

TWO ESSAYS ON THE ROLE OF CONSUMER ANIMOSITY ON CONSUMER
BEHAVIORS

by

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in the Department of Marketing
in the Graduate School of
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2020

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ABSTRACT

Damaging effects of hostility between nations is causing worldwide tension. In the marketing literature, Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) were the first to relate tension between countries to consumer consumption behaviors and were the first to establish the animosity model of the repulsion of foreign product purchase. They defined consumer animosity as “anger related to previous or ongoing political, military, economic, or diplomatic events” (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998, p. 90). Furthermore, the effects of animosity are becoming more prevalent as consumers increasingly act on their anger, with the rise in anti-globalization and the emergence of social media (McGregor, 2018). Thus, it is important for both researchers and brand managers to examine potential ways that could mitigate the negative effect of consumer animosity.

This dissertation consists of two essays. *Essay 1* is a review of the consumer animosity literature, which is based on a meta-analysis of past studies and some subsequent experimental studies. The meta-analysis summarized 37 studies of consumer animosity covering from 1998 to 2018. Subsequently, to prove evidence of causation, we conduct a series of experiments to test the boundary conditions by priming cultural values at the individual level. Hereby, we reconcile controversial findings from the consumer animosity literature and suggest that the effect of animosity varies across cultures.

Essay 2 uses the insights gained from *Essay 1* regarding the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy. Further, it demonstrated the importance of consumers’ coping strategies while dealing with negative emotions toward the offending

country. Specifically, this essay conceptualizes a model in which negative emotions interact with emotional venting to affect individuals' behaviors. Three studies provided strong evidence that emotional venting can significantly mitigate the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy and donation decisions.

Taken together, the dissertation provided a comprehensive literature review of consumer animosity, addressed the inconsistent results in this literature, and demonstrated the importance of cultural values in influencing the consumer animosity - willingness to buy relationship, and the role of emotional venting in shaping angry consumers' behaviors. Finally, suggestions for future research and applications are provided.

DEDICATION

To Teng and my family.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

| | |
|----------|----------------------|
| α | Cronbach's Alpha |
| b | Coefficient Beta |
| CI | Confidence Interval |
| DV | Dependent Variable |
| F | F-Statistic |
| IV | Independent Variable |
| N | Sample Size |
| M | Mean |
| % | Percentage Sign |
| p | p-Value |
| SD | Standard Deviation |
| SE | Standard Error |
| t | T-statistic |

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Dr. Stanford Westjohn, without whom I would not have been able to complete my Ph.D. Dr. Westjohn had a significant impact on my research, and his knowledge of international marketing research steered me through my dissertation. I appreciate his consistent guidance and encouragement throughout my Ph.D and I am thankful for his support during the past four years of study.

Second, I would like to thank the rest of the committee members for their help and guidance. Dr. Magnusson has always been supportive and encouraging in my dissertation, as well as many other projects. I would like to thank Dr. Sirianni and Dr. Forkmann for constructive comments and feedback. Also, many thanks to Dr. Kim for his great suggestions for methodologies.

Third, I would like to thank Dr. Baker for offering me the opportunity to study at UA. Also, thank Susy and Hyeyoon and other doctoral students who have supported me. We had a great and memorable time learning from each other and helping each other during the years in the Ph.D. program.

I want to thank my parents, who are kind, hardworking and brave, and set good examples for me. My father used to educate me that search for knowledge and read more without paying attention to your needs. My mother always says that whatever is worth doing is worth doing well. I'm thankful for my parents' support and love.

Last and never least, my special thank to my husband, Teng. You are the wisest and most broad-minded person I know. I wouldn't have finished my Ph.D. without your support and understanding. You are the best husband ever.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Chapter I serves as the introduction to the dissertation. It provides an overview of the two essays as well as the relationship between them. It concludes with a discussion of how the dissertation is organized.

Introduction of the Dissertation

When it comes to the hostility toward a foreign country, the marketing literature has introduced consumer animosity as concepts that contain psychological or emotional and behavioral reactions to a specific country (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998, Nijssen & Douglas, 2004). It is due to previous or ongoing political, military, economic, or diplomatic events (Klein, 2002: 346) and has been suggested to influence consumers' willingness to buy the products from the offending country (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Given that consumer animosity has a negative impact on willingness to buy products from the hostile country, it heightened the risk of brands falling victim to negative consequences due to their country association. Thus, it is important to examine potential mitigation effects between consumer animosity and relevant consumer behaviors.

This dissertation proposes that the negative effect of consumer animosity could be affected by cultural values that are inherent in consumers and coping strategies adopted by consumers when dealing with anger. First, cultural values have been found to be important determinants of consumer behaviors (Schwartz, 2007) and to moderate the effect of emotions

on cognitive judgments (Schoefer, 2010). Thus, we propose that the effect of consumer animosity may be mitigated or magnified, depending upon the individuals' cultural orientations. Second, how consumers cope with negative emotions is important for brand managers because coping may interact with negative emotions to influence consumers' behaviors. In addition, researchers in psychology found that emotional venting (a specific coping strategy) could reduce the impact of anger on behaviors. Emotional venting was defined as the tendency to ventilate negative feelings to alter the situation (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). With emotional venting, people express negative emotions and let their anger out, leading to a reduction in aggression. Thus, this dissertation focuses on the effect of emotional venting (a specific coping strