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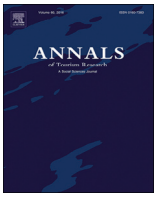

Tourism memory, mood repair and behavioral intention

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ABSTRACT

Recall of tourism experiences evokes pleasant affect tied to the trip, which leads to mood and behavioral intentions. Based on experimental design with two studies, this research investigates the mood-repairing role of tourism memory, memory characteristics, and affective and behavioral consequences of tourism memory. Study 1 confirmed that both positive and negative mood groups recall positive tourism memories, and the effect of mood repair motivation on tourism memory valence is moderated by mood state. Study 2 identified tourism memory characteristics and the effect of tourism memory valence on mood and behavioral intentions. Findings contribute to the literature on relationships between tourism memories, mood and behavioral intentions, and inform tourism organizations on how to use tourism memories for experience management.

Introduction

The memory of tourism experiences is imbued with sources of regulating mood states and desires to travel. Since the concept of memorable tourism experiences was introduced, autobiographical memory (i.e., memory of personal experience) has been perceived as a key factor to predict individuals' affective state and future behavior (Yin et al., 2017). Wood (2020, p. 4) persuasively argued that "the actual experience and the emotions engendered are far less important than the memories created, embellished and passed on, by whatever means." In the post-tourism trip stage, tourism memory derived from autobiographical memory was identified as a tool to share and repeat the experiences (Agapito et al., 2017; Kim & Chen, 2019). Given the acknowledged significance of tourism memories and their usefulness, great insights have been provided to marketers to develop better tourism products (Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017).

Autobiographical memories can represent psychosocial values that form the history of everyday life (Fivush, 2011) and travel life (Kim et al., 2021). Psychology and tourism researchers have different foci in investigating the role of memories. Within psychology, the key research inquiry is to understand how individuals in bad moods access (Perrig & Perrig, 1988) or process (Seebauer et al., 2016) positive autobiographical memory to improve their mood states. The reciprocal relationship between mood and memory has been explored through an associative network theory (Bower, 1981) and cognitive processing mode (Werner-Seidler & Moulds, 2012). The key findings suggest that, during negative mood states, individuals are motivated to repair

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their moods by recalling positive autobiographical memories (Josephson et al., 1996). However, the recall of positive autobiographical memories is not effective in some groups such as those who are depressed (Joormann & Siemer, 2004). To alleviate this phenomenon, cognitive processing mode and tourism-related memory were employed in the mood-repairing process (Seebauer et al., 2016; Werner-Seidler & Moulds, 2012).

In tourism, a major interest is about the impact of autobiographical memory on emotion and behavioral intentions such as revisit intention and word-of-mouth because individuals' future actions can be determined based on their memories and emotional response (Barnes et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2017). However, the mood might not be applied in examining the memory and behavioral intentions. Customers' moods are not easy to predict via marketers because mood states emerge without clear causes, which are differentiated from emotions that have identifiable causes (Beedie et al., 2005).

However, emerging evidence showed that mood can be predicted by memories (Werner-Seidler & Moulds, 2012), and individuals intentionally use their positive memory to stay in better mood states (Wolf & Demiray, 2019). Therefore, it is necessary to understand to what extent a tourism memory is perceived to be positive or negative, i.e., tourism memory valence (Kim et al., 2021), in order to investigate the role of tourism memory. Tourism memory valence is regarded as the cognitive source that leads to various consequences such as mood enhancement (Seebauer et al., 2016) and future behavior (Kim et al., 2021). It is worth noting that consumer psychologists pose the question about the activities that lead to affect regulation and consumer behavior (Andrade, 2005; Chen & Pham, 2019). To connect between mood and behavioral intentions, tourism memory was, in this research, suggested as the key influential factor.

Understanding the role of tourism memory would help increase its utility in predicting individuals' affective states and behavioral intentions (Yin et al., 2017). Tourism memories have been often explored by focusing on the prosperity of tourism organizations and tourism destinations (Coudounaris & Sthapit, 2017), but the way to use tourism memories for individuals' well-being remains relatively unknown (Seebauer et al., 2016). Thus, there is still limited evidence to support the complex relationship between mood, memory, and behavioral intentions in tourism contexts (Kim & Jang, 2016). To bridge these research gaps, the present research aims to identify the mood-repairing role of tourism memories and to identify the key characteristics of positive and negative tourism memories and the role of tourism memory in predicting mood and behavioral intentions.

By achieving the overarching research purposes, this research is expected to contribute to the literature by adding evidence to the reciprocal relationship between mood and tourism memory, as well as shedding light on positive and negative memory characteristics and related affective and behavioral consequences. Meanwhile, this research contributes to tourism management practice by providing tourism marketers with rationales and mechanisms to utilize tourism memory for product evaluation, development, and communication with customers.

Literature review

Autobiographical memory and tourism

Autobiographical memory is described as “a uniquely human form of memory that moves beyond recall of experienced events to integrate perspective, interpretation, and evaluation across self, other, and time to create a personal history” (Fivush, 2011, p. 560), regarding the personally significant meaning (Boyacioglu & Akfirat, 2015; Sutin & Robins, 2007) and goal (Conway, 2005). Conway and Pleydell-Pearce (2000) propose the self-memory system, which emphasizes the interconnection between self and memory. More importantly, specific autobiographical memory can be formed when the working self and autobiographical knowledge base interlock in the act of remembering (Conway, 2005).

Both the goal system and related self-images constitute the working self (Conway, 2005). According to Conway and Pleydell-Pearce (2000), autobiographical knowledge is hierarchically represented by the level of specificity in personal knowledge that includes lifetime periods (e.g., common locations, goals, feelings), general events (e.g., the set of associated events), and more event-specific knowledge (e.g., visual images, sensory-perceptual knowledge). The last level of autobiographical knowledge can be referred to as episodic memories, which “remain summary records of sensory-perceptual–conceptual-affective processing derived from working memory” (Conway, 2005, p. 613). More specifically, episodic memory is visually vivid under the frame of contextualizing conceptual knowledge.

