MOOD, CONSUMER INTERACTION STYLES, AND PERCEIVED RISK IN CONSUMER COMPLAINING BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

Purpose- Consumer complaining behavior (CCB) is an extensively studied subject in the literature. Many personal and situational factors have been identified as antecedents of CCB. However, previous research has relatively been less focused on the impact of perceived risk, assertiveness and aggressiveness on CCB. The purpose of this study is to elaborate the influence of these constructs on consumer complaining behavior, by combining them with the mood of the consumer.
Methodology- Through a literature review, mood, assertiveness, aggressiveness and perceived risk have been conceptualized as antecedents of CCB.
Findings- Literature suggests that mood, perceived risk, assertiveness, and aggressiveness may have an impact on CCB. As a result of this elaboration, a conceptual model depicting the relations among these constructs is proposed in this study.
Conclusion- A conceptual model that includes the interaction of personal variables with mood has contributed to the literature by achieving a novel perspective in explaining CCB.

Keywords: Consumer complaining behavior, assertiveness, aggressiveness, perceived risk, mood
JEL Codes: M11, M10, M31

1. INTRODUCTION

Consumer complaining behavior has attracted the attention of researchers since 1970s (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979). From then on, numerous publications have been made on consumer complaining behavior (CCB). Studies have focused on various aspects of CCB such as the factors that lead to CCB, complaint management of firms, the complaint responses of consumers, and CCB in different contexts such as service settings or consumer goods. In the vast literature of CCB, this study focuses on the initiation of CCB, or in other words, the factors that lead to complaining. There are many components of CCB, and it is already acknowledged in the literature that personal and situational factors may lead to complaint behavior (Blodgett et.al, 1993). Among personal factors, assertiveness and aggressiveness are argued to affect CCB, however, there is a gap in the recent studies in terms of focusing on these personal factors. Perhaps the most interesting and novel aspect of this study is its special focus on the mood concept, as an additional personal factor.

What makes mood interesting as a research topic in CCB literature is that although mood can affect consumers' satisfaction regarding a product or a service, studies that combine CCB with emotional factors are limited in the existing literature. Previous research has generally viewed emotions as the outcome of a dissatisfactory consumption experience or a process that accompanies service recovery efforts. On the other hand, in this study, customer's mood is considered as a variable

that affects complaining behavior, rather than a result of a product or service failure, in addition to the cognitive aspects that determine satisfaction. This study claims that, together with other factors, the consumer's mood influences CCB. In the following section, the literature about CCB, assertiveness, aggressiveness and perceived risk is summarized. Theoretical background is concluded by the key points of literature about mood and emotion concepts. The relationship of these constructs with CCB is summarized and as a result, conceptual framework is proposed.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. The Definition and the Evolution of CCB in the Literature

Although the importance of consumer complaining behavior has been realized long ago, it has begun to receive attention beginning from only 1970s (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979). Research regarding dissatisfaction and complaining has intensified at that time because 1970s were an era of consumer-orientation (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). Since then, CCB has been studied widely in the literature. In order to understand CCB, one has to think about dissatisfaction concept. Consumer dissatisfaction can be defined as a "*case of interrupted or obstructed goal achievement*" (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979). Landon (1980) has described consumer complaint phenomenon as "*expressions of dissatisfaction on a consumer's behalf to a responsible party*" (cited in Bearden and Oliver, 1985). Landon's definition of CCB has emphasized the "expression" aspect of complaints. Moreover, Jacoby and Jaccard's (1981) definition of consumer complaints include both action and communication parameters (cited in Bearden and Oliver, 1985) such as "*consumer complaint is an action taken by an individual which involves communicating something negative regarding a product related to either the firm manufacturing or marketing that product or service, or to some third party organizational entity*" (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981). Singh (1988) has defined CCB as "*a set of behavioral and non-behavioral responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with a purchase episode*". In 2003, Crie has defined complaints as "*explicit expressions of dissatisfaction*" (Crie, 2003).

The initial studies about CCB were focused on the incidence of complaints (Warland et al., 1975), and the occurrence of CCB across demographic groups (Best and Andreasen, 1977). Researchers have studied CCB from various perspectives and focused on a wide range of topics, constituting a rich literature. Some studies have associated CCB with existing theories as described briefly below.

