

Mood States and Consumer Behavior: A Critical Review

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A conceptual framework is presented that depicts both the mediating role of mood states and their potential importance in consumer behavior. Reviewing findings from the psychological literature indicates that mood states have direct and indirect effects on behavior, evaluation, and recall. The scope and limitations of these effects are addressed, and the implications for consumer behavior in three areas—service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, and communications (context and content)—are examined. Finally, the potential feasibility and viability of mood-related approaches to marketing research and practice are discussed.

Individuals often try to anticipate each others' moods prior to interactions and to read each others' moods during encounters. In these ways, mood information is acquired and used informally to facilitate social and professional interactions. For example, knowledge of the boss's mood on a particular day may help an employee anticipate the boss's reactions to a request for a raise. Analogously, knowledge of consumers' mood states in marketing situations may provide marketers with a more complete understanding of consumers and their reactions to marketing strategies and tactics. This mood-state knowledge may be particularly relevant for understanding consumer behavior as it is affected by service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, the content of marketing communications, and the context in which these communications appear.

More generally, insights into consumer behavior may be gleaned by examining consumers' thoughts and feelings. Considerable research using a traditional information processing paradigm has enriched our understanding of the cognitive mediators of consumer behavior. Significant insights into consumer behavior have also come from research that has examined noncognitive (nonbelief) factors such as subjective familiarity (Park, Gardner, and Thukral 1984), fun and fantasy (Hirschtman and Holbrook 1982; Holbrook and Hirschman 1982), motor and somatic representation of affect (Zajonc and Markus 1982), emotion (Fennell 1981; Weinberg and Gottwald 1982), and attitude toward the advertisement (Gardner 1985; Lutz, MacKenzie, and Belch 1983; Mitchell and Olson 1981;

Moore and Hutchinson 1983; Rossiter and Percy 1980; Shimp 1981). Findings indicate that these feelings-oriented factors may play a major role in consumer-attitude formation and brand selection.

Since mood states are a particularly important set of affective factors (Gardner and Vandersteel 1984; Westbrook 1980), they form a part of all marketing situations (Belk 1975; Lutz and Kakkar 1975) and may influence consumer behavior in many contexts, e.g., advertisement exposure and brand selection. Mood states may be quite transient and easily influenced by little things (Isen et al. 1982). Small changes in physical surroundings may influence consumers' moods at the point of purchase, and slight deviations in communications strategies may significantly affect moods upon exposure to advertising. In fact, although consumers' moods are often affected by factors beyond a marketer's control, moods can be greatly influenced by seemingly small aspects of marketer behavior, e.g., a salesperson's smile or a long wait for a doctor's appointment.

Because mood states are omnipresent and readily influenced by marketer action, they may have important effects on consumer behavior. This article provides a preliminary exploration of this potentially important, but inadequately charted territory. Specifically, we propose to examine the effects of consumers' moods on behavior, evaluation, and recall in marketing contexts. Informal analysis has suggested three areas where mood effects appear to be significant and where mood states can be influenced by marketing tactics: service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, and communications (context and content). The present article will focus on these domains, although they are not the only areas where mood states may have important effects on consumer behavior.

First, I will define terms to help clarify the distinctions between moods and other feeling states. Second, I will

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present a conceptual framework and discuss findings about the nature and limitations of the direct and indirect effects of mood on behavior, evaluation, and recall. Third, I will examine the potential implications of these findings for consumer behavior with respect to service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, and communications. In each of these areas I will address three questions:

1. What inferences can be drawn for consumer behavior from our knowledge of the effects of mood states on behavior, evaluation, and recall?
2. Can marketers take advantage of the opportunities suggested by the effects of mood states on consumer behavior, or do logistical limitations prohibit implementation of mood-oriented marketing approaches?
3. What is the current status and future potential of research to assess the impact of mood on consumer behavior?

Fourth, I will discuss the implications of mood effects on consumer behavior as they relate to the design of marketing-research studies and the development of marketing actions. Finally, I will make suggestions for future research.

Definition of Terms

The word "mood" has a wide range of usages and meaning. One might use the term to describe a phenomenological property of an individual's subjectively perceived affective state; e.g., someone may be in a cheerful mood or a hostile mood. One might also use mood to describe a property of an inanimate object; e.g., a point-of-purchase display may have a "sophisticated mood" or a "fun mood." For the purposes of this article, we will adopt the former, phenomenological, approach and view moods as feeling states that are subjectively perceived by individuals. As such, moods are a subcategory of feeling states.

The phrase "feeling state" will be used to refer to an affective state that is general and pervasive. Such states "suffuse all one's experiences, even though directed at none in particular" (Fiske 1981, p 231). These states can be contrasted with feelings directed toward specific objects, e.g., the affective component of brand attitude.

Mood will refer to feeling states that are transient; such states are particularized to specific times and situations (Peterson and Sauber 1983) and may be contrasted with those that are relatively stable and permanent (Westbrook 1980). Examples of invariant feeling states include personality dispositions such as optimism/pessimism (Goldman-Eisler 1960; Tiger 1979) and enduring global attitude structures such as satisfaction (Andrews and Withey 1976).

Moods may be distinguished from emotions, which, in contrast, are usually more intense, attention-getting, and tied to a specific behavior (Clark and Isen 1982).

One is almost always aware of one's emotions and their effects, which may redirect attention to the source of the emotion and interrupt ongoing behavior (Simon 1967). One may or may not be aware of one's mood and its effects, which may color attentional processes and influence, but rarely interrupt ongoing behavior (Clark and Isen 1982).

Different types of positive moods (e.g., cheeriness, peacefulness, and sexual warmth) and negative moods (e.g., anxiety, guilt, and depression) can be readily identified. Although categorizing moods as positive or negative may be an oversimplification (Belk 1984), existing research does not provide much insight into the effects of specific moods. In fact, most studies have involved broad manipulations designed to induce positive and/or negative moods and have not attempted to affect or assess specific moods. It is often difficult to infer the induced mood or its strength; e.g., subjects told that they have failed a test of perceptual motor skills may not respond emotionally or they may feel depressed, frustrated, or anxious. In addition, many common manipulations may fail to induce discrete moods, and naturally occurring feeling states may appear in clusters (Polivy 1981). Only two studies have investigated the effects of more than one positive or negative mood (Fried and Berkowitz 1979; Laird et al. 1982). To enable readers to form their own inferences about specific positive and negative mood states induced in the relevant studies, Table I provides information about the induction procedures used.

Although it is difficult to compare findings for specific positive and negative moods across studies since the induction procedures and dependent variables are confounded, the effects of different negative mood states seem to be more heterogeneous than the effects of positive mood states (Isen 1984). For example, Baumann, Cialdini, and Kenrick (1981) note that helping may be enhanced by some negative mood states (e.g., sadness) but not by others (e.g., frustration). Research is needed to investigate the effects of specific positive and negative moods on behavior, evaluation, and recall.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Common models of consumer behavior do not explicitly recognize the role of mood states. At best, the term "antecedent state" is used to encompass all of the momentary financial, psychological, and physiological baggage with which a consumer arrives at a marketing interaction (Belk 1975). In order to examine the role of mood states in consumer behavior and suggest their marketing implications, a framework is needed that interconnects strategic areas, marketing tactics, and consumer-behavior processes. The framework adopted for this article attempts to meet this need and appears in the Figure. It is not all-inclusive, but facilitates the examination of:

1. Relationships between some key strategic marketing areas (indicated by rectangles in the Figure) and mood induction tactics (indicated by ovals)
2. Effects of induced mood states on some important psychological processes underlying consumer behavior (indicated by triangles).

The depicted relationships are discussed in the next two sections.

Strategic Areas and Mood Induction Tactics

Although it may seem obvious that some marketing actions affect consumers' mood states, the relationship between strategic areas and mood-related tactics requires systematic investigation. Examining three strategic areas—service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, and communications (context and content)—serves two purposes. First, it facilitates the discussion of tactics that are useful in more than one area. Second, it facilitates the evaluation of the importance and feasibility of mood-related approaches in each area.