The information encoded through tourism experiences can be positively or negatively stored (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016). However, in comparison with other life experiences (Choi et al., 2017), tourism experiences are often positively retrieved after a trip (Kim et al., 2012). To understand the customer decision-making process in the post-trip stage, the memory of the tourism experience is regarded as a major factor due to the necessity of its nature in building a personal travel life history (Kim et al., 2021; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

Kim et al. (2021) explored the concept of tourism memory based on the theoretical frameworks of autobiographical memory established by Boyacioglu and Akfirat (2015), Conway and Pleydell-Pearce (2000), and Sutin and Robins (2007). Kim et al. (2021) operationally defined tourism memory as a form of memory of important tourism experiences in which individuals personally participated and identified seven dimensions to explicate the characteristics of tourism memory: accessibility, vividness, trip details, sensory details, valence, emotional intensity, and sharing. Upon the recall of the tourism memory, individuals can access subjective experiences that contain general information such as trip details (Marschall, 2014) and more specific information characterized to be vivid (Kim, 2010), sensory (Agapito et al., 2017), and emotionally intense (Wirtz et al., 2003). Above all, tourism memory involves emotional valence (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016) and social functions (Kim & Chen, 2019) that predict people's affective states (Wolf & Demiray, 2019) and future actions (Kim et al., 2021).

Mood-(in)congruent recall

The mood state is defined as "the general, pervasive, affective states that are transient and particularized to specific times and situations" (Gardner, 1985, p. 296). Psychology literature has focused on the effect of mood on memory. Specifically, mood states activate cognitive nodes through the process of spreading activation. According to the associative network theory, emotion can be considered a memory unit that enters associations with experienced events. The mood aids recall of events associated with a certain emotional element, which is used in free association, perceptual categorization, and imagination (Bower, 1981).

Stemming from the associative network theory (Bower, 1981; Rusting & DeHart, 2000), the effect of moods on memory has been assessed through the mood-congruity effect that refers to "facilitated processing of information when the affective valence of this information is congruent with the subject's mood" (Perrig & Perrig, 1988, p. 102). Simply put, positive information is retrieved easily during positive mood states, while negative information comes to mind easily during negative mood states.

The opposite pattern of the phenomenon, namely the mood-incongruent recall, also occurs (Parrott & Sabini, 1990). For example, Josephson et al. (1996) found mood-incongruent recall by asking the sad mood-induced group to recall two memories. Some of the participants recalled a positive memory in the second memory recall. Joormann and Siemer (2004) focused on whether dysphoric or non-dysphoric participants reduce sad moods by retrieving happy memories. Their findings show that non-dysphoric participants' moods are enhanced through positive autobiographical memory.

Previous studies did not sufficiently explain the connection between mood and memory based on the self-memory system. The self-knowledge base in the self-memory system contains knowledge for personally experienced events that articulate the valence of autobiographical memories (Conway & Pleydell-Pearce, 2000; Sakaki, 2007). Furthermore, Sakaki (2007) argued that mood-congruent recall is more likely to occur when individuals recall autobiographical memory related to self-aspects of the source of the mood-inducing stimulus. For instance, the negative mood is induced by negative exam feedback and later, mood-congruent memories of academic experiences were recalled. On the other hand, mood-incongruent memories are recalled when individuals access materials unrelated to self-aspects (e.g., friends).

Another plausible reason for the mood-incongruent recall is that individuals are motivated to improve their mood by retrieving positive memories (Josephson et al., 1996). For instance, when individuals are motivated to repair negative moods, they may selectively access positive materials in their memory (Joormann & Siemer, 2004; Sakaki, 2007). For example, Josephson et al. (1996) asked participants why they chose positive or negative memory after the mood induction and memory task. Those who were engaged in the mood-repairing process said, "I wanted to change my bad mood" (p. 442). In this vein, mood repair motivation is associated with attempts to do something to improve mood (McFarland & Buehler, 1998; Wood et al., 2009). However, individuals in good moods are also motivated to maintain or improve positive mood states (Larsen, 2000; Riediger et al., 2009).

Taken together, a mood state facilitates mood-congruent recall derived from automatic associative priming. Individuals in a negative mood attempt to enhance their mood by recalling mood-incongruent memory derived from mood repair motivation. Mood-incongruent recall can be observed when individuals recall autobiographical memory not associated with self-aspects of the mood-inducing materials. To the best of our knowledge, tourism studies have not explored mood-incongruent recall yet. Such phenomena occur during the mood-repairing process via tourism memories. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1. Tourism memory valence differs between the positive and negative mood groups. Specifically, tourism memory valence is greater in the positive mood group.

Hypothesis 2. Mood repair motivation differs between the positive and negative mood groups. Specifically, mood repair motivation is greater in the negative mood group.

Hypothesis 3. Mood repair motivation has a positive effect on tourism memory valence.

Hypothesis 4. Mood states (positive vs. negative) moderate the relationship between mood repair motivation and tourism memory valence, such that the effect is stronger for the negative mood group.

Affective and behavioral consequences of tourism memory

The recall of autobiographical memory is regarded as an effective mechanism to regulate moods (Rasmussen & Berntsen, 2009) and boost the desire to behave (Kim et al., 2021). Werner-Seidler and Moulds (2012) explored the cognitive processing mode of memory (i.e., concrete vs. abstract), which leads to mood enhancement in depressed people and those who recovered from depression. A concrete processing mode is associated with subjective experiences that contain vivid, sensory, and specific memory features. An abstract processing mode is described as an analytical approach on the cause, meaning, and consequences based on ruminative comparisons between the pleasant autobiographical memory and one's current situation. Positive memory recall in concrete processing mode improved mood, but in the abstract processing mode, it resulted in no significant change in mood. Based on the cognitive processing mode, Seebauer et al. (2016) also found that mood increased after individuals recalled positively vivid memories. They further categorized positive memory types into social, achievement, nature, and traveling contexts.

Since tourists express different types of reactions during and after a trip, tourism researchers have focused on tourism experiences as a multidimensional construct and found special characteristics of remembered tourism experiences (Kim et al., 2012;

Kim & Chen, 2019) and destination attributes stemming from positive memories (Kim, 2014) and negative memories (Kim, 2022). Recent tourism memory research moves beyond mood enhancement in that tourism memory is identified as a predictor of actual behaviors (i.e., sharing and actual visits; Kim et al., 2021) and behavioral intentions (i.e., word-of-mouth and revisit intention; Agapito et al., 2017). Furthermore, the recall of tourism memories can stimulate individuals' desire to repeat the remembered trip (Wirtz et al., 2003) that contains autobiographical knowledge associated with places, specific activities and events (Kim et al., 2021; Kim & Chen, 2019).

For example, Wirtz et al. (2003) identified that remembered experiences are stronger predictors for desires to repeat similar experiences than actual experiences. Yin et al. (2017) has explored the relationship between tourism autobiographical memory, emotion, and purchase intention. They investigated how individuals access product-related memories when they encounter destination products in their hometown, finding that the induced memory leads to positive emotion that affects positive purchase intention. Agapito et al. (2017) examined sensory memories to explore how sensory components lead to long-term memory and destination loyalty. They demonstrated that rich sensory destination experiences can become part of long-term memory and affect destination loyalty. Prayag et al. (2013) focused on both the positive and negative emotional experiences of tourists. Their findings suggest that tourists' negative experiences have negative effects on satisfaction and behavioral intentions, while positive experiences lead to opposite consequences. Furthermore, Marschall (2012) claimed that people may return to places not only with positive memory for re-experiencing the past event but also with negative memory in a quest for closure or emotional healing. Based on the above discussion, we propose following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5. Mood differs between the positive and negative tourism memory groups. Specifically, the mood is greater after participants recall the positive tourism memory.

Hypothesis 6. Behavioral intentions differ between the positive and negative tourism memory groups. Specifically, behavioral intentions ((a) revisit intention, (b) word-of-mouth and (c) desire to repeat the experience) are greater after participants recall the positive tourism memory.

Mediating role of mood

Despite considerable evidence that explains the autobiographical memory and its affective consequences (e.g., mood) and behavioral consequences (e.g., behavioral intentions), these relationships have been explored by focusing on the mediating role of emotion (Yin et al., 2017) rather than mood due to the nature of mood (De Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Emotions are recognized as affective states that are intense and related to specific behaviors, while the mood is interpreted under the premise that a mood has unknown or no antecedent causes (Beedie et al., 2005). Bagozzi et al. (1999, p. 185) further argued that "moods are not as directly coupled with action tendencies and explicit actions as are many emotions."

However, certain mood states may persist for a few minutes after people experience particular emotions (Bower & Forgas, 2000). Gnoth et al. (2000) argued that "mood can be traced back to distinct life domains and described by particular emotions" (p. 31). Swinyard (1993) identified the significant effect of mood on behavioral intentions when the customers are highly involved in shopping experiences. Speer et al. (2014) claimed that the recall of positive autobiographical memory (e.g., family vacation) changed participants' mood and it involved the activation of reward-related neural circuitry such as the striatum and medial prefrontal cortex. Interestingly, participants preferred to recollect positive experiences rather than receive tangible monetary rewards. Recently, Speer and Delgado (2019) pointed out that not all positive memories are equally treasured. Their finding indicated that individuals are willing to pay to re-experience the high social memory that happened with close people rather than lower social memory with an acquaintance or alone. Indeed, people tend to rehearse their memory to re-experience positive moods and share experiences with significant others (Walker et al., 2009), and make a timely decision in choosing future tourism destinations (Kim & Chen, 2019).

Notably, Wolf and Demiray (2019) emphasized the mood enhancement function of autobiographical memory and identified its significant relationship with other autobiographical functions: social function (e.g., frequency of sharing memories), directive function (e.g., handling present or future situations), and self function (e.g., reassuring identity). Similarly, Kim and Chen (2019) demonstrated that memory of travel experiences can be used to enhance mood experienced during a trip, and for social communication and travel decision-making. Based on the above discussion, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7. Mood mediates the relationship between tourism memory valence and behavioral intentions ((a) revisit intention, (b) word-of-mouth and (c) desire to repeat the experience).

Proposed theoretical framework

Drawing from the associative network theory (Bower, 1981), concrete processing mode (Werner-Seidler & Moulds, 2012), mood repair motivation (Josephson et al., 1996), and memory and behavior literature (Conway, 2005; Kim et al., 2021; Yin et al., 2017), the theoretical framework is developed to reveal the mood-repairing role of tourism memory, the reciprocal relationship between mood and tourism memory, and the cognitive-affective-behavioral links in the customer's decision-making process. Furthermore, age and memory age were included as control variables in predicting the mood-repairing role of tourism memory in

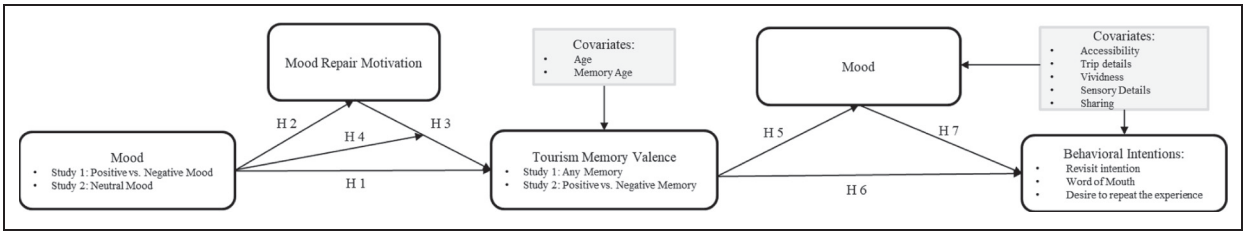

Fig. 1. Theoretical framework.

the concern of positivity bias (Walker & Skowronski, 2009). Accessibility, trip details, vividness, sensory details, and sharing were further controlled since they were identified to affect mood (Seebauer et al., 2016; Wolf & Demiray, 2019) and behavioral intentions (Agapito et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2021). The theoretical framework is presented in Fig. 1.

Two experimental studies are conducted to test the seven hypotheses. Study 1 aims to seek the mood-repairing role of tourism memory in the context of mood-(in)congruent effects. More specifically, the study tests the effect of mood state on tourism memory valence and mood repair motivation, and the moderating role of mood state between mood repair motivation and tourism memory valence. As discussed in the literature review, it is predicted that imbalanced tourism memory recall may occur under the negative mood condition, which may limit the investigation of affective and behavioral consequences. Therefore, Study 2 further explores the role of tourism memory by examining characteristics of positive and negative tourism memories and the effect of tourism memory valence on mood and behavioral intentions. Finally, the mediating role of mood between tourism memory and behavioral intentions is investigated.

Study 1

Design

Study 1 aimed to seek the relationship between mood, mood repair motivation, and tourism memory valence by adopting mood induction procedures via a life event recall. The study used a one-factor (mood state: positive vs. negative) between-subject design in order to test Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4.

Sample and procedure

We recruited participants who were based in the United States in exchange for $0.70 via MTurk. Following Kim et al. (2021), we included participants who are older than 18, passed three attention check questions, and recalled tourism memories. As a result, a sample of 170 valid respondents was obtained and more than 70% of participants recalled recent experiences that happened over the last 5 years and had returned to the same destination after the recalled trip. In terms of age, participants ranged from 18 to 29 (20%), 30–39 (40.6%), 40–49 (22.9%), 50–59 (9.4%), and 60 years old and above (7.1%).

The experimental procedure is adapted from Arnold and Reynolds (2009). All participants were tested individually. On the first page of the questionnaire, this study was introduced as "an investigation of individual differences in mood and memory." All participants rated their baseline mood before starting mood induction tasks. Then, participants were randomly allocated to either the positive mood induction condition ($n = 90$) or the negative mood induction condition ($n = 80$). The mood induction task was described as a memory of a life event. The second round of mood ratings was performed for the mood manipulation check, followed by the completion of mood repair motivation items. They were then required to recall any tourism memory and to fill out another packet of questionnaires regarding tourism memory valence, mood, improved mood, and behavioral intentions. Lastly, they provided demographic details and trip characteristics.

Materials and measures

Mood induction

To induce either positive or negative moods, life event recall was adapted from Arnold and Reynolds (2009) and McFarland and Buehler (1998). Participants were required to recall either a positive event (i.e., one that created strong pleasant feelings) or a negative event (i.e., one that created strong unpleasant feelings) over the last year. To increase the strength of this induction, subjects were told to visualize themselves in the situation, attempt to relive feelings they felt during the recall of the event, and describe all of the feelings they experienced.

Mood

Participants were asked to rate their present state of mood on a 9-point bipolar scale ranging from very negative (−4) to very positive (4). Four pairs of items (sad/happy, bad mood/good mood, irritable/pleased, depressed/cheerful) were adapted from Swinyard (1993).

Mood repair motivation

Mood repair motivation was employed by adopting a scale from Wood et al. (2009). It included three items ("I want to engage in activities to help me feel good"; "I want to do something to help me feel good"; "I want to think about things to help myself feel better"). Participants rated the level of mood repair motivation at the moment using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

Improved mood

To understand the mood regulatory role of tourism memory, a single item was adapted from McFarland and Buehler (1998): the extent to which recalling the tourism-related memory worsened or improved your mood (−4 = worsens mood a great deal, 4 = improves mood a great deal).

Tourism memory recall task

Tourism memory is recalled to understand mood-congruent and incongruent effects. The instruction for the memory recall task was modified from Kim et al. (2021): Please recall any memory about a tourism experience that "you were personally involved in. You can usually recall or trace the date of the memory. Please describe the memory in detail: what happened and whom you were with (if anyone) and how you felt or reacted" (Kim et al., 2021, p. 9).

Tourism memory characteristics scale

After the tourism memory recall, participants rated the valence of tourism memory on a 9-point bipolar scale ranging from very negative (−4) to very positive (4). Three items of tourism memory valence were adapted from Kim et al. (2021). To measure the importance of memory, a single item was adapted from Philippe et al. (2011) and presented on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

Behavioral intentions

Three items of revisit intention and three items of word-of-mouth were adapted from Agapito et al. (2017) and Um et al. (2006) and measured using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree. Following Wirtz et al. (2003), the desire to repeat the experience was measured using a single item (How likely would you take this same trip over again?) based on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "definitely no" to 7 = "definitely yes".

All constructs and items are presented in Appendix A.

Results

Reliability and manipulation checks

We combined and averaged four mood items used respectively for baseline mood ($\alpha = 0.89$), post-mood induction ($\alpha = 0.93$), and post-tourism memory recall ($\alpha = 0.86$), as well as three items of tourism memory valence ($\alpha = 0.81$) and three items of mood repair motivation ($\alpha = 0.79$). In all factors, Cronbach's alpha values exceeded 0.70 (Hair et al., 2019).

To verify the effectiveness of mood manipulation, participants were asked to complete mood scales before and after the recall of life events (positive vs. negative). Then, mean scores of four items for mood were used to define mood groups. Higher mood indicates a positive mood group. For mood manipulation checks, independent and paired sample *t*-tests were performed.

The result of an independent sample *t*-test that does not assume equal variances was reported when the results of Levene's test of equality of variances indicates that the variances of between-conditions are not equal ($p < 0.05$; Pallant, 2016). Participants in the positive mood condition reported a significantly higher positive mood (Mean = 2.49, SD = 1.13) when compared to those in the negative mood condition (Mean = 0.45, SD = 2.20): $t(115.12) = 7.47$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 1.18$. A paired sample *t*-test was conducted to test mood changes after recalling a life event. The results exhibited that the positive mood group reported $t(89) = -4.09$, $p < 0.001$, $d = -0.43$, while the negative mood group showed $t(79) = 6.02$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.67$. These results indicated the success of mood manipulation.

Hypothesis testing

To test hypothesis 1 and 2, independent sample *t*-tests were performed. The results revealed that tourism memory valence was slightly higher in the positive mood state than in the negative mood state. However, there were no significant differences between the conditions in terms of tourism memory valence ($Mean_{positive\ group} = 2.62$, SD = 1.24 vs. $Mean_{negative\ group} = 2.42$, SD = 1.40, $t(168) = 1.01$, $p > 0.05$). Mood repair motivation also does not differ between positive group (Mean = 4.87, SD = 1.26) and negative group (Mean = 4.87, SD = 1.25): $t(168) = 0.01$, $p > 0.05$. Therefore, hypotheses 1 and 2 were not supported. To capture the definition of tourism memory, the importance of memory was further measured ($Mean_{positive\ group} = 5.84$, SD = 1.01 vs. $Mean_{negative\ group} = 5.76$, SD = 1.04, $t(168) = 0.51$, $p > 0.05$).

Enter regression analysis was conducted to test hypothesis 3, namely, the effect of mood repair motivation on tourism memory valence. The result of regression analysis ($b = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$) supported hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 was tested using the bootstrapping approach (PROCESS Model 1; Hayes, 2018) with tourism memory valence as the dependent variable, mood repair motivation as an independent variable, the mood state (0 = positive vs. 1 = negative) as a

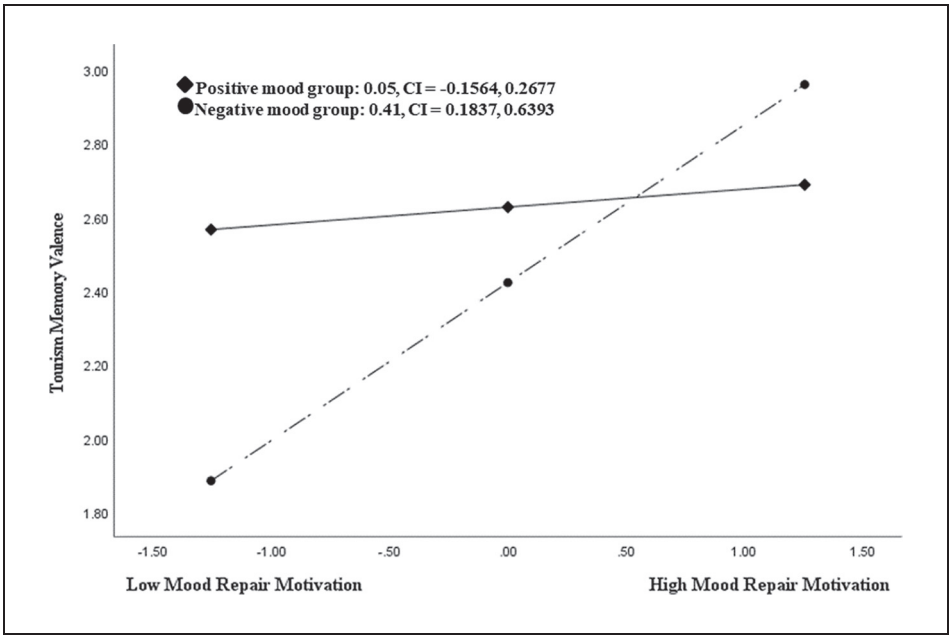

Fig. 2. Interactive effects of mood repair motivation and mood state on tourism memory valence.

moderator, and age and memory age as control variables. The results of this analysis showed that the effect of mood repair motivation on tourism memory valence (b = 0.05, SE = 0.10, CI = [−0.1564, 0.2677]) and the effect of mood state on tourism memory valence (b = −0.20, SE = 0.19, CI = [−0.5858, 0.1926]) were not significant. Age and memory age also do not have a significant effect on tourism memory valence. However, the effect of the interaction of mood repair motivation × mood state was significant (b = 0.35, SE = 0.15, CI = [0.0442, 0.6674]). As presented in Fig. 2, the moderating effect of mood state was significant only for the negative mood group (b = 0.41, SE = 0.11, CI = [0.1837, 0.6393]). These results partially supported hypothesis 4.

The paired samples *t*-test was performed to measure mood changes after tourism memory recall. The results revealed that the positive mood group had no significant increase in mood after recalling the tourism memory ($t(89) = 0.34$, $p > 0.05$), whereas the negative mood group had significant increases in mood after recalling the tourism memory ($t(79) = -6.63$, $p < 0.001$, $d = -0.74$). Moreover, improved mood was not significantly different in the between-group conditions ($Mean_{positive\ group} = 2.31$, SD = 1.58 vs. $Mean_{negative\ group} = 2.40$, SD = 1.53, $t(168) = -0.37$, $p > 0.05$).

To predict the mediating effect of mood between tourism memory valence and behavioral intentions, PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2018) was used with tourism memory valence as an independent variable, mood of post tourism memory recall as a mediator, and behavioral intentions (revisit intentions, word-of-mouth, desire to repeat the experience) as the dependent variables. The results showed that the relationship between tourism memory valence and mood is significant (b = 0.95, SE = 0.04, CI = [0.8714, 1.047]). Also, tourism memory valence has significant and positive effect on revisit intention (b = 0.59, SE = 0.07, CI = [0.4378, 0.7499]), word-of-mouth (b = 0.41, SE = 0.08, CI = [0.2435, 0.5863]), and desire to repeat the experience (b = 0.71, SE = 0.12, CI = [0.4635, 0.9609]). In terms of the effect of mood on behavioral intentions, only word-of-mouth has a significant relationship with mood (b = 0.18, SE = 0.07, CI = [0.0284, 0.3347]).

Discussion

In Study 1, memories of tourism experiences were required to recall in both positive and negative mood-induction groups in order to seek the mood-repairing role of tourism memory. The finding in relation to hypothesis 1 suggests that positive tourism memories are more likely to be recalled in both positive and negative mood states induced by life events. According to Choi et al. (2017), taking a trip is a highly positive and meaningful activity in comparison to other types of daily activities. People may recall positive tourism memories since the likelihood to encode positive experiences during a trip is higher. Furthermore, as Sakaki (2007) argued, mood-incongruent recall occurred when the self-aspect is not related to mood induction stimuli.

Hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 sought to understand why people recall the positive memory. Both positive and negative mood groups had no significant difference in mood repair motivation (Larsen, 2000). As Josephson et al. (1996) identified, individuals' negative mood states lead to positive memory recall due to mood repair motivations, thus reducing negative moods. This finding is supported by the result of the moderating effect of the mood state on the relationship between mood repair motivation and tourism memory valence. As distinct from the positive mood group, the negative mood group was motivated to recall positive tourism

memory. Specifically, tourism memory valence was less positive at a lower level of mood repair motivation. The individuals in the negative mood group enhanced their mood following the recall of positive tourism memory (Seebauer et al., 2016).

As Kim et al. (2021) identified, tourism memory valence has significant effects on behavioral intentions. Meanwhile, mood was not a significant predictor of behavioral intentions (Swinyard, 1993). This finding does not conclude that a significant effect of mood does not exist since tourism memory valence was not completely controlled. Therefore, Study 2 further explores the relationship between tourism memory valence, mood, and behavioral intentions.

Study 2

Design

Study 2 further explored the role of tourism memory and its affective and behavioral consequences. This study also used a one-factor (tourism memory group: positive vs. negative) between-subject design. The experimental procedure was similar to Study 1. Specifically, the mood induction task was performed to induce a neutral mood before participants were allocated to tourism memory recall tasks. Mood, behavioral intentions, and the relationship between the two were predicted following the tourism memory recall in order to test hypotheses 5, 6, and 7.

Sample and procedure

Participants who lived in the United States were recruited via MTurk. The same data cleaning procedures of Study 1 were applied. A sample of 369 valid respondents was retained. About 67% of participants used recent experiences that occurred over the last 5 years. 58.3% of respondents revisited the same destination(s) after the recalled trip. Among them, 30.6% of them in the positive memory group returned to the same place(s). Similar to Study 1, the largest age group was from 30 to 39 (38.5%). The other age groups were under 18–29 (20.6%), 40–49 (23.6%), 50–59 (9.2%), and 60 years old and above (8.1%).