- *Equity Theory:* According to Equity Theory, people evaluate their inputs and their outcomes in a social exchange relationship and compare the ratio of their inputs and outcome with the other person's ratio in the social exchange situation in order to have a fair and just distribution of rewards and costs (Adams, 1963). Huppertz et al. (1978) have applied Equity Theory in buyer-seller exchange situations and their research has revealed that people perceive situations with high price inequity less fair than situations with low price inequity. The research has also shown that people feel that the purchasing situation is unfair if the service they get is poorer than their expectations (Huppertz et al., 1978). In this context, Equity Theory suggests that providing a compensation would be efficient in restoring the perceived inequity resulting from a service failure (Rothenberger et al., 2008).

- *Attribution Theory:* Attribution Theory views consumers as rational beings who process information in order to interpret the meaning of events and the reasons for others' behavior (Weiner, 1985; Folkes, 1984). Attribution Theory provides a base for explaining CCB by pointing out that consumers try to predict the reason for the service failure, which defines the consumer's response to service failure (Folkes, 1984). Attribution of responsibility affects attitudes towards companies, products or services also in the online complaining context, and the opinions of reference groups in the Internet are influential on consumers' perception of responsibility for product or service failures (Lee and Song, 2010).

- *Theory of Planned Behavior:* The Theory of Planned Behavior states that social norms, perceptions of control over the behavior, and the attitude towards the behavior affect the behavioral intentions (Ajzen, 1991). Grougiou and Pettigrew (2009) state that this model can be adopted to CCB contexts such as perceptions of the consumer's ability to voice complaints and the attitude of the reference group towards complaining would influence the voicing of complaints.

- *Theory of Trying*: Hansen et al. (2011) have tried to explain complaining intentions with the Theory of Trying. Theory of trying (Bagozzi and Warshaw, 1990) can be interpreted as an extension of Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In Theory of Trying, the recency and frequency of past trying is added to the social norm and attitude constructs of the Theory of Planned Behavior. Adopting the Theory of Trying to CCB, Hansen et al. (2011) have argued that a person's attitude towards complaining, the social norm towards complaining and the frequency of past complaining behavior affect a consumer's intention to complain. Their empirical study revealed that the social norm towards complaining is not significant in explaining the intention to complain, but the consumer's attitude towards complaining is significant, and a proportion of the consumers are affected by their previous experiences while forming the intention to complain (Hansen et al.2011).

- ***Cognitive Appraisal Theory:*** Stephens and Gwinner (1998) have used Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Lazarus, 1966) in their model of complaints. Cognitive Appraisal Theory is used in explaining the individuals' cognitive processes in personal, situational and product-related evaluations, which can eventually turn into a complaint response (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). In their model, personal factors, situational factors, and dissatisfying marketplace experience are the antecedents of the cognitive appraisal process, which includes appraisal and emotions, and results in one of the following coping strategies such as taking an action, self-blaming, seeking social support or avoidance (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). It is postulated that when consumers feel a threat to their well-being and perceive themselves as having a strong coping power, they can pursue a problem-focused coping strategy and directly voice their dissatisfaction to the seller (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). On the other hand, if consumers believe that their dissatisfaction is the result of their own actions and blame themselves, they may choose to remain silent, which is an emotion-focused coping strategy (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). As a third option, consumers may pursue an avoidance coping strategy if they believe that complaining would not worth their effort or would not result in an efficient outcome (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). In avoidance coping, consumers do not voice their complaints to the seller but may engage in negative word-of-mouth (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). Word-of-mouth (WOM) refers to the interpersonal communication between people who exchange opinions on various goods and services offered by markets (Goyette et al., 2010).
- ***Learning Theory:*** When consumers fail to meet their goals in the marketplace, they may express assertive or aggressive behavior. For example, waiting in a line for a long time, encountering with a rude service employee or perceiving a problem in getting prompt service may trigger assertive or aggressive consumer reactions, because consumers behave in these cases upon learned reactions and response patterns, in accordance with learning theory (Crutsinger et al., 2010).

As summarized briefly in these theoretical perspectives, CCB has been studied in this rich context in the literature. Depending mainly on the learning theoy perspective, this study focuses on the factors that lead to CCB. When assertiveness and aggressiveness, or some situational variables lead to CCB, consumers may behave in different patterns, which are explained in the following section as the classification of CCB.