In the service sector, mood induction can be contiguous to an encounter, thus increasing the likelihood that its effects will have an impact on a transaction. Mood induction may be affected by aspects of the transaction procedure, interactions with service providers, and physical settings (see Figure). At the point of purchase, a mood may be induced by aspects of the retail environment and by interactions with sales personnel. Because these mood inducers are contiguous with much in-store information acquisition and decision making, they may have a substantial impact on such processes. Communications effects on consumers' mood states include those effects due to media context and advertisement content (see Figure). Media-context effects relate to material that precedes or surrounds the advertiser's message in a communications vehicle. Advertisement content may affect consumers' mood states through the use of emotional music, graphics, or copy.

EFFECTS OF MOOD STATES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL PROCESSES

Research in psychology indicates that mood states exert an important influence on behavior, judgment, and recall (see Figure). As a result of this, several conclusions about the effects of mood states emerge. Many of these findings are based upon laboratory studies and require replication under more realistic conditions.

Effects of Mood States on Behavior

Positive moods appear to enhance the likelihood that a host of behaviors may be performed (see Table 1). It appears that a positive mood makes one kinder both to oneself and to others (Underwood, Moore, and Rosen-

han 1973). Some positive moods appear to increase the likelihood of performance of behaviors with expected positive associations and to decrease the likelihood of performance of behaviors that lead to negative outcomes (perhaps by enhancing one's sense of personal power and self-perceived freedom to do as one wishes—Forest et al. 1979; Isen and Simmonds 1978). Research is needed to predict a priori which activities are believed to have positive outcomes and which are thought to have negative outcomes.

Studies reviewed in Table 1 suggest that the behavioral effects of negative moods may be more complex than the effects of positive moods. Two factors may contribute to the diversity of effects of negative mood states. First, there are some indications that negative mood states are themselves more heterogeneous than positive mood states (Isen 1984). Second, controlled processes that terminate unpleasant negative mood states may compete with automatic tendencies to engage in mood-congruent behavior (Clark and Isen 1982).

The link between mood states and behavior may be seen as both direct and indirect (see Figure). A direct linkage may involve associations in memory between mood states and behaviors. In this context, a behavior may be viewed as a conditioned response. (For a review of theoretical issues in conditioning, see Bugelski 1982; for a discussion of the consumer-behavior implications of conditioning, see McSweeney and Bierley 1984; Peter and Nerd 1982). In some cases, automatic behavioral responses may be largely inborn or instinctive. Zajonc (1980) discusses the universality of affective responses among animal species, citing the example of the frightened rabbit running from a snake. Plutchik (1980) has postulated that feelings mediate situation perceptions and instinctive responses. Although Plutchik (1980) and Zajonc (1980) provide phylogenetic and ontogenic support for an innate link between emotions and behavior, research is needed to investigate the possibility of such a link between mood states and behavior.

It may be more likely that associations between mood states and behaviors may be learned from repeated experience, socialization, or acculturation. For example, Cialdini and Kenck (1976) found that an experimentally induced depressed condition increased helpfulness among older children, but not among younger ones. The data were taken as support for the notion that socialization forms the basis for the effects of negative mood on altruistic behavior.

One may also view the link between mood states and behavior as indirect, in the sense that the behavioral effects of mood states may be somewhat mediated by their effects on expectations, evaluations, and judgments. This view suggests that positive moods may increase the likelihood that a behavior will be performed by increasing the accessibility of positive associations to the behavior, thus leading to more positive evaluations of the behavior (Clark and Isen 1982).

TABLE 1
STUDIES INVESTIGATING THE EFFECTS OF MOOD STATES ON PSYCHOLOGICAL PROCESSES INDUCTIONS AND FINDINGS

study	Induction	Finding
Behavioral Effects		
Berkowitz and Connor (1966)	(a) Success (b) Failure (c) No experience on a preliminary irrelevant task	Success subjects were more willing to work for a dependent peer than control subjects. Failure subjects expressed stronger dislike for their peer the greater their peer's dependency on them.
Mischel, Bates, and Raskoff (1968)	(a) Success (b) Failure	Relative to children in condition (b), those in condition (a) were more noncontingently generous to themselves under some conditions.
teen (1970)	Receiving feedback that is: (a) Above the norm—success (b) Below the norm—failure	subjects in the success condition (a) were more generous and helpful than those in the failure condition (b).
Adennan (1972)	Reading Verben statements designed to induce: (a) Elation (b) Depression	Subjects who read the elation statements (a) outperformed those who read the depression statements (b) on a helping task. In addition, subjects in condition (a) were more likely than those in condition (b) to volunteer for a future unpleasant experiment, perhaps because the latter groups resented their induced depression. This finding can be contrasted with those of other investigations of the effects of positive mood on the likelihood of performance of unpleasarr tasks. Research indicates that performance is kass likely for subjects in positive mood conditions than for those in control conditions (Forest et al. 1979; ken and Simmonds 1978).
Isen and Levin (1972)	study 1: (a) Receiving cookies while studying in a library (b) No manipulation Study 2 (a) Finding a dime planted in a phone booth (b) No manipulation	In each study, subjects in condition (a) were more willing to help others than those in condition (b).
Regan, Williams, and Sparing (1972)	Camera wvkt not work. Experimenter implies: (a) The subject broke the camera (b) The malfunction was not the subject's fault	Subjects in condition (a) were more likely than those in condition (b) to perform an unrelated helping task.
Moore, Underwood, and Rosenham (1973)	Self-generated thoughts: (a) Happy (b) Sad (c) Neutral	Children in condition (a) contributed the most and those in condition (b) contributed the least to a charity in the experimenter's absence.
Ken, Horn, and Rosenham (1973)	(a) Success (b) Failure (c) Control	success was associated with increased charity in children subjects. The effect of failure depended on the circumstances of the failure.
Underwood et al (1973)	Self-generated thoughts (a) Happy (b) Sad (c) Neutral	Relative to children in condition (b), those in condition (a) reward themselves more generously in the experimenters' absence
Seeman and *wars (1974)	(a) success (b) Failure	Relative to children in the failure condition, those in the success condition chose a large delayed reward rather than a small immediate reward
Blevins and Murphy (1974)	(a) Finding a dime planted in a phone booth (b) No manipulation	No relationship was observed between finding a dime and helping.
Fry (1975)	Self-generated thoughts (a) Happy (b) Unhappy (c) Neutral	Children in condition (a) resisted temptation longer than those in condition (c), who in turn resisted longer than those in condition (b)

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TABLE 1—(Continued)

study	Induction	Findings
Behavioral Effects (Continued)		
Donnerstein, Donnerstein, and Munger (1975)	(a) Viewing slides showing flowers, animals, and sunsets (b) Viewing slides showing old people and migrant workers (c) Writing pro/con arguments	Condition (a) <i>did</i> not appear to influence helping, but condition (b) was associated with enhanced willingness to help. The authors explain this finding in terms of expiation of guilt
Moore, Clyburn, and Underwood (1976)	Self-generated thoughts (a) Happy (b) Sad (c) Neutral	Relative to children in condition (c) those in condition (a) were more likely to choose a large delayed reward than a small immediate reward and those in condition (b) were more likely to choose a small immediate reward than a large delayed reward.
Cialdini and Kenck (1976)	Self-generated thoughts. (a) Sad (b) Neutral	Older children, but not younger ones, were more generous when in condition (a) than when in condition (b)
Ken and Simmonds (1978)	(a) Finding a dime planted in a phone booth (b) No manipulation	Relative to subjects in condition (b), those in condition (a) were more willing to read statements allegedly designed to induce good moods and less willing to read statements designed to induce bad moods.
Weyant (1978)	Feedback on test. (a) Positive (b) Negative No Test taken (c) control	Helping was enhanced in condition (a) and dependent upon the costs and benefits associated with the helping task in condition (b).
Batson et al. (1979)	(a) Finding a dime planted in a phone booth (b) No manipulation	Subjects who found the dime were more likely to help another person and to acquire information than those who did not.
Foresl et al (1979)	False meter feedback regarding feelings: (a) Positive (b) Negative (c) Neutral	Condition (a) was associated with enhanced helping on an agreeable task, but not a disagreeable one.
Cunningham (1979)	No induction, but sunshine, temperature, humidity, wind velocity, and lunar phase assessed	Sunshine related to enhanced self-reports of mood, greater willingness to assist an interviewer, and larger tips for restaurant waitresses
Fried and Berkowitz (1979)	Subjects heard music (a) Mendelssohn's "Songs Without Words" (b) Duke Ellington's "One O'Clock Jump" (c) John Coltrane's "Meditations" No music heard (d) Control condition	Condition (a) was associated with peaceful feelings, condition (b) with joyful feelings, and condition (c) with irritated feelings on self-report measures. In addition, subjects in condition (a) were most apt to be helpful immediately afterwards, significantly more so than those in conditions (c) or (d).
Effects on Affective Reactions and Judgments		
Mood states bias evaluations of novel stimuli in mood-congruent directions		
Griffitt (1970)	Effective temperature	High effective temperature associated with negative mood and negative evaluations of anonymous others.
Laird (1974)	Instructions to (a) Smile (b) Frown without awareness of the nature of their expressions	Subjects appeared to feel more happy in condition (a) and more angry in condition (b). In addition, cartoons viewed in condition (a) were rated funnier than those viewed in condition (b).
Vertch and Griffitt (1976)	Heard broadcasts conveying (a) Good news (b) Bad news	Subjects in condition (a) reported greater positive affect and evaluated anonymous others more favorably than those in condition (b).

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TABLE 1—(Continued)

study	Induction	Finding
Effects on Affective Reactions and Judgments (Continued)		
Isen and Shaker (1982)	(a) Finding a dime planted in a phone booth (b) Receiving success test feedback (c) Receiving failure test feedback (d) No manipulation	Relative to subjects in condition (d), those in condition (a) rated slides more favorably and those in condition (c) rated slides less favorably. The ratings of subjects in condition (b) did not differ from those of subjects in condition (d).
Mood states bias evaluations of familiar stimuli in mood-congruent directions		
Isen et al. (1978)	(a) Receiving a tree gift (b) No manipulation	Subjects in condition (a) rated products they owned more favorably than those in condition (b).
Carson and Adams (1980)	Reading Velten statements designed to induce: (a) Elation (b) Depression (c) Neutral mood	Expected enjoyableness of activities was enhanced in condition (a) and diminished in condition (c).
Schwarz and Clore (1983)	study 1 (a) Self-generated happy life events (b) Self-generated sad life events Study 2 (a) Sunny weather (b) Rainy weather	In both studies, relative to subjects in condition (b), those in condition (a) indicated more satisfaction with their lives.
Mood states bias judgments of the likelihood of mood-congruent events		
Masters and Furman (1976)	Self-generated (a) Happy thoughts (b) Neutral thoughts	Relative to children in condition (b) those in condition (a) had a greater expectancy for positive unrelated serendipitous outcomes.
Johnson and Tversky (1983)	(a) Reading an account of a tragic event (b) Control	Condition (a) was associated with increased estimates of the frequency of many risks and unrelated, undesirable events.
Effects on recall		
Exposure mood enhances recall of mood-congruent items		
Bower (1981)	Post hypnotic suggestion—i.e., hypnotizing subjects and asking them to relive (a) happy or (b) sad experiences from their own lives	Subjects read stories with happy and sad characters. Subjects in condition (b) attended more to sad material, identified with the sad character from the story, and recalled more about that character.
Bower, Gilligan, and Monteiro Experiment 5 (1981)	Post hypnotic suggestion—i.e., hypnotizing subjects and asking them to recall (a) happy or (b) sad experiences from their own lives.	Subjects read stories with happy and sad characters associated with both happy and sad events. Subjects in condition (a) remembered happy events better than sad events and those in condition (b) remembered sad events, regardless of the character with which the events were associated.
Retrieval mood enhances recall of mood-congruent items		
Isen et al. (1976)	(a) Receiving a small gift (b) No manipulation	Condition (a) was associated with the ability to recall positive material in memory about products subjects own
Teasdale and Fogarty (1979)	Reading Velten statements designed to reduce (a) Elation (b) Depression	Time to retrieve pleasant memories of life experiences relative to time to retrieve unpleasant memories was significantly longer in condition (b) than in condition (a).
Natale and Hamas (1982)	Post-hypnotic suggestion (a) Elation (b) Depression	Condition (a) was associated with decreased recall for negative life events and increased recall for positive events. Condition (b) was associated with decreased recall of positive life experiences and weaker memory strength for positive information about oneself.
Laird et al. (1982)	Instructions to manipulate facial expressions without awareness of the nature of the expressions. Mood	

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TABLE 1 —(Continued)

study	Induction	Finding
Effects on recall (Continued)		
	response 10 manipulated expressions was first assessed in a separate procedure. Subjects whose moods were affected were designated the self-produced cue group.	
	Slutty 1 (a) Frowning (b) Smiling	study 1—In the self-produced cue group, recall for anger-provoking editorials was significantly better in condition (a) and for humorous selections in condition (b). In the non-self cue group, expressions did not affect recall.
	study 2 (a) Angry expression (b) Sad expression (c) Fearful expression	Study 2—In the self-produced cue group, recall was better for sentences consistent with expression. In the non-self cue group, recall was not affected.
Clark and Waddell (1983)	Receiving feedback about test performance (a) Positive (b) Negative (c) No feedback	Subjects were asked to respond to descriptions of 3 situations with whatever thoughts came to mind first. Subjects in condition (a) had significantly more positive first affective reactions to 2 out of 3 situations. Subjects in condition (b) had more negative first affective reactions to all 3 situations, but these differences were not statistically significant.
Strull (1983a)	self-generated thoughts (a) Happy experiences (b) Sad experiences from own life	Subjects recalled more attribute information that was incongruent with their retrieval conditions than material that was congruent, perhaps due to cue overload.
	Match between exposure and retrieval mood enhances recall	
Bower et al. (1978)	Post-hypnotic suggestion-hypnotized and asked to recall thoughts (a) Positive (b) Negative	Match between learning and retrieval conditions facilitated recall only where confusion and interference may have otherwise occurred.
Bartlett and Sanrock (1979)	Telling children stories with appropriate pictures and experimenter behavior (a) Happy (b) Sad	Same condition upon exposure and retrieval facilitated the generation of cues needed to perform free recall task, but did not affect recognition or word recall.

NOTE: Findings that indicate somewhat limited or atypical effects of mood states are italicized.

Effects of Mood States on Affective Reactions and Judgments

In general, mood states seem to bias evaluations and judgments in mood congruent directions. Folk wisdom and experimental evidence agree: a good mood may be associated with looking at one's world through rose-colored glasses, while a bad mood may analogously color evaluations (Clark and Isen 1982). And mood states appear to bias several types of judgments in mood-congruent directions (see Table 1). These directions include evaluations of novel stimuli (Griffitt 1970; Isen and Shalke 1982; Laird 1974; Veitch and Griffitt 1976), evaluations of familiar stimuli (Carson and Adams 1980; Isen et al. 1978; Schwarz and Clore 1983), and

evaluations of the likelihood of mood congruent events (Johnson and Tversky 1983; Masters and Furman 1976).²

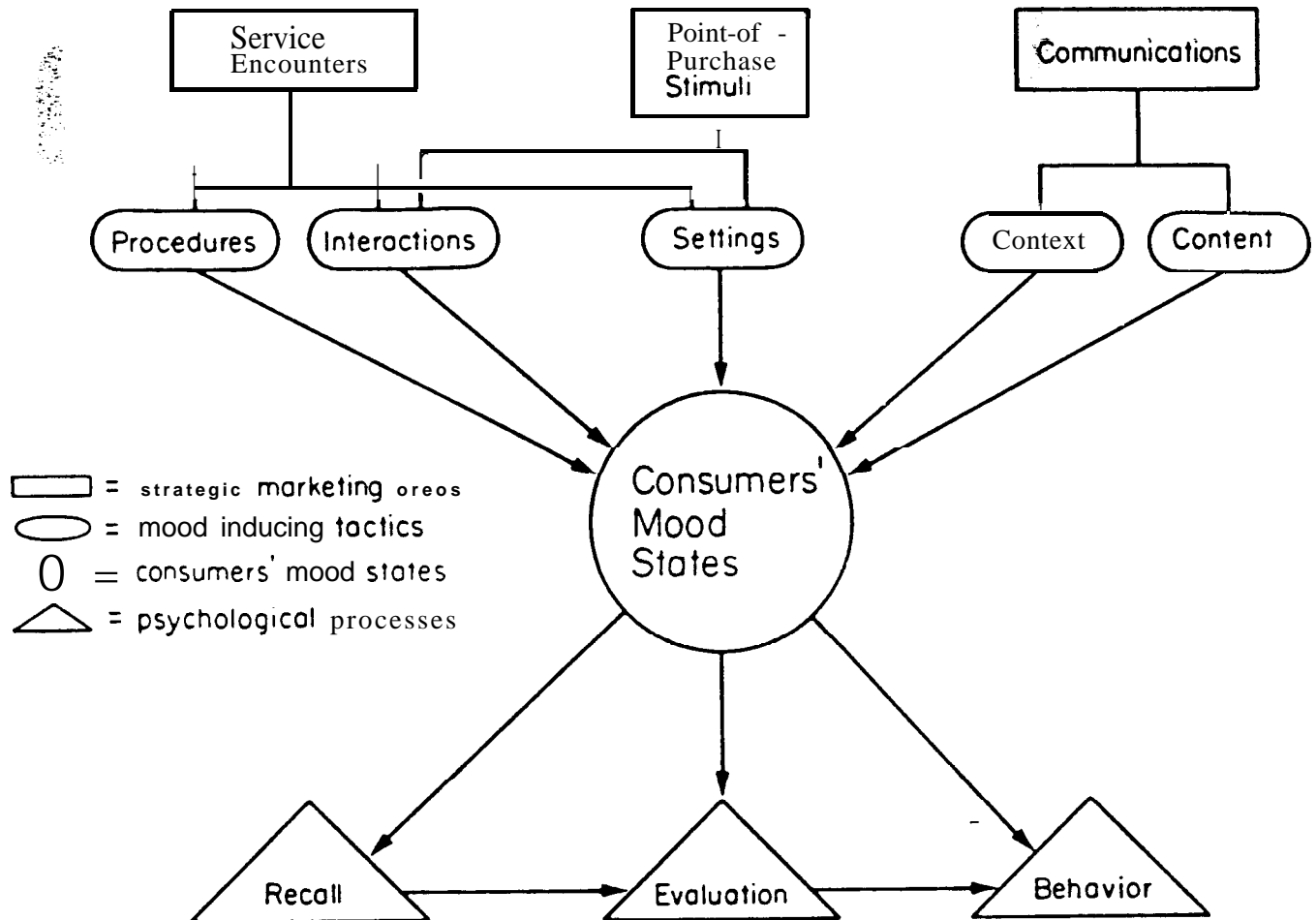
The link between mood states and affective responses and judgments may be viewed as both direct and indirect (see Figure). A direct linkage may involve associations in memory between mood states and affective reactions; in this context, an affective reaction may be viewed as a conditioned response. Griffitt and Guay have postulated (1969, pp. 1-2):

evaluation of any given stimulus object is a positive linear function of the proportion of stimuli with positive reinforcement properties associated with it. Stimuli with

¹This general conclusion may not hold in all cases; products strongly associated with reducing negative mood states may be evaluated more favorably by consumers when in such negative states.

²Positive mood may be associated with increased yielding to persuasive messages (Dabbs and Janis 1965; Dribben and Brabender 1979; Galizio and Hendrick 1972; Janis, Kaye, and Kirschner 1965). Additional research is needed to investigate the limitations of this finding and the psychological processes involved.

FIGURE
A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE ROLE
OF MOOD STATES IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOR



positive and negative reinforcement properties are hypothesized to act as unconditioned stimuli which evoke implicit affective responses. Any discriminable stimulus, including a person, associated with such unconditioned stimuli becomes a conditioned stimulus capable of eliciting the implicit affective responses. The affective responses, in turn, mediate even evaluative responses such as verbal assessments, preferences, and approach-avoidance behaviors.

Note that stimuli with positive reinforcement properties may be viewed as inducers of positive mood states. Conditioning may involve a wide range of mood inducers—including music (e.g., Gorn 1982; Milliman 1982)—and may sometimes involve extensive acculturation and socialization (Zajonc and Markus 1982).

One may also view the association between positive mood inducers and favorable evaluations as indirect, and influenced by information processing. This approach posits that the effects of positive mood may be mediated by such cognitive activity as information retrieval; i.e., mood may affect evaluations by making

mood congruent items more accessible in memory, and thus, more likely to affect evaluations (Ken et al. 1978). The information-processing approach is compatible with a situational perspective that views attitudes as a function of readily accessible information.

Effects of Mood States on Recall

One way to understand the effects of mood on recall involves the use of network models of memory (Collins and Loftus 1975). In such models, constructs may be conceptualized as nodes, and relationships between constructs as links. From this perspective, mood may be viewed as stored with, or linked to, a set of constructs or experiences in memory. As indicated in Table 1, recall may be affected by the consumer's mood at the time of exposure or retrieval; or by a match between exposure and retrieval moods. (For an extensive review of the effects of mood on cognition, see Isen 1984.)

blood at the time of exposure may affect what information is recalled by facilitating the retrieval of mood-

congruent items. This effect may be due to greater encoding-elaboration of mood-congruent material at the time of exposure. The facilitating effect seems to appear only when retrieval cues are needed (Bower 1981; Bower, Gilligan, and Monteiro 1981).

Retrieval mood may facilitate overall retrieval of mood-congruent material from memory (Clark and Waddell 1983; Isen et al. 1978; Natale and Hantas 1982; Teasdale and Fogarty 1979) and may enhance recall of specific mood-congruent information, if sufficient cues are available for the identification of such items (Laird et al. 1982). Retrieval mood may not enhance recall for specific mood-congruent material if cues to identify such items are inadequate. In the absence of sufficient cues, recall for mood-congruent items may suffer, and recall of mood-incongruent items may be enhanced (Srull 1983a).

Several researchers (e.g., Bartlett and Santrock 1979; Bower, Monteiro, and Gilligan 1978) have found indications that unaided recall is enhanced when mood at the time of retrieval matches mood at the time of encoding and when the encoding mood can serve as a retrieval cue. If such a cue is unnecessary because of the properties of the task or of the stimulus, recall does not appear to be enhanced by a match between encoding and retrieval moods. Analogous findings have been reported for other variables that affect an individual's psychological or physical state such as alcohol, drugs, or underwater submersion. (For a review of state dependent effects on recall, see Eich 1980; c. f. Isen 1984.)

Scope of the Effects of Mood States

The preceding discussion examined the effects of mood states on behavior, evaluation, and recall and noted the specific limitations of these effects. I now turn to more general issues, including the prevalence of the impact of mood states and the factors that may attenuate mood-related effects.

It is difficult to assess the prevalence of mood-related effects because published studies may be biased toward research that reports statistically significant findings. (N. B., research that failed to produce significant results may have been performed, but not published.) Some of the difficulties involved in empirical mood studies may have encouraged those investigators who failed to produce significant results to continually modify their procedures until they obtained significant findings. For example, given the difficulties involved in evaluating experimental mood-induction procedures, failure to observe postulated effects may be viewed as a failure of the induction manipulation, not of the hypothesis under scrutiny. Such studies may be rejected by journals as inadequately supported by manipulation checks, or discarded by experimenters as pretest results. Given enough attempts, statistically significant results may be obtained—if only by chance. I do not mean to imply that all observed results are due to chance, but the replication

of existing studies should be encouraged and careful attention paid to nonsignificant results. Findings that indicate somewhat limited, or atypical effects of mood states are in italics in Table 1.

In addition, it is difficult to assess the scope of mood effects because induction procedures are almost completely confounded with the types of effects investigated. The studies reviewed in Table 1 suggest that, in general, memory effects have been investigated with relatively strong or direct induction procedures, while behavioral effects have involved milder, less direct manipulations. Additional research is needed to replicate the findings of prior studies using new and varied procedures.

Mood states are not expected to significantly affect behavior, evaluation, or recall under all conditions. Mood-state effects may be diminished or enhanced by circumstances related to situational ambiguity, degree of arousal, time between mood induction and assessment of effects, situational factors that encourage precision, and the specific moods involved.

The effects of mood states may be greater for situations that are somewhat ambiguous than for clear-cut situations. Mood states may have the greatest impact when differences are marginal and no alternative dominates the choice set (Clark and Isen 1982). This view is supported by Isen and Shalcker's (1982) study that found that:

1. Subjects in experimentally induced positive/negative mood conditions rated slides more/less favorably than those in a control mood condition, but that the rank order of slide types (pleasant, neutral, and unpleasant) remained constant across mood conditions.
2. Mood conditions appeared to influence evaluations of neutral slides more than assessments of pleasant or unpleasant slides.

These findings suggest that mood effects do not dominate the mood-incongruent aspects of stimuli and that mood effects have a greater impact when evaluations are ambiguous than when they are clear-cut.

In addition, a moderate level of arousal may facilitate mood effects, perhaps because naturally occurring feeling states are often associated with arousal. Bartlett, Burleson, and Santrock (1982) found that the state dependent effects of mood on recall were absent when relaxation exercises preceded an experimental task. Clark, Milburg, and Ross (1983) found that arousal in combination with positive mood enhanced the effect of the positive mood on subsequent judgments.

It should be noted that the effect of any given mood is not long-lasting (Schellenberg and Blavins 1973). The effect of a positive mood induction on the performance of a helping task has been found to last approximately twenty minutes (Isen, Clark, and Schwartz 1976).

In addition, mood effects may be minimized by factors that encourage objectivity or precision. Under such circumstances, controlled processes may be used to retrieve all relevant information from memory, and the effect of mood on accessibility may be unimportant.

For **example**, when assessment encourages subjects to respond with stored evaluations, responses do not appear to be biased by mood (Sruill 1983b, 1984; Westbrook 1980). Factors that encourage the use of controlled processes may involve experimental settings and the perceived consequences of responses.

Research is needed to investigate the limitations of the effects associated with specific mood states. In general, the effects of negative moods may be more limited than those of positive moods. **Support** is provided by Schwarz and Clore (1983). Findings indicate that:

1. **Subjects** in positive mood conditions indicated more satisfaction with their lives than those in negative mood conditions
2. The negative impact of mood on assessments of life satisfaction disappeared when subjects were directed to attribute negative feelings to transient external circumstances
3. The positive impact of good mood was not similarly affected.

These findings suggest that people in some negative mood states may try to resist negative thinking and do so whenever possible.

The preceding discussion suggests that the effects of mood states may be greatest in those consumer-behavior situations where stimuli are ambiguous, consumers are somewhat aroused, induction and action are temporally contiguous, perceived benefits of being precise are low, and moods are positive. Opportunities for consumer-behavior situations which meet these criteria arise during service encounters, at the point-of-purchase, and with respect to advertising, i.e., communications content and context. The potential for mood effects to have a significant impact in each of these areas is explored in the next three sections.

SERVICE ENCOUNTERS

The literature reviewed for this article suggests that mood states may at least marginally influence behavior, affective responses, and recall. In order to evaluate the importance of these influences on consumer behavior, marketing-related settings and potential mood inducers under the control of a manager must be examined. Key findings from the preceding section are summarized in Table 2, and areas in which each finding may be important for service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, and communications are indicated. The present section examines the possible consumer-behavior implications of the effects of consumers' mood states during service encounters.

In the service sector, both consumers' and service providers' mood states may be important. The study of service-provider or seller behavior has been neglected by marketing research (Lutz 1979), but this behavior is particularly important to the service sector, given the

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF MOOD-STATE EFFECTS FOR THREE
CONSUMER BEHAVIOR SITUATIONS

Effects Of mood states	situation			
	Service encounters	Point-of-purchase stimuli	Communications	
			Context	Content
Positive moods may enhance the likelihood of performance of behaviors with positive expected outcomes and decrease the likelihood of performance of behaviors with negative expected outcomes.	X	X	X	X
Mood may bias evaluations and likelihood assessments in mood congruent directions.	X	X	X	
Exposure mood may enhance recall of mood-congruent items	X	X	X	X
Retrieval mood may enhance recall of mood-congruent items	X	X		
Match between exposure and retrieval moods may enhance recall.		X		X

NOTE: X = presence of effect

dyadic nature of many service encounters. Service providers' mood states may affect their job performance, whereas consumers' moods may affect consumer behavior during a service encounter, the evaluation of the encounter and its result, and the subsequent recall of the service encounter.

Mood Effects in Service Encounters

Mood may affect behavior during service encounters; consumers in good moods may be more likely to be helpful and easy to please than consumers in neutral moods. For example, consumers in good moods may be willing to postpone gratification, follow doctors' orders, or bag their own groceries. On the other hand, service recipients in good moods may be less likely to perform acts with expected negative consequences such as painful rehabilitation exercises or undergo medical tests that may indicate illness. But when the need for

the behavior is unambiguous. mood effects on performance may be minimal or nonexistent. However, the effects of negative mood on behavior in the service sector may depend on the nature of the negative mood (e.g., guilt versus anger), the reasons consumers give for the mood, and the costs/benefits of the behavior to be performed.

Mood may affect consumer evaluation of service encounters or the encounters' results by biasing the evaluations in mood-congruent directions. If consumers form global impressions of a service encounter, they may later recall the impressions rather than the specific facts on which the impressions were based. Consumers in good/bad moods may evaluate novel and familiar encounters more positively/negatively than consumers in neutral moods.

Exposure mood may affect a consumer's subsequent recall of a service encounter or its results by enhancing the consumer's recall of mood-congruent items. For example, customers who are in a good mood when they open bank accounts may be more likely to recall positive information about their accounts later. Mood may affect the recall/retention of past service encounters by enhancing recall of mood-congruent items, which, in turn, may be associated with biased assessments of the likelihood of mood-congruent events. For example, patients admitted to hospitals in bad moods may receive more negative information about past hospital experiences than those in good moods and may be more likely to presume the worst about an impending hospital stay.

Mood Induction in Service Encounters

Service encounters offer marketers many opportunities for mood inductions that are temporally contiguous to a transaction and so are of potential strategic importance. The service setting, the procedure, and the interaction with the service provider present opportunities for marketers to influence or respond to mood states.

Physical Surroundings. Aspects of ambient environments have been found to correlate with assessments of mood and postulated mood effects. For example, nice weather has been found to correlate positively with self-assessments of mood and with tips left in restaurants (Cunningham 1979). Effective temperature has been found to correlate negatively with several measures of mood and with evaluations of anonymous others (Griffitt 1970). Kotler (1974) has postulated that the effects of ambient environments should be more important in situations where products are purchased or where the seller has design options. Such conditions are frequently met in the service sector.

The many aspects of an environment's physical surroundings that are under marketer control encourage optimism about the potential for inducing moods that will serve specific marketing ends. There is evidence to

indicate that design-related factors can have powerful effects on human behavior. For example, in order to reduce the number of suicides attempted from Blackfriar Bridge in England, the black bridge was repainted bright green (Hatwick 1950, p. 148). In addition, Wener (1984) has noted that confusing or disorienting service settings may induce feelings of frustration and anxiety in service providers and recipients. These negative effects may be ameliorated by using simple linear layouts with orientation aids and maximum visibility. Aids may be overt (such as signs and guides) or covert (such as artwork or plants that serve as landmarks).