This study was first introduced as "an investigation of individual differences in mood, memory, and behavioral intentions." All participants rated their baseline mood. They watched two film clips to induce a neutral mood. The second round of mood checks was performed for the mood manipulation check. Then, participants were randomly allocated to either a positive tourism memory condition ($n = 184$) or a negative tourism memory condition ($n = 185$). After completing the tourism memory recall task, participants were asked to fill out another packet of questionnaires regarding tourism memory characteristics, mood, improved mood, and behavioral intentions. Lastly, they provided demographic details and trip characteristics.

Materials and measures

Mood induction

In Study 2, film clips, instead of life event recall, were used for neutral mood induction. This mood manipulation method is effective to minimize the evocation of affective states (Schaefer et al., 2010). Two film clips (i.e., Blue 2 and 3) were adopted from the past literature (Koval et al., 2013) to induce a neutral mood.

Mood, improved mood, and behavioral intentions

In terms of mood, improved mood, and behavioral intentions, participants were asked to complete the same scale items applied in Study 1.

Tourism memory recall task

The instruction for the memory recall task was modified from Kim et al. (2021) by guiding participants to recall and describe a memory about a good, positive [bad, negative] tourism experience.

Tourism memory characteristics scale

As in Study 1, valence was modified by using a 9-point bipolar scale. One single item of importance of memory was added from Philippe et al. (2011). Three items of trip details were refined from Kim et al. (2021): "My memory for the country(ies) (for an international holiday) or region(s) (for a domestic holiday) which I visited is clear"; "My memory for the city(ies) which I visited is clear"; and "My memory for the tourist attraction(s) which I visited is clear." To measure tourism memory characteristics (Kim et al., 2021), 27 items, apart from valence, were presented on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

Results

Reliability and manipulation checks

As in Study 1, scale items used for baseline mood, post-mood induction, seven dimensions of tourism memory characteristics, post-tourism memory recall, and behavioral intentions, respectively, were combined and averaged to confirm reliability. All factors indicated Cronbach's alpha values greater than 0.70 (Hair et al., 2019). The result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
The result of the independent sample t-test ($n = 369$).

	Positive Tourism Memory Group ($n = 184$)	Negative Tourism Memory Group ($n = 185$)	*t*-value
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	
Mood Ratings			
Baseline ($\alpha = 0.91$)	1.99 (1.45)	1.84 (1.54)	0.96
Post mood induction ($\alpha = 0.91$)	1.74 (1.47)	1.49 (1.50)	1.58
Post tourism memory recall ($\alpha = 0.93$)[a]	2.42 (1.30)	0.87 (1.80)	9.43***
Tourism Memory Characteristics			
Valence ($\alpha = 0.94$)[a]	3.02 (1.18)	−0.80 (2.43)	19.26***
Emotional Intensity ($\alpha = 0.88$)	5.34 (1.24)	5.12 (1.22)	1.68
Accessibility ($\alpha = 0.87$)[a]	4.57 (1.71)	4.04 (1.49)	3.16**
Trip Detail ($\alpha = 0.76$)	5.74 (1.03)	5.47 (0.98)	2.49*
Vividness ($\alpha = 0.81$)	5.79 (1.04)	5.56 (0.99)	2.17*
Sensory Details ($\alpha = 0.81$)	5.43 (1.12)	5.17 (1.19)	2.13*
Sharing ($\alpha = 0.93$)	4.69 (1.56)	4.17 (1.63)	3.13**
Importance[a,b]	5.64 (1.36)	4.76 (1.58)	2.65**
Improved Mood[a,b]	2.40 (1.47)	0.16 (2.12)	11.75***
Behavioral Intentions			
Revisit intention[a] ($\alpha = 0.92$)	5.86 (1.04)	4.35 (1.81)	9.81***
Word-of-Mouth[a] ($\alpha = 0.91$)	5.84 (1.04)	4.37 (1.75)	9.79***
Desire to repeat the experience[a,b]	6.10 (1.36)	4.10 (2.15)	10.65***

[a] Levene's test of equality of variances is significant ($p < 0.05$).
[b] A single item; α = Cronbach's alpha.
* $p < 0.05$.
** $p < 0.01$.
*** $p < 0.001$.

Participants were asked to complete mood scales before and after watching two film clips. Mean scores of four items for mood were used to confirm the neutral mood induction. Then, they recalled either positive or negative tourism memory. Higher memory valence indicates a positive tourism memory group while lower memory valence represents a negative tourism memory group. For manipulation checks, independent and paired sample *t*-tests were performed.

To confirm the success of the neutral mood induction, the paired and independent sample *t*-tests were conducted. The baseline mood (Mean = 1.91, SD =1.50) decreased after the neutral mood induction (Mean = 1.62, SD = 1.49), reporting $t(368) = 5.28$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.27$. Furthermore, there were no significant differences between the positive tourism memory group (Mean = 1.74, SD = 1.47) and the negative tourism memory group (Mean = 1.49, SD = 1.50), showing $t(367) = 1.58$, $p > 0.05$. These results confirmed the success of neutral mood induction.

To compare memory characteristics between the positive and negative tourism memory groups, an independent sample *t*-test was performed. As presented in Table 1, the results indicated that the positive tourism memory group had seven memory factors that were significantly greater than the negative tourism memory: valence, accessibility, trip detail, vividness, sensory details, sharing, and importance. Above all, tourism memory valence was significantly different between the positive tourism memory group (Mean = 3.02, SD = 1.18) and the negative tourism memory group (Mean = −0.80, SD = 2.43): $t(267.30) = 19.26$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 2.00$. This result led to the confirmation that each group successfully recalled positive or negative memories as intended.

Hypotheses testing

To test hypotheses 5 and 6, independent sample *t*-tests were performed. The results showed that mood induced by tourism memory recall was significantly greater in the positive tourism memory group, reporting $Mean_{positive\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 2.42$, SD = 1.30 vs. $Mean_{negative\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 0.87$, SD = 1.80, $t(335.51) = 9.43$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 0.98$. In terms of improved mood of tourism memory, the positive tourism memory group (Mean = 2.40, SD = 1.47) was aware that recalling tourism memory improved mood greater than the negative tourism memory group (Mean = 0.16, SD = 2.12): $t(327.73) = 11.75$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 1.22$.