2.2. The Classification of CCB

2.2.1. The Conventional Taxonomy of CCB

Researchers have tried to classify CCB into specific action types. These studies have revealed that CCB is not completely rational and consistent. For example, customers who are dissatisfied do not necessarily engage in complaint behaviors. Thus, researchers have categorized customers according to their complaint behavior as *action group* -consumers who seek for recovery and tell their complaints to the firm- and *no action group* (Mason and Himes, 1973). In 1977, Day and Landon (1977) have introduced the public-private distinction in the communication of complaint responses (also see Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). Researchers have also used different key terms to define and categorize customers such as *complainers vs. non-complainers and activists vs. non-activists* (Ndbusi and Ling, 2006).

In accordance with the classifications stated above, research has revealed that up to two third of consumers do not express their complaints when they are dissatisfied, rather they quietly exit or create negative WOM (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998). Hansen et al. (2011) state that approximately half of the dissatisfied consumers do not express their complaints because of cost-benefit judgements (Bearden and Oliver, 1985), attribution processes (Folkes, 1984), powerlessness (Bunker and Ball, 2009) and personality traits (Singh, 1990). An empirical study conducted in air service industry has revealed that only 23% of the consumers complain in case of a service failure, namely in case of a negative incident during the service encounter (Petzer et al., 2012; Rothenberger et al., 2008). In addition, Huppertz et al. (2014) point out that over 55% of consumers do not complain in a service failure situation, with the percentage of non-complaining consumers vary according to sectors such as 58% for travel and leisure, 61% for financial services, 83% for consumer goods and 66% for healthcare services.

Besides the complaining or non-complaining behavior of consumers, some researchers have focused on the timing of complaints as a definitional issue and most of the previous research has elaborated complaints as a post-purchase phenomenon (Hirschman, 1970; Day and Landon, 1977; Richins, 1983; Singh, 1988; Tax et al., 1998; Stephens, 2000). In this perspective, consumers engage in a complaining behavior in case of a problem after the purchase or consumption of the product.

There are plenty of studies about the types or categories of CCB. Researchers have tried to categorize complaining behavior and have generally modeled CCB as consisting of some specific dimensions such as listed below.

- Exit, voice, and loyalty (Hirschman, 1970),

- Take action or take no action options; take action includes public dimension (redress sought from seller, legal action, third party complaint) and private dimension (personal boycott of the brand, negative word-of-mouth behavior) (Day and Landon, 1977),
- Private, legal, remedial and non-complaining (Krishnan and Valle, 1979),
- Redress-seeking, word-of-mouth, exit, third party complaint and loyalty (Blodgett and Granbois, 1992),
- Voice, private and third-party action (Singh, 1988; Singh and Wilkes, 1996),
- Exit, complain to firm, third-party action, continued patronage (Tax et al., 1998),
- Complaint, legal action, inactivity, exit, negative WOM (Crie, 2003),
- Voice, exit, third party and WOM (Kim and Chen, 2010),
- No complaining, communication (friends, internet, legal authorities) and action (exit, reducing buying, switching to another firm) (Tronvoll, 2012),
- Negative WOM, voice to seller, complain to outside authorities and do nothing (Huppertz et al., 2014).

Among these, one of the most cited and validated taxonomy has been developed by Singh (1988), who has conducted an empirical study on CCB. Findings have indicated that the consumer complaining behavior can be classified into three dimensions: Voice, private and third-party actions (Singh, 1988). Voice dimension includes complaining behavior that is shared with the subjects that are external to the consumer's close social circle, such as, sharing the complaint directly with the seller. "No action" response is tentatively included in this dimension because it has an inherent meaning or feeling associated with the seller. While private dimension includes word-of-mouth consumer complaining behavior, third party actions are directing the complaining behavior to legal authorities or consumer agencies (Singh, 1988).

Singh's classification is in conformity with some other recent studies, such as the study of Crie (2003), Kim and Chen (2010), Tronvoll (2012) and Huppertz et al. (2014). These studies are also in alignment with Singh's classification, supporting its validity.

2.2.2. E-WOM as CCB

As early as 1955, it was pointed out that WOM was more effective than newspaper ads, radio advertising, and direct sales (Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955). Arndt (1967) has shown that the probability of purchasing a new product increases if consumers receive positive WOM regarding that product. Previous research shows that consumers talk about their satisfaction or dissatisfaction regarding product or service with 10 people, where more than 13% of dissatisfied consumers share their dissatisfaction with more than 20 people (Şimşek and Noyan, 2009).

The diffusion of the internet and the easiness that is introduced to daily life by the mobile communication technologies have contributed to consumers' communication by introducing e-WOM, which can be explained as the consumer reviews and comments on the web (Sen and Lerman, 2007). E-WOM includes the communication in the social media, e-mails, web sites and messaging platforms (Strutton et al., 2011). E-WOM can also be defined as positive or negative statements of former, actual or potential customers that are shared with other people in the internet, regarding a product or a company (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). Authors include forwarding e-mails, instant messaging, and other communication media in e-WOM (Ho and Dempsey, 2010; Goyette et al., 2010).

In this context, the recent technological developments in digital communication have enabled consumers to express their complaints in the form of electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) (Blodgett et al., 2006). In addition to the conventional CCB channels, the developments in technology and communication mediums have added two new channels for CCB: Web sites or forums regarding the products and complaint responses; and the personal social media accounts of consumers. Consumers may share their negative consumption experiences in their personal social media accounts, in various forums or web sites such as mythreecents.com and sikayetvar.com, creating negative e-WOM. As e-WOM sources, complaint web sites enable consumers to discuss common matters, share product assessments and read other consumers' evaluations (Lee and Song, 2010).

2.3. Factors That Lead to CCB

The second prominent topic in CCB literature has been the factors that lead to CCB. Several personal factors have been studied regarding complaining propensity. Studies have shown that people who are in their middle ages, who have superior education, have a good job or high income, or who are parents tend to be more likely to voice their complaints (Moyer, 1984). The personal factors that are studied in association with CCB can be summarized as follows.

- Demographics (Warland et al., 1975; Zaltman et al., 1978; Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981; Moyer, 1984; Bearden and Oliver, 1985; Singh, 1990; Lee and Soberon-Ferrer, 1999; Grougio and Pettigrew, 2009),

- Attitudes toward complaining (Best and Andreasen, 1977; Zaltman et al., 1978; Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981; Richins, 1982; Day, 1984; Bearden and Oliver 1985; Richins, 1987; Singh, 1990; Bodey and Grace, 2007; Fernandes and dos Santos, 2008),
- Personality factors (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979; Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981; Richins, 1983; Singh, 1990; Harris and Mowen, 2001; Phau and Sari, 2004; Bodey and Grace, 2007; Grougio and Pettigrew, 2009; Sharma et al., 2010; Ekinci et al., 2016),
- Attitudes toward business and government (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981; Moyer, 1984).

While researchers tried to explain complaint behavior with consumer demographics in 1970s, studies also began to take situational factors into consideration in addition to consumer characteristics in 1980s (Morganosky and Buckley, 1987). The major reasons of CCB have been found to be the failure to meet customer expectations and discourtesy by the company staff (Bennett, 1997). Besides, the situational or product-related factors that may affect consumers in communicating dissatisfaction as a complaint are stated below.

- Market conditions (Hirschman, 1970),
- Marketing practices that are perceived as unfair (Zaltman et al., 1978),
- Attribution of blame (Krishnan and Valle, 1979; Richins, 1983; Folkes, 1984; Stephens and Gwinner, 1998),
- The price and importance of the good to the consumer (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981; Gilly and Gelb, 1982; Day, 1984; Bearden and Oliver, 1985),
- Characteristics of the problem (Richins, 1987),
- The role of provider responsiveness (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981; Gilly and Gelb, 1982; Richins, 1983; Bolfing, 1989; Brown and Beltramini, 1989),
- Consumer experience (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981; Day, 1984; Moyer, 1984; Singh, 1990; Grougio and Pettigrew, 2009; Dalla Pozza, 2014),
- Social climate (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981),
- Manufacturer's reputation (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981),
- The cost or difficulty of complaining (Day, 1984; Huppertz, 2007; Grougio and Pettigrew, 2009),
- Involvement (Sharma et al., 2010),
- The magnitude of service failure (Bolfing, 1989; Brown and Beltramini, 1989; Casado-Diaz and Nicolau-Gonzalbez, 2009),
- The prevailing product return policy of a country (Blodgett et al., 2006),
- Perceived outcome of complaining (Stephens and Gwinner, 1998; Grougio and Pettigrew, 2009).