Designing a mood-inducing service setting involves a consideration of the interaction of the setting with consumers' perceptions of other facets of the setting's sponsor. Kotler and Rath (1983) have de-emphasized the role of individual components and have stressed the importance of the overall design of a sponsor's settings, image, and products. Recent efforts in environmental psychology have developed research techniques to facilitate the investigation of environments as contextual settings rather than as sets of components (Stokols 1982). Research is needed to explore both the effects of various marketing settings on consumer behavior and the mediating role of mood states. Studies are also needed that compare the impact of marketer-controlled factors to the impact of factors that marketers do not control.

Procedures and Interactions. For monadic interactions (e.g., customer/machine transactions), procedures may be designed to move customers from an entry mood toward a desired mood. Frequently, these procedures may involve such positive mood inducers as clear instructions, user-friendly systems, and positive feedback throughout a task.

For dyadic interactions (e.g., customer/service-provider transactions), the moods of both parties may affect interactions. Service companies must develop interaction strategies and tactics appropriate to customers with different moods. If consumers vary widely in mood, it may sometimes be efficient to segment on the mood variable and train service providers to specialize in serving consumers in specific mood states.

Because both monadic and dyadic interactions involve the use of limited mechanical or human resources, consumers must often wait to engage in a transaction. Waiting is generally considered to be a disagreeable experience, and it may be so distasteful to some consumers that they will hire others to wait in their place (Geist 1984). The negative moods induced by waiting for service may persist through contiguous service encounters. Suggested tactics for improving waiting consumers' mood states have been proposed by Maister (1984). In addition, consumers may look for ways to pull themselves out of the bad moods associated with waiting for service. Marketers may find it advantageous to investigate and encourage such consumer-originated mechanisms.

Service companies may also benefit by examining the **moods of their employees** and understanding **the role of these feelings during interactions with consumers**. Hochschild (1983) provides evidence to show that at least some service providers (stewardesses and bill collectors) do a great deal of emotional work, e.g., mood management. Companies may find it profitable to institute programs to help service providers handle their own feelings and the interaction of their moods with the customer's mood.

Current Status and Future Potential

Many service encounters involve at least minimal levels of ambiguity and arousal and they do not encourage service recipients to be particularly objective or precise. Mood induction can be contiguous to the service encounter, increasing the likelihood that its effects will have an impact on transactions. However, the magnitude of the induced effects is an empirical question that requires further research.

Additionally, because service providers have personal contact with consumers, they can adjust their tactics to suit consumers' mood states. Training procedures might be used to help service providers interpret consumers' moods, perhaps by interpreting facial cues. (For a discussion of one interpretation technique, see Weinberg and Gottwald 1982.)

POINT-OF-PURCHASE STIMULI

Store atmospherics and interactions with salespeople may affect the consumer's mood at the point-of-purchase in a retail setting. In turn, mood states may influence purchase behavior, brand evaluation, and information acquisition.

Mood Effects at Point-of-Purchase

Positive mood states at the point-of-purchase may both increase shoppers' willingness to perform tasks with positive expected outcomes, and decrease their willingness to perform behaviors with negative expected outcomes. In order to anticipate the effects of positive moods on target activities, we must be able to categorize consumers' own assessments of whether their behavior will lead to positive or negative outcomes and we must be able to understand the effects of consumers' mood states on their assessments. For some activities, valences of expected outcomes may vary widely across consumers. For example, trying on clothing may be associated with positive outcomes for some shoppers and with negative outcomes for others. Expected outcomes may be related to media exposure (e.g., reading fashion magazines) or responsiveness to marketing-mix variables (e.g., being greatly influenced by advertising).

in-store mood may also affect the evaluation of familiar and novel stimuli. Research is needed to compare

the effects of mood on the evaluation of new and familiar brands. Also, the potential implications for understanding trial and repeat purchasing should be investigated.

Information acquisition at the point-of-purchase may have important effects on subsequent brand evaluation. The consumer's mood at the time of initial exposure to a product may affect the valence of product features readily accessible to subsequent recall. This effect may be particularly important in family buying: i.e., exposure effects may influence the valence of stored information brought home by information gatherers and used to make purchase decisions.

in-store mood may affect the retrieval of information from memory related to brands, personal usage experience, or advertisements. Compared to shoppers in neutral moods, shoppers in good moods may be more likely to retrieve positive stored information.

If the mood created by a brand's advertising matches the mood induced at the point-of-purchase, message recall may be enhanced as the result of state-dependent memory effects. To induce such effects, manufacturers may select appropriate retail outlets or influence in-store settings near their merchandise by using special personnel, events, colors, and lighting.

Mood Induction at Point-of-Purchase

Consumers' mood states at the point-of-purchase may be influenced by physical settings and interactions with sales personnel. Belk's work on situational effects in buyer behavior emphasized the importance of consumer subjective reactions to environmental stimuli and called for a taxonomy of environmental variables (Belk 1974, 1975). Kotler (1974) has suggested that store atmospherics may be especially important when stores carry similar product lines and are equally convenient (which is often the case in retailing today).

There are indications that environmental factors can significantly influence evaluations. Maslow and Mintz (1956) found that evaluations made in a "beautiful" room were significantly higher than those made in either an "average" room or an "ugly" room. Griffitt (1970) found that high ambient temperature was associated with negative assessments of mood and with less favorable ratings of anonymous others. If these findings can be generalized to product evaluations, they might suggest that comfortable settings may enhance merchandise evaluation. Obermiller and Bitner (1984), however, found that under some conditions favorable environments may be associated with unfavorable product evaluations; i.e., the environments can distract consumers and detract from merchandise. Obermiller and Bitner found indications that atmosphere had a marginally greater ($p = 0.14$) effect on evaluations when subjects were instructed to browse "in a simulated shopping environment" than when they were instructed to evaluate products. This suggests that in-store environments may be even more important for understanding

shopping behavior than for investigating choice behavior.

Donovan and Rossiter (1982) provide indications that mood states induced by retail environments may affect purchase intentions. In a study, measures of mood (arousal and pleasantness) and purchase intentions were assessed by students who were randomly assigned to visit 66 stores and fill out questionnaires in each. The relationship of mood measures to assessments of behavioral intentions in each environment were explored. Findings indicated that (1) for stores rated as pleasant, shopping intentions increased with increased levels of arousal, and (2) for stores rated neutral or unpleasant, intentions were unrelated to arousal. Note that biases may exist due to students assessing their own in-store moods and purchase intentions. In addition, whenever possible consumers may subjectively self-select stores that induce positive moods and avoid those which induce negative moods. Thus, some settings may induce negative moods in some individuals, but stores which induce negative moods in all consumers may not be able to survive. This suggests that it is inappropriate to label stores as pleasant or unpleasant without specifying the group for which such subjective assessments apply. A conservative interpretation of the reported findings appears to be warranted; the links among atmospherics, mood, and purchase intentions require further research.

A second way in which in-store mood may be induced involves interactions with sales personnel. On an aggregate level, the tone set by salespeople may induce appropriate moods, e.g., an upbeat mood in a disco boutique. On a more personal level, salespeople may develop relationships with specific customers and adjust their selling tactics to an individual's moods. Research is needed to explore the relationship between mood-related roles techniques and success on the selling floor.

Current Status and Future Potential

The effects of mood states on consumer behavior at the point-of-purchase may be substantial and potentially important for marketing. Physical settings and interactions with store personnel may be powerful mood inducers, contiguous with much decision making. Findings from empirical studies of mood effects conducted in shopping malls (e.g., Isen et al. 1978) indicate that the level of arousal associated with walking around a mall is great enough to make mood effects observable. Point-of-purchase environments are often ambiguous and rarely encourage precise processing. However, research is needed to investigate the magnitude of mood effects and the feasibility of evoking desired moods from different consumers.

