterhuis, A., Smith, P.K., van Baaren, R.B. & Wigboldus, D.H.J. (2005). "The Unconscious Consumer: Effects of environment on consumer behavior." *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 15 (3), 193-202.
- Dube', L., & Menon, K. (2000). "Multiple roles of consumption emotion in post-purchase satisfaction with extended service transactions." *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 11(3), 287-304.
- Eckel, C.C. (2008). Men, women and risk aversion: Experimental evidence. *Handbook of Experimental Economics Results*, Volume 1, 1061-1073.
- Edwards, D. (2003). "Delight moves customer response to next level." *Business Wire* (January), 52.

Ekman, P. (1994). Moods, emotions and traits. In: P. Ekman, R. Davidson (Eds.), *The Nature of Emotion* (pp. 56-58). New York: Oxford University Press.

Fuat, F.S., & Dholakia, N. (1998). *Consuming People*. London:Routledge.

Forgas, J. P. (1992). "Affect in social judgments and decisions: A multiprocess model." *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 25, 227-275.

Forgas, J. P. (1995). "Mood and judgment: The affect infusion model (AIM)." *Psychological Bulletin*, 117, 39-66.

Forgas, J.P., Laham, S.M. & Vargas, P.T. (2005). "Mood effects on eyewitness memory: Affective influences on susceptibility to misinformation." *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 41, 574-588.

Fornell, C., Johnson, M.D., Anderson, E.W., Cha, J., & Bryant, B.E. (1996). "The American Customer Satisfaction Index: Nature, purpose, and findings." *Journal of Marketing*, 60, 7-18.

Gardner, M.P. (1985). "Mood states and consumer behavior: A critical review." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12, 281-300.

Gneezy, U., Leonard, K.L., & List, J.A. (2009). "Gender differences in competition: Evidence from a matrilineal and a patriarchal society." *Econometrica*, 77 (5), 1637-1664.

Goritz, A.S., & Moser, K. (2006). "Brief report: Web-based mood induction." *Cognition and Emotion*, 20(6), 887-896.

Grewal, D., Baker, J., Levy, M. & Voss, G.B. (2003). "The effects of wait expectations and store atmosphere evaluations on patronage intentions in service-intensive retail stores." *Journal of Retailing*, 79, 259-268.

Gross, J.J., & Levenson, R.W. (1995). "Emotion elicitation using films." *Cognition and Emotion*, 9, 87-105.

Guiry, M. (2006). "Defining and measuring recreational shopper identity." *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34 (1), 74-83.

Hallowell, R. (1996). "The relationship of customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and profitability: An empirical study." *International Journal of the Service Industry Management*, 7 (4), pp. 27-42.

Kano, N. (1984). "Attractive quality and must-quality." *Journal of the Japanese Society for Quality Control*, 14 (2), 39-48.

Kellaris, J.J., & Mantel, S.P. (1994). "The influence of mood and gender on consumers' time perceptions." In C. T. Allen & D. Roedder John (Eds.), *Advances in consumer research*, 21, 514-518.

Kempf, D.S., Palan, K.M., & Lacznia, R.N. (1997). "Gender differences in information processing confidence in an advertising context: A preliminary study." *Advances in Consumer Research*, 24, 443-449.

Kettle, K.L., & Haubl, G. (2011). "The Signature Effect: Signing influences consumption-related behavior by priming self-identity." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 38, 474-489.

Klinterberg, B.A., Levander, S.E., & Schalling, D. (1987). "Cognitive sex differences: Speed and problem-solving strategies on computerized neuropsychological tasks." *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 65, 683-697.

Knowles, P., Grove, S.J. and Pickett, G.M. (1993). "Mood and the service customer: Review and propositions." *Journal of Services Marketing*, 7(4), 41-52.

Larsen, R.J., & Sinnett, L.M. (1991). "Meta-analysis of experimental manipulations: Some factors affecting the Velten mood induction procedure." *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17, 323-334.

Lee, A.Y., & Sternthal, B. (1999). "The effects of positive mood on memory." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 26, 115-127.

Lin, X. (2008, October). Gender and customer loyalty. In *Service Operations and Logistics, and Informatics, 2008. IEEE/SOLI 2008. IEEE International Conference on* (Vol. 1, pp. 102-105). IEEE.

Luomala, H., & Laaksonen, M. (2000). "Contributions from mood research." *Psychology and Marketing*, 17 (3), 195-233.

Maccoby, E.E., & Jacklin, C.N. (1974). *The Psychology of Sex Differences*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press. London: Stanford University/Oxford University Press.

Mackie, D.M., & Worth, L.T. (1989). "Processing deficits and the mediation of positive affect in persuasion." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 27-40.

Martin, B.A.S. (2003). "The influence of gender on mood effects in advertising." *Psychology & Marketing*, 20 (3), 249-273.

Mattila, A.S. (2010). "Do women like options more than men?" An examination in the context of service recovery. *Journal of Services Marketing* 24 (7), 499-508.

Meyers-Levy, J. (1989). Gender differences in information processing: A selectivity interpretation. In: Cafferata, P., Tybout, A.M. (Eds.), *Cognitive and Affective Responses to Advertising*. Lexington, MA: Lexington.

Meyers-Levy, J., & Maheswaran, D. (1991). "Exploring differences in males' and females' processing strategies." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 18, 63–70.

Meyers-Levy, J., & Sternthal, B. (1991). "Gender differences in the use of message cues and judgments." *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28, 84–96.

Moschis, G.P. (1985). "The role of family communication in consumer socialization of children and adolescents." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10 (4), 898-913.

Ngobo, P.V. (1999). "Decreasing returns in customer loyalty: Does it really matter to delight the customers?" *Advances in Consumer Research*, 26, 469-476.

Niederle, M., & Vesterlund, L. (2007). "Do women shy away from competition? Do men compete too much?" *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 122 (3), 1067-1101.

Noble, S.M., Griffith, D.A. & Adjei, M.T. (2006). "Drivers of local merchant loyalty: Understanding the influence of gender and shopping motives." *Journal of Retailing*, 82 (3), 177–188.

Otnes, C., & McGrath, M.A. (2001). "Perceptions and realities of Male Shopping Behavior." *Journal of Retailing*, 77, 111–137.

Pogun, S. (2001). "Sex differences in brain and behavior: Personality and individual differences." *International Journal of Psychophysiology*, 42, 195–208.

Polivy, J. (1981). "On the induction of emotion in the laboratory: Discrete moods or multiple affect states?" *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41, 803-817.

Prakash, V. (1984–1985) "Mood states and consumer satisfaction: a conceptual framework." *Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behaviour*, 85 (1), 33-9.

Raju, P.S. (1980). "Optimum stimulation level: It's relationship to personality, demographics and exploratory behavior." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 7, 272-282.

Reinisch, J.M., Gandelman, R., & Spiegel, F.S. (1979). Prenatal influences on cognitive abilities: Data from experimental animals and human genetic and endocrine syndromes. In M.A. Wittig & A.C. Petersen (Eds.), *Sex-related differences in cognitive functioning* (pp. 215-240). New York: Academic Press.

- Schwarz, N., & Clore, G. L. (1983). "Mood, misattribution, and judgments of well-being: Informative and directive functions of affective states." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 513-523.
- Shim, S. (1996). "Adolescent consumer decision-making styles: The consumer socialization perspective." *Psychology & Marketing*, 13, 547-569.
- Shim, S., & Kotsiopoulos, A. (1993). "A typology of apparel shopping orientation segments among female consumers." *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 12 (1), 73-85.
- Stauss, B., Neuhaus, P. (1997). "The qualitative satisfaction model." *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8 (3), 236-249.
- Strickland, B.P., Hale, W.D., & Anderson, L.K. (1975). "Effect of induced mood states on activity and self-reported affect" *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 43 (4), 587.
- Swinyard, W.R. (1993). "The effects of mood, involvement, and quality of store experience on shopping intentions." *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20, 271-280.
- Velten, E. (1968). "A laboratory task for induction of mood states." *Behavior Research and Therapy*, 6, 473-482.
- Verma, H.V. (2003). "Customer outrage and delight." *Journal of Services Research*, 3 (1), 119-133.
- Westermann, R., Spies, K., Stahl, G., & Hesse, F.W. (1996). "Relative effectiveness and validity of mood induction procedures: a meta-analysis." *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 26, 557-580.
- White, C., & Yu, Y. (2005). "Satisfaction emotions and consumer behavioural intentions," *Journal of Services Marketing*, 19 (6), 411-20.
- Yung-Shen, Y. (2010). "Can perceived risks affect the relationship of switching costs and customer loyalty in e-commerce?" *Internet Research*, 20 (2), 210-224.

REFERENCES

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Dr. Michael Lee Thomas serves as an Associate Professor of Marketing for Georgia Southern University's College of Business Administration. He received his Ph.D. from Southern Illinois University of Carbondale in Marketing.

Dr. Lindsay Larson serves as Assistant Professor of Marketing for Georgia Southern University's College of Business Administration. She received her Ph.D. from Yale University in Social Psychology, and a Post-Doctoral Certificate in Marketing from the University of Florida's Warrington College of Business.

Dr. Linda G. Mullen serves as an Associate Professor of Marketing for Georgia Southern University's College of Business Administration. She received her Ph.D. from Southern Illinois University of Carbondale in Marketing.