While there are studies in which personality traits such as assertiveness and aggressiveness are significant in explaining CCB (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979; Richins, 1987; Phau and Sari, 2004; Ekinci et al., 2016); Kenrick and Funder (1988) have argued that personality is not a good predictor of behavior. This argument has also been supported by another study in which personality variables are found to be insignificant among complainers and non-complainers in terms of taking complaint behavior (Bodey and Grace, 2007). In this general context, the importance of instant factors becomes prominent in explaining the complex phenomenon of consumer complaints. As personality traits may become insufficient in explaining CCB, more instant parameters must have importance in complaining behavior, such as emotions and mood.

3. THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Assertiveness, Aggressiveness and Complaining Behavior

Assertiveness and aggressiveness are described as interaction styles or consistent behavior patterns that consumers exhibit in the marketplace in order to achieve the desired outcome (Crutsinger et al., 2010). These two constructs have been studied together because although they are different, they may intersect or interact in some situations (Richins, 1983).

Assertiveness is defined as expressing one's feelings, attitudes and opinions directly and honestly while respecting others (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979). Authors who write in the mental health area have agreed upon the three attributes of assertiveness, which are, being honest in expressions, not being anxious, and not limiting the rights of other people (Richins, 1983). Requesting help from service employees, and not hesitating to ask questions about a product are considered as assertive behavior in the marketplace. Returning unsatisfactory products to a store or keeping such items rather than seeking redress are some other examples of assertive interaction styles (Crutsinger et al., 2010).

On the other hand, expression of one's feelings, attitudes, and opinions in a hostile, offensive or threatening manner is aggressiveness (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979). Richins (1983) has exemplified aggressive behavior such a raising one's voice, using insulting language and being rude. Expressing non-verbal noxious behavior has also been considered as

aggressiveness (Crutsinger et al., 2010). In their qualitative study, Rose and Neidermeyer (1999) have tried to develop a typology of aggressive behavior in the marketplace. The most common two situations that lead to marketplace aggression have been identified as waiting in line and discourteous employees (Rose and Neidermeyer, 1999).

Assertive people are more likely to express their opinions about a product or service failure than non-assertive or non-aggressive people. Richins (1983) states that assertive consumers are better in standing up for their rights and complain more frequently than non-assertive consumers. The assertive consumers are more likely to complain and ask for redress, where non-assertive consumers experience an anxiety when forced to complain, thus non-assertive consumers are more likely to behave to gain the compliance of other people in a marketplace context (Burns, 2007).

While assertiveness is seeking for one's rights without violating other people's rights, aggressiveness includes some noxious behavior and less concern about other people's rights (Richins, 1983; Burns, 2007). Aggressive individuals can express hostility or rudeness if they perceive that the conditions are appropriate to express such behavior (Burns, 2007). Therefore, aggressive consumers who experience a problem with a product or service are more likely to complain than non-aggressive consumers.

Thus, the propositions about assertiveness and aggressiveness are formed as follows:

- Proposition1: Assertive people are more likely to complain in case of a product or service failure than non-assertive people.
- Proposition2: Aggressive people are more likely to complain in case of a product or service failure than non-assertive people.

3.2. Perceived Risk and Complaining Behavior

Perceived risk can be explained as the perceived cost of the consumption for the customer. Consumers perceive risk when they realize that a purchase goal cannot be satisfied (Chang and Hsiao, 2008). These costs are multi-dimensional as including psychological, physical, temporal, financial and opportunity costs. In addition, the perceived risk may stem from the imperfect and asymmetric information in the market about a brand (Erdem and Swait, 1998). This situation leads to customer uncertainty and even after active information gathering, consumers may face perceived risk (Erdem and Swait, 1998).

Perceived risk is generally accepted to have six dimensions, which are functional, physical, financial, psychological, social and temporal risk (Chang and Hsiao, 2008). Functional risk refers to the performance of the product; physical risk is explained as the risk of getting a physical injury while using the product; financial risk refers to the risk of losing money because of purchasing the product; psychological risk is associated with the self-consciousness of the consumer related with using the product; social risk is the risk of embarrassment regarding the usage of the product; and temporal risk refers to the time cost that is associated with searching for an alternative product in case the purchased product does not perform as expected (Chang and Hsiao, 2008).

High levels of perceived risk are associated with higher customer focus on the product or service. Thogersen et al. (2009) have stated that consumers are more likely to complain if their loss is high. Lilleker et al. (1969) and Broadbridge and Marshall (1995) report that the price of the product is correlated with CCB. In their study, Phau and Sari (2004) have shown that consumers are more likely to complain when the product that has a failure is expensive. In addition, Day and Landon (1977), Richins (1983), Bolfing (1989) and Ekinci et al. (2016) have pointed out that in general consumers avoid CCB for low-cost and low-involvement products but complain if the product's importance is high. Therefore, even the most assertive or aggressive people may choose to not complain about products or services that have a lower level of perceived risk.

On the other hand, perceived risk is also related with the Cognitive Dissonance Theory. Cognitive Dissonance Theory claims that when there is an inconsistency between beliefs and actions of human beings, a cognitive dissonance occurs (Festinger, 1957). People can change their beliefs, change their actions or change their action perceptions in order to reduce cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). In the literature, consumer behavior regarding cognitive dissonance has focused primarily on the relationship between a person and a product (Huppertz et al., 1978), making dissonance relevant to purchases and consumption. Therefore, in order to decrease cognitive dissonance regarding a specific consumption, people may change action perceptions, or in other words, rationalize their actions. Depending on the level of perceived risk, tendency to decrease dissonance may lead to different consumer actions: In the case of dissatisfaction with a product or service that has a high level of perceived risk, individuals may not complain. In this case, preferring not to complain may be the result of rationalization process, in which the customer tries to reduce dissonance.

In this context, this study conceptualizes perceived risk as a mediator variable that mediates the relationship between assertiveness and aggressiveness constructs and CCB. Fornell and Westbrook (1979) have pointed that assertiveness can be

elaborated together with dissatisfaction level and the importance of the problem; which is addressed as the perceived risk. So, it is suggested that assertiveness and aggressiveness have an indirect effect on CCB, through perceived risk. Therefore, the propositions have been constructed as follows:

- Proposition3: Perceived risk mediates the effect of assertiveness on CCB.
- Proposition4: Perceived risk mediates the effect of aggressiveness on CCB.

3.3. Mood, Emotion, and Consumer Complaining Behavior

Emotions are "*mental and physical processes that include aspects of subjective experience, evaluation and appraisal, motivation, and bodily responses such as arousal and facial expression*" (Smith and Kosslyn, 2007, p. 328). Emotions are also defined as "*the most immediate but complex responses of a person involved in the process of adaptation to the changes of internal states and external conditions*" (Brandstatter and Eliasz, 2001, p. 95).

The theories that identify and classify emotions are clustered into three major categories as psychological, neurological and cognitive dimensions (Choraria, 2013). The common point of these theories is the basic definition of emotions as psychological reactions of individuals. Emotions occur as reactions to events that are limited in time such as hearing news or experiencing joy (Smith and Kosslyn, 2007, p. 328).

Emotions organize human activities by telling people what they want or not, such as wanting to prepare a good meal or avoiding hassle and arguments (Butler and McManus, 1998, p. 56). Emotions can even act as motives as in the case of a scared child who looks comfort in her mother's arms, namely, logic is not sufficient for organizing or explaining human behavior (Butler and McManus, 1998, p. 56). Distinct basic emotions, which can be differentiated by specific facial expressions such as anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise are universal across cultures (Smith and Kosslyn, 2007, p. 330).

Even though some authors have used the concepts "mood" and "emotion" interchangeably in the literature, many scholars in the field of emotions differentiate between these two concepts (Brandstatter and Eliasz, 2001, p. 5). The mood is defined as "*a diffusive affective state that is more pronounced as a change in subjective feeling*" (Smith and Kosslyn, 2007, p. 328); a "*low-key, diffuse affective state*" (Turner, 2007, p. 116); or a "*nonintentional state*" (Ekman and Davidson, 1994, p. 60). Kumar (1997) defines mood as "*a form of affect that is not associated with a particular stimulus*" and continues by stating that moods are "*lower-intensity affective states that tend to be more enduring than emotions.*" Forgas defines mood as a "*low-intensity, diffuse and relatively enduring affective state*" (Forgas, 1995). Although moods are less intensive affective states than emotions, they have relatively longer duration (Smith and Kosslyn, 2007, p. 328). On the other hand, some authors state that mood is an instant stage of affection compared to emotions (Bronner et al., 2007; Ekman and Davidson, 1994). Mood is also referred to as an emotional state that may last for hours, days, or weeks, as a "*low-intensity background*" (Oatley and Jenkins, 1996, p. 125).