Revisit intention was significantly greater in the positive tourism memory group ($Mean_{positive\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 5.86$, SD = 1.04 vs. $Mean_{negative\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 4.35$, SD = 1.81): $t(294.40) = 9.81$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 1.02$. Word-of-Mouth was significantly greater in the positive tourism group than in the negative tourism group ($Mean_{positive\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 5.84$, SD = 1.04 vs. $Mean_{negative\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 4.37$, SD = 1.75): $t(299.89) = 9.79$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 1.01$. Desire to repeat the experience was also significantly different between the groups ($Mean_{positive\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 6.10$, SD = 1.36 vs. $Mean_{negative\ tourism\ memory\ group} = 4.10$, SD = 2.15): $t(311.06) = 10.65$, $p < 0.001$, $d = 1.10$. Based on Cohen's *d* calculation (1988), these differences indicated large effect size, exceeding 0.8. Therefore, these results supported hypotheses 5 and 6.

Finally, hypothesis 7 was tested using PROCESS macro (Model 4; Hayes, 2018) with tourism memory valence (1 = positive tourism memory vs. 0 = negative tourism memory) as an independent variable, mood as a mediator, behavioral intentions

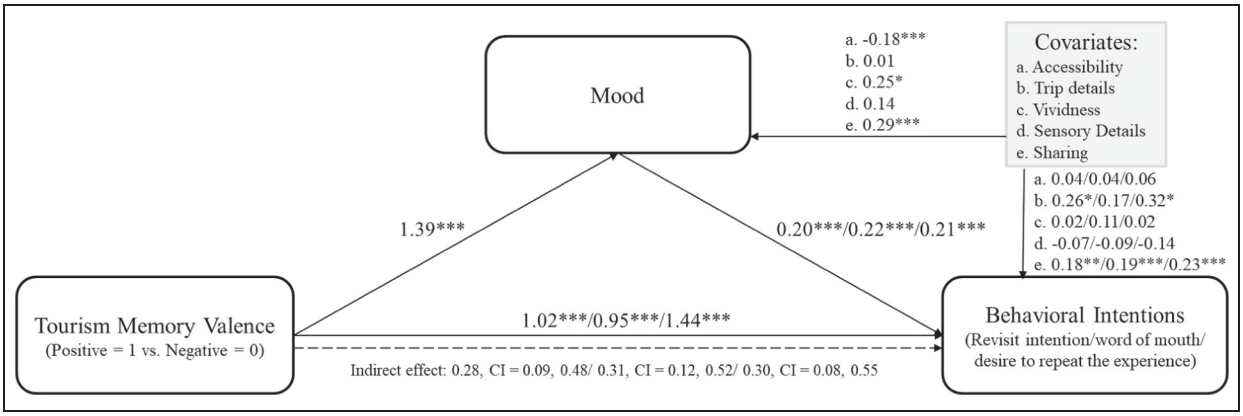

Fig. 3. The mediation model note: $^{*}p < 0.05$; $^{**}p < 0.01$; $^{***}p < 0.001$.

(revisit intention, word-of-mouth, desire to repeat the experience) as dependent variables, and tourism memory characteristics (accessibility, vividness, sensory details, trip detail, sharing) as control variables. Tourism memory valence positively predicted mood (b = 1.39, SE = 0.14, CI = [1.1012, 1.6847]). Significant effects of tourism memory characteristics on mood were observed in vividness, sharing, and accessibility.

After incorporating the tourism memory group and mood as predictors, tourism memory valence was positively associated with revisit intention (b = 1.02, SE = 0.16, CI = [0.7004, 1.3496]), word-of-mouth (b = 0.95, SE = 0.15, CI = [0.6385, 1.2621]), and desire to repeat the experience (b = 1.44, SE = 0.20, CI = [1.0511, 1.8487]). Meanwhile, mood had a positive effect on revisit intention (b = 0.20, SE = 0.05, CI = [0.0998, 0.3060]), word-of-mouth (b = 0.22, SE = 0.05, CI = [0.1275, 0.3256]), and desire to repeat the experience (b = 0.21, SE = 0.06, CI = [0.0893, 0.3427]). In terms of tourism memory characteristics, sharing has significant effects on revisit intention, word-of-mouth, and desire to repeat the experience, while the trip detail has significant effects on revisit intention and desire to repeat the experience.

We further confirmed significant total effects of tourism memory valence on revisit intention (b = 1.30, SE = 0.15, CI = [1.0110, 1.6043]), word-of-mouth (b = 1.26, SE = 0.14, CI = [0.9789, 1.5528]), and desire to repeat the experience (b = 1.75, SE = 0.18, CI = [1.3882, 2.1135]). Then, a bootstrapping analysis with 10,000 subsamples found that the confidence interval of the mediating effect of mood does not contain zero in predicting revisit intention (b = 0.28, SE = 0.10, CI = [0.0919, 0.4870]), word-of-mouth (b = 0.31, SE = 0.10, CI = [0.1265, 0.5214]), or desire to repeat the experience (b = 0.30, SE = 0.12, CI = [0.0805, 0.5591]). Therefore, as presented in Fig. 3, hypothesis 7 was supported by confirming the mediating effect of mood.

Discussion

In Study 2, differences in memory characteristics and the affective and behavioral consequences of positive and negative tourism memories were further explored. Similar to previous findings (D'Argembeau & Van der Linden, 2008), positive tourism memory was more significant, positive, vivid, and shared than negative tourism memory. Moreover, people access positive (vs. negative) information more easily and frequently.

Hypothesis 5 confirmed mood differences between positive and negative tourism memory groups. The finding suggests that recalling positive tourism memory produces a more positive mood in comparison with the recall of negative tourism memory (Rasmussen & Berntsen, 2009). Nawijn (2011) stated that the reason why individuals sustain positive affective states after a trip is that they may positively reminisce about tourism experiences.

Hypothesis 6 identified the differences between positive and negative tourism memory in determining behavioral intentions such as revisit intention (Kim et al., 2021), word-of-mouth (Tung & Ritchie, 2011), and desire to repeat the experience (Wirtz et al., 2003). Behavioral intentions were significantly higher in the positive tourism memory group (Prayag et al., 2013). This study found a strong effect of positive tourism memory on the desire to repeat the experience.

Hypothesis 7 further found that mood plays a mediating role in the relationship between positive tourism memory and behavioral intentions. Based on the above findings and discussion, we argue that mood states with an antecedent (i.e., tourism memory) (Wolf & Demiray, 2019) would determine a tourist's future behavior.

General discussion and conclusion

Theoretical implications

The key inquiry of psychology studies has focused on how to repair individuals' negative moods with positive memories, while tourism studies have paid attention to the impact of memory and related consequences such as emotion and behavioral intentions. This research bridges the two strands of research and therefore enriches both fields of studies.