In many cases, designing point-of-purchase displays and retailing environments to induce particular moods involves the selection of sets of mood-related symbols (see Kotler and Rath 1983). To select appropriate symbols, marketers must be aware of the current trends and fads of their target market. This suggests that marketers

who attempt to use mood-related strategies—especially at the point-of-purchase—must maintain intense, informal contact with their consumers.

In addition, research is needed to examine the effects of mood states on such basic decisions as whether or not to shop, what to shop for, and whether to shop alone or with others. Note that the behavioral effects of mood states at the point-of-purchase may be mediated by whether the consumer anticipates that the shopping trip will be a positive or negative experience. To fully understand the effects of point-of-purchase moods, marketers must gain insight into the role of shopping in the consumer's life.

COMMUNICATIONS STIMULI: CONTEXT

Service encounters and point-of-purchase stimuli may induce moods that affect on-site consumer behavior. Analogously, marketing communications, e.g., advertising, may affect at-home consumer responses by inducing mood states from the context in which the communication appears. The moods created by the context in which ads appear may be quite strong—e.g., the negative moods induced by "The Day After"—and may affect the mood states induced by exposure to advertising messages (Gardner and Raj 1979). In turn, these mood states may affect behavior, evaluation, and recall with respect to advertised brands.

Effects of Context-Induced Moods

Positive moods induced by media contexts may affect behavioral responses to advertising strategies. Insights into this thesis may be gleaned from two studies reported by Cunningham, Steinberg, and Grev (1980). The findings of Study 1 indicated that either a positive mood induction (in this case, finding a dime in a phone booth) or a negative mood induction such as guilt (in this case, making subjects feel that they had broken the experimenter's camera) increased helping (in this case, picking up dropped papers). The findings of Study 2 indicated that the positive mood manipulation increased helping (in this case, donating money to a charity) only when a request stressing the desirability of helping was made, while the guilt manipulation produced increases only when a request stressing an obligation to help was made. The Cunningham et al. findings for the positive mood condition are consistent with findings (Forest et al. 1979; Isen and Simmonds 1978) that suggest that subjects in a good mood may readily generate positive associations toward donating money when presented with a request that stresses the desirability of helping, but feel that they have enough personal power to resist the coercive appeal of a request stressing an obligation to help. Cunningham et al. (1980) discuss a variety of mechanisms that are consistent with the performance of subjects in the guilty mood

condition and suggest the need for research to explore the proposed mechanisms. Research is also needed to extend these findings to moods of different **types** and to the product marketing domain.

Media exposure may also induce mood states that may, **in turn, affect beliefs about products**. Axelrod (1973) found that the mood states induced by viewing **emotional** films appeared to enhance subjects' **assessments** that use of a product would lead to the induced mood state.

Finally, moods induced by exposure to commercials may enhance the learning of **mood-congruent** message arguments. Yuspeh (1979) found that the individual's recall of commercials was greatly affected by the programs in which they were viewed, but she did not investigate the specific mood states induced. Research is needed to explore qualitative media effects in general and the mediating role of mood states in **particular**.

Mood Induction Via Communications Context

The material preceding an advertisement may include such **cognitive** mood inducers as **positive** or **negative** statements and such noncognitive **mood inducers** as **scary** or **happy** music. Although a full discussion of the techniques involved in the induction of feelings in media **contexts** is beyond the scope of this article, it should be noted that laboratory studies involving simple verbal messages have found that statements in radio or newspaper reports can influence mood under forced exposure conditions. Veitch and **Griffitt** (1976) have manipulated the affective **content** of presented information and found that hearing good/bad news was associated with measures of positive/negative moods. Johnson and **Tversky** (1983), using newspaper reports of negative events, found that self-report mood scales yielded significant differences. The **effects** of such induction procedures should be investigated to gain insight into the **importance** of mood states relative to that of other mediators of context effects (Hornstein et al. 1975).

Current Status and Future Potential

Evidence for the mediating role of context-induced mood on consumer response to **advertising** is extremely limited. Research is needed to explore the range of moods induced under normal exposure conditions. **If** consumers self-select programs, newspapers, and **magazines** that make them feel good, the range may be narrow, **and** the impact of **context-induced** moods may be small.

In some cases, target-market consumers may have extremely **selective** media habits, leaving marketers little **latitude** in which to select **vehicles** with specific **mood-inducing** properties. In **such cases, understanding the effects of the moods commonly induced by the media**

selected by members of a target audience may help advertisers develop appropriate strategies and **tactics**.

For some products, contexts **which induce negative** moods may be more effective **than** those which induce positive moods. Although **consumers** may avoid contexts which are extremely unpleasant or threatening, those contexts that induce **mildly** negative **moods** may increase consumers' assessments that a negatively valenced event is likely to occur. This, in turn, may increase the consumer's self-perceived need for the products (e.g., insurance) associated with such an event, in spite of the limited effects associated with negative moods.

At times, marketers may have little control over the story line or advertisement immediately preceding their messages, so they may have little control over the moods induced by media context. In such cases, media managers cannot effectively implement mood-oriented **approaches**, but the effects of context-induced mood may be important for copytesting. Since **advertisements** are frequently tested in a **single context, the mood induced by that context may bias the results of the test**. Research is needed to assess the magnitude of such biases and to determine the types of **advertisements** whose ratings are most **strongly affected**.

Some insights are provided by Isen and Shalcker's (1982) work with slides of landscapes. As discussed earlier, results indicate that the assessments of stimuli that were neutrally rated were more strongly influenced by induced moods than the **assessments of stimuli that were rated favorably or unfavorably**. Research **is** needed to explore these effects for exposure to **advertisements** under natural viewing conditions and to investigate the possibility that the resulting attitude toward the advertisement is strong enough, and sufficiently associated with a brand, to affect brand attitude. If the mood - attitude toward advertising - attitude toward brand chain is supported by future evidence, this suggests that there may be a general advantage to placing **advertisements** in contexts which induce positive moods. Additionally, the **effect** may be more critical for **neutrally-rated advertisements than for those advertisements that produce more extreme evaluations**. The relationship between neutral advertisement ratings and aspects of **copy execution—e.g., pictures versus words—is unclear**. Research is now underway that examines the effects of mood-inducing **media contexts on the effectiveness** of emotional and informational copy strategies. **Finally, media contexts may sometimes encourage very low arousal levels**; research is needed to investigate the mediating role of arousal on mood **effects** associated with media contexts.

COMMUNICATIONS STIMULI: CONTENT

Media contexts may provide background moods for advertising exposures, but for many product classes, moods induced by brand advertisements play a critical

role in brand identification and evaluation. Such moods may affect purchase behavior, brand evaluation, and information acquisition.

Effects of Conwnt-Induced Mood States

Feelings induced by direct-marketing commercials may affect consumer behavior with respect to advertised brands when mood induction is contiguous to required action—mail-in or phone-in orders. The positive feelings induced by commercials may enhance the likelihood that consumers will engage in purchase activities associated with positive outcomes. If so, commercials that induce positive moods may be effective for the direct marketing of products associated with improving one's home or one's life.

The effects of advertisement-induced negative moods may be more complex. Extremely depressing commercials may attract attention because of their relative rarity, or they may be ignored due to a perceptual defense (as documented by the fear-appeal literature, see Sternthal and Craig 1974). However, the negative moods induced by commercials may increase consumers' perceptions that a negative outcome is likely. If this is so, then commercials that induce mildly negative moods may be effective direct marketing tools for disaster-related products, e.g., life insurance and burglar alarms, in spite of the somewhat limited impact of negative moods. Research is needed to investigate these possibilities.

Advertisements that induce positive exposure moods may facilitate the learning, integration, and acquisition of favorable material and may enhance the evaluation of advertised brands. Such ads are also likely to be favorably evaluated; at times, a positive relationship between attitude toward the advertisement and attitude toward the brand may be observed (see Gardner 1985; Mitchell and Olson 1981; Shimp and Yokum 1982).