Moods do not have a salient antecedent cause, but emotions usually have a cause and a cognitive content; feeling good or bad is a mood but being angry to a person or fearing from snakes are emotions (Forgas, 1994). A spontaneous feeling of gloom or cheerfulness can be an example of mood as an affective state (Smith and Kosslyn, 2007, p. 328). Unlike emotions, moods are often "objectless or free-floating" (Oatley and Jenkins, 1996, p. 125), in other words, mood does not have a clear intentional object, i.e. sadness (an emotion) must be directed at some loss which the individual views as its cause, but if a person feels listless (a mood), he can look for a reason like low blood sugar but he is not listless *at* something (de Sousa, 1997). Thus, even though mood and emotion concepts can be confused and be used interchangeably; moods differ from emotions, feelings or affects in that they are less specific, less intense, and less likely to be triggered by a particular stimulus or event.

Luomala and Laaksonen (2000) state that moods are affective states that include emotions. Moods are less intense than emotions and they are generally unintentional (White, 2006). Although making a strict distinction between emotions and moods is hard, there are some common bases of differentiation that are previously stated in the literature (Ekman and Davidson, 1994). In order to clarify the concepts, the differences between moods and emotions are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1: The Differences between Moods and Emotions

Attribute	Moods	Emotions	Contributor*
Function	Moods' function is to modulate or bias cognition.	Emotions' function is to modulate or bias action.	Davidson (p. 52)

Attribute	Moods	Emotions	Contributor*
Initiation	Moods are already "present" and constitute the base for emotions.	Emotions can be present or not. They arise in cases where an adaptive action is necessary.	Davidson (p. 52)
	People often cannot specify the event that has triggered a specific mood.	People usually can specify the event that has triggered an emotion.	Ekman (p. 57)
	Moods are nonintentional states and they do not involve a particular object. Rather, they are of the entire world or environment of the subject.	As an intentioned psychological state, emotions involve relationship of the subject with a particular object; i.e. Angry at someone, happy about an event	Frijda (p. 60) Kagan (p. 74) Watson and Clark (p. 89)
	Moods are the result of milder and sustained arousal of affective systems.	Emotions are the result of intense arousal of brain systems that strongly encourage the subject to behave impulsively.	Panksepp (p. 86)
	Triggers of mood are usually perceived as occurring in a slower time period; i.e. A sunny and bright day may lead to a positive mood.	Triggers of emotions usually occur quickly and without warning; i.e. Losing the control of the car triggers fear in the driver.	Davidson (p. 53)
	Moods refer to the subject's appraisal of the ongoing relationships with the environment. What is appraised is the existential background of a subject's life. A negative mood can be attributed partially to an encounter, but it is a more general state regarding the subject's evaluations of the environment and life.	Emotions refer to the subject's appraisal of the ongoing relationships with the environment. What is appraised is a goal-centered issue. When the specific adaptation encounter ends, in other words, the goal-centered issue is resolved; emotions end, too.	Lazarus (p. 83)
Affect	Moods shift the modes of cognition and patterns of information processing; i.e. Positive moods facilitate creative responses.	Emotions shift the action; i.e. Fear changes action.	Davidson (p. 52)
	Moods may affect the type of emotion that will be triggered.	Emotions may affect the state of mood.	Davidson (p. 53)
Duration	Moods last longer, typically for hours or a few days.	Emotions are held briefly, for a shorter time period, typically for seconds or minutes, or a few hours.	Davidson (p. 51) Ekman (p. 56) Frijda (p. 61) Goldsmith (p. 72) Kagan (p. 74) Lazarus (p. 83)
Expression	Moods do not own their own unique facial expression.	Not all but many emotions have their own unique facial expression.	Ekman (p. 57) Watson and Clark (p. 89)

Prepared by the researcher. (*Book chapter in Ekman and Davidson, 1994.)

Previous research has demonstrated that negative moods tend to bias individuals' judgements of life satisfaction (Schwarz et al., 1991; Ekman and Davidson, 1994). Kim has elaborated emotions as antecedent variables for consumer dissatisfaction and argued that anger influences complaining (Kim, 2014). Similarly, anxious or angry mood is a persistent and diffuse negative feeling, in which even a minor event can evoke anxious responses, frustrations or angry feelings (Ekman and

Davidson, 1994). Thus, a person can become angry more easily when he or she is in an irritable mood, and events that would be tolerated otherwise can turn out to be bringing forth anger (Ekman and Davidson, 1994). Previously, White (2006) has found that mood states significantly affect consumers' perceptions of service quality. This also supports that a negative mood state may lead to complaining behavior in a consumption context, where the consumer would not complain if he or she were in a good mood. Therefore, the proposition is formed as follows:

- Proposition5: The effect of assertiveness and aggressiveness on CCB -through the mediating effect of perceived risk- increases, if mood gets more negative.