First, this research is the first to investigate the mood-repairing role of memories in tourism contexts. Finding a particular category of memory that can enhance individuals' moods is important for both happy and unhappy individuals. As the associative network theory (Bower, 1981) suggested, individuals in positive moods recalled positive memories, but mood-incongruent recall was also observed during the negative mood state. In general, the memory of tourism experiences plays a critical role in repairing negative moods unless individuals effortfully focus on the negative part of memories. Thus, the likelihood of recalling positive memories is higher when individuals remember tourism experiences in their daily lives. Also, mood-repair motivation has been stressed in mood and memory studies. However, only a few memory studies have tested it in the context of mood-(in)congruent recall (Arnold & Reynolds, 2009). This research suggests that negative mood states facilitate the motivated recall of positive memories to improve moods.

Second, despite many tourism experience and memory studies, memory types and memory characteristics have not been sufficiently explored in tourism literature (Kim et al., 2021). Positive memories have been the dominant focus in the majority of these studies, whereas the antecedents of negative memories have only recently been explored (Kim, 2022). This research extended tourism memory research by examining negative tourism memory and its characteristics. It suggested that the positive tourism memory has greater memory characteristics during the recall of tourism experiences and that both positive and negative tourism memories evoke strong emotions. However, the negative tourism memory is still vividly remembered and shared. Therefore, our research can provide further insight into the role of tourism memory, offer empirical evidence to the literature, and reveal why tourism memory research needs to adopt more diverse approaches.

Third, this research extended knowledge of behavioral intentions. Past research focused on revisit intention in predicting tourists' behavior. This approach can explain whether individuals will return to the same place(s) and share their memory. Upon the recall of tourism memory, individuals can also access specific autobiographical knowledge, thus enabling them to predict tourists' future behavior at a general (i.e., revisit intention; Kim et al., 2021) and specific level (i.e., desire to repeat the experience; Wirtz et al., 2003). We found that recall of positive tourism memories leads to the desire to repeat the same trip. This finding reveals the significance of a comprehensive investigation into different levels of behavioral intentions.

Finally, this research bridges a gap in cognitive-affective-behavioral links in the customer decision-making process. Kim and Chen (2019) denoted that tourism autobiographical memories can be used for various purposes, such as re-experiencing a good mood, choosing future destinations, and sharing travel experiences. However, the link between memory, mood, and behavioral intentions has been rarely explored simultaneously due to the nature of the mood. As analyzed data suggested, the gap is addressed by revealing that when individuals were stimulated to recall tourism experiences, memories successfully led to the intended mood and behavioral intentions. Therefore, the current research contributes to the comprehension of how mood can be traced back to its causes such as the recall of tourism experience (Gnoth et al., 2000; Kim & Chen, 2019; Wolf & Demiray, 2019), which further leads to the development of the desire to return to the same place(s), repeat the same trip, and spread word-of-mouth.

Managerial implications

Maximizing the attractiveness of tourism destination experiences is an ongoing goal of tourism organizations seeking to obtain competitive advantages. Tourism organizations strive to provide customers with memorable experiences. Under current circumstances, the present research offers opportunities for tourism organizations and marketers to use memories of customer experiences that generate positive moods and motivate them to return to destinations. Based on our findings, tourism organizations can identify more diverse and impactful mechanisms to investigate customer memories of tourism products (e.g., guided tours), and interact more effectively with customers (Mainolfi et al., 2021). Therefore, we suggest three managerial implications and corresponding actionable recommendations.

First, given the importance of tourism memories, we recommend that organizations improve their customer feedback surveys and collect more useful data to inform and improve the management of the customer experience. In particular, they can add tourism memory questions (i.e., memory recall task; three items of memory valence) to their surveys. This would provide preliminary information about customer experience recall. In this research, mediating effects of mood on the relationship between tourism memory valence and behavioral intentions were confirmed among individuals who were encouraged to access positive autobiographical episodes. Thus, it is recommended that tourism organizations focus on the positive tourism memories that are collected from their customers. For the memory recall task and the memory valence scale, the terms *tourism experience* and *this trip* should be modified to incorporate the company's products. Such an approach would go beyond existing product evaluation methods by broadly identifying the experiences that customers were expecting pre-trip and the ones they recalled after the trip and tracking the ways these changed over time through the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data collected through longitudinal customer feedback surveys.

Second, tourism managers might visualize positive memories by using data from customer feedback surveys. In this research, the participants recalled general and specific details of tourism memories. This suggests that tourism organizations could develop tourism products and appealing advertising materials based on the general semantic and episodic elements of memories. An understanding of negative memory characteristics would be useful in avoiding the production of undesirable materials and managing service failures. Thus, the positive and negative elements of customer memories should be considered when designing experiences. We suggest that tourism managers design tourism experiences and related marketing materials based on collectively retrieved positive episodes and carefully examine negative memories to prevent potential travel constraints.

Above all, tourism marketers should make a timely decision to deliver memory-evoking information to customers. The exposure to cues related to a tourism trip such as any tourism experience (Study 1) and positive/good tourism experience (Study

2) induced positive moods that lead to the desire to return to the same place(s), take the same trip, and to spread positive word-of-mouth. Therefore, we argue that mood management can be fundamental in predicting both individuals' daily activities and travel activities. It should be noted that not all customers plan trips because the mood-inducing information has been delivered to them successfully. Therefore, tourism marketers should use diverse communication strategies. For example, the stimulation of memory can increase customers' mood and word-of-mouth intentions during the off-peak season. To attract tourists to destinations, marketers should distribute memory-evoking materials to potential visitors during holiday periods. We recommend that the same marketing material should be sent out at least twice; this will help customers rehearse their memories for mood enhancement, social interaction, and decision-making.

Limitations and avenues for future research

Despite the theoretical and practical benefits of this research, the present research has some limitations. These could be addressed in future research. First, this research does not explain how long the effect of tourism memory lasts. The long-term effects of tourism memory in the context of well-being could be tested using additional variables; for example, future researchers could investigate eudaimonic experiences in tourism memory and their relationship with affective and cognitive well-being. Content analysis would help to confirm the types and content of memories. Finally, this research focused on general memory valence, which limits the investigation of actual behavior (e.g., visits to destinations). Future research should further investigate the accuracy and quantity of memories and the relationship between the memory characteristics of each event and behavior.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Youngsoo Kim: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Data curation, Data analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing. **Manuel Alector Ribeiro:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing. **Gang Li:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

Declaration of competing interest

None.

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