Advertisements may be designed to elicit the mood states associated with particular life situations or experiences. When such experiences occur, the elicited moods may key the retrieval of advertisements associated with these moods, because of state-dependent memory effects. For example, thinking about loved ones in distant places may elicit warm, sentimental feelings. These feelings may, in turn, elicit the retrieval of similarly toned advertisements for Hallmark cards. However, such tactics are not expected to be equally effective for all brands and product classes. A Hallmark campaign may be able to take advantage of state-dependent memory effects, because the company has a favorable image, and product use is associated with feeling states that, in turn, are linked to particular life experiences.

Mood Induction Via Communications Content

Advertisements, like media contexts, may include such cognitive mood inducers as positive or negative

statements, and such noncognitive mood inducers as scary or happy music. Some advertisers (e.g., Ralph Lauren) buy blocks of consecutive pages in a periodical, in part to accentuate the mood-inducing properties of their ads. In addition, Moore (1982) has presented evidence that subliminal stimuli may influence mood states without conscious awareness.

The importance of advertising-induced feelings is underscored by efforts to assess noncognitive reactions to advertisements. Schlinger (1979) and Wells et al. (1971) have developed measurement instruments to assess individuals' emotional reactions to advertisements. Batra and Ray (1984) have proposed a coding scheme to classify consumer affective responses to advertisements.

Current Status and Future Potential

Research is needed to evaluate the effects of mood-related advertising strategies on consumer behavior. Wells (1983) has suggested that mood should play a more central role in the advertising for products associated with pleasurable usage experiences, i.e., approach products. This guideline requires a priori knowledge of consumers' feelings toward product use and is consistent with previously cited findings indicating that positive moods may be associated with the performance of behaviors that have positive expected outcomes.

Researchers in consumer behavior are currently exploring the role of affect-inducing commercials from many perspectives. Shimp (1981) has noted that moods induced by advertisement content are not contiguous to in-store decision making and that research is needed to investigate possible reinduction at the point-of-purchase. Shimp has also postulated that an attitude toward an advertisement has an emotional aspect which may be related to feeling states, and Allen and Madden (1983) have empirically examined this component. In addition, researchers have investigated the relationship of emotional stimuli in advertising to advertiser goals (e.g., Mizcrski and White 1985), low involvement exposure situations (e.g., Batra and Ray 1983; Ray and Batra 1983), the assessment of advertising effects (e.g., Leckenby and Stout 1985), physiological measures (e.g., Kroeber-Riel 1979, 1984), and advertisement sequence (e.g., Asker, Stayman, and Hagerty 1985). Although much research is being done to gain insight into the Meets of mood-inducing advertisements, their prevalence and importance encourages even greater efforts.

DISCUSSION

Implications for Marketing Research

The preceding sections of this article have examined areas where it may be wise to consider the effects of mood on consumer behavior. Such mood effects may also have important implications for developing mar-

keting research techniques to assess consumers' attitudes and predict behavior.

In some contexts, the effects of respondents' moods on their evaluations may be viewed as a biasing nuisance factor. Peterson and Sauber (1983) present evidence for such biases and provide a measurement instrument to take them into account. If respondents' moods upon completion of a questionnaire are distributed in the same way as their moods during relevant activities (e.g., shopping), the biases would not be critical for aggregate-level analysis. However, if moods are systematically related to filling out questionnaires or going shopping, biases due to the effects of mood states may be problematic. If participation in a survey is viewed as an experience that has a favorable expected outcome, consumers in positive moods may be more inclined to complete questionnaires than those in neutral or negative moods. This would suggest that mood states in the respondent sample may be skewed in a positive direction.

Mood in the population of shoppers may be bimodally distributed. People in good moods may choose to perform or avoid consumption-related behavior, depending on their assessments of the likelihood of the activities being associated with positive or negative outcomes. Consumers in bad moods may also choose to shop, perhaps to cheer themselves up. Langer (1983) has suggested that difficult economic conditions may increase consumers' needs for products to serve as treats and emotional charges.

To gain insight into the magnitude of biases resulting from the effects of mood states, the distribution of moods of individuals engaged in activities of interest must be examined. Activities related to participation in research should be investigated as well as shopping, buying, and consuming activities. If the distribution of moods during the completion of a questionnaire differs from the distribution during an activity of interest, biases resulting from this difference may require closer examination.

Implications for Marketing Action

I have used the phrase "mood states" to refer to the general, pervasive, affective states that are transient and particularized to specific times and situations. A conceptual framework has been presented to depict the effects of consumers' mood states and their potential relevance to marketing strategy and tactics. Findings from the psychological literature were reviewed, and they indicated that mood states affect behavior, evaluation, and recall. I have examined the implications of these effects for consumer behavior in three areas: service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, and communications (context and content). In addition, I have assessed the feasibility of mood induction in each area. Several conclusions and unanswered questions emerge for each area:

1. Mood states may have important effects on consumer behavior with respect to services, but research is needed to assess the magnitude of such effects. There appear to be many opportunities for mood induction in the service sector, e.g., settings, procedures, and interactions with service providers. Mood induction can be contiguous to the service encounter, increasing the likelihood that its effects will have an impact on transactions. In addition, because service providers have personal contact with consumers, they can adjust their tactics to suit consumers' mood states.
2. The effects of mood states at the point-of-purchase may be substantial and potentially important for marketing action, but research is needed to investigate the strength of mood effects. Although physical settings and interactions with store personnel may be powerful mood inducers contiguous with much decision making, research is needed that examines the effects of mood states on such basic decisions as whether or not to shop, what to shop for, and whether to shop alone or with others. In addition, the behavioral effects of mood states at a point-of-purchase may be mediated by whether the consumer anticipates that the shopping trip will be a positive or negative experience. To fully understand the effects of point-of-purchase moods, marketers must gain insight into the role of shopping in the consumer's life.
3. Although context-induced moods may significantly affect consumer response to advertising, there is a dearth of evidence supporting this claim. Research is needed to explore the range and impact of moods induced under normal exposure conditions. Additionally, the following questions must be addressed: (1) for which types of advertisements are the effects of context-induced mood states most significant, and (2) when should contexts be sought that induce specific positive or negative moods? Note that the role of context-induced moods may be more important for copy-testing procedures than it is for media selection if institutional factors limit the control media managers have over the immediate context in which advertising is placed.
4. The role of mood states induced by advertising has recently received some well-deserved attention, but many important issues remain unresolved. It is clear that advertisements can affect consumer moods, but the impact of these effects may depend on the advertiser's purpose, product, and target audience. Although much research is being done to address these issues, the prevalence and importance of mood-inducing advertising encourages even greater efforts.

Directions for Future Research

The nature of the preceding discussion has necessarily been very tentative, but it should help guide thinking and should serve as a basis for research in this area. In addition to the specific issues discussed above, more general questions must be addressed:

1. Does social responsibility suggest limitations for the appropriate use of mood-induction strategies and

tactics? This issue is particularly problematical with respect to the induction of negative moods and the use of mood inductions in advertising directed at children.

2. Can marketer-induced moods significantly affect consumer behavior? Research is needed that compares the impact of marketer-induced moods to moods induced by other aspects of the consumer's life. Research is also needed to explore the interaction of marketer-controlled inductions and pre-existing mood states. Guidelines are needed to help marketers assess the potential value of mood-oriented approaches under alternative sets of circumstances.
3. How can marketers design strategies and implement tactics to influence consumers' moods? Psychometric measurement instruments that assess the effects of mood induction procedures must be developed and evaluative criteria established. Also, the implications for interdepartmental relations must be considered. For example, lawyers must be consulted before individual-specific mood induction procedures that may appear discriminatory are implemented. Personnel departments and labor unions must be involved in the development of mood-management training programs for employees.

In spite of the need for further empirical work, there are indications that consumer-mood states may influence behavior, evaluation, and recall. Although many unanswered questions must be addressed, the effects of mood states on consumer behavior with respect to service encounters, point-of-purchase stimuli, and communications seem to merit further exploration.

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