3.4. The Proposed Model

According to the literature review, and the propositions, the conceptual model is illustrated in Figure 1. It is proposed that assertiveness and aggressiveness influence CCB through the mediating role of perceived risk. Mood is included in the model as a moderator that influences the effects of assertiveness and aggressiveness.

Figure 1: The Conceptual Model
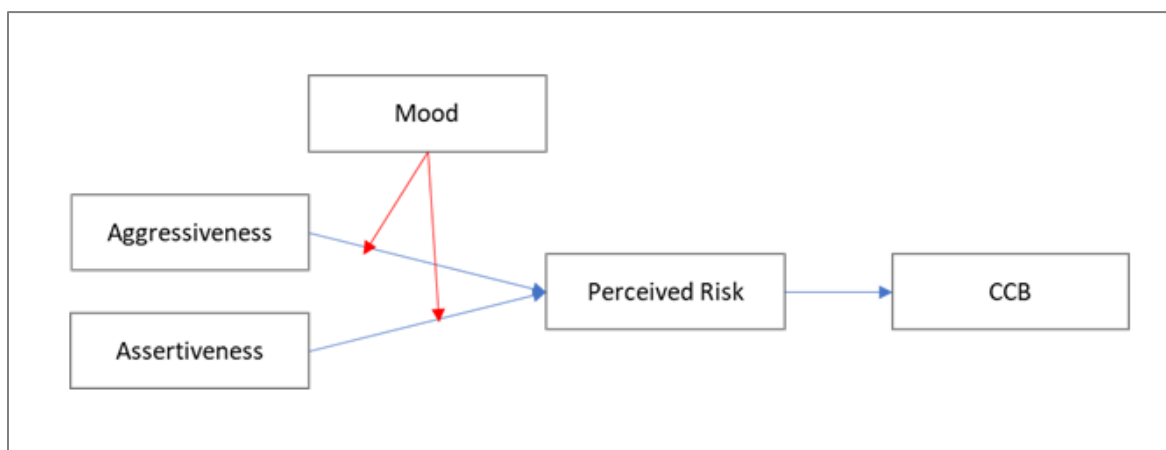
4. CONCLUSION

Consumer complaining behavior is a complex phenomenon (Bearden and Oliver, 1985), which has become the focus of extensive academic study. It is logically accepted that customer dissatisfaction, which depends on situational and personal factors (Blodgett et al., 1993) triggers customer complaint behavior directly. On the other hand, it is empirically tested and argued that the relation between these two variables are not as high as expected (Singh and Pandya, 1991), and that customer satisfaction is not sufficient for explaining CCB (Jacoby and Jaccard, 1981). Consumers behave differently in exactly the same circumstances regarding a product or a service experience, depending on several factors such as personality, expectations, and tastes (Day and Landon, 1976). This variety and unpredictability in CCB constitute the foundation for this study.

Consumer complaining behavior is a widely studied subject in the literature. Among the existing findings in this extensive literature, the main contribution of this study is its special focus on consumer's mood as an emotional and personal factor that is influential on CCB. Mood has been an interesting research topic for psychologists and marketing scholars, but in most of the research, moods, and emotions have been identified as outcomes of service failures, rather than the cause of complaining (Choraria, 2013; Svari et al., 2011; Tronvoll, 2011). On the other hand, this study conceptualizes mood as a construct that increases the effect of aggressiveness and assertiveness on CCB.

The second important contribution of this study is its focus on assertiveness and aggressiveness constructs. Although there are numerous studies about consumer activism, most of the research about assertive and aggressive interaction styles have been limited to clinical research and psychological settings (Crutsinger et al., 2010). Few studies have focused on assertive and aggressive behavior in the marketplace (Fornell and Westbrook, 1979; Richins, 1983; Crutsinger et al., 2010). This study aims to fill this gap by proposing a conceptual model about assertive and aggressive consumer interaction styles and the relationship of these constructs with perceived risk and CCB.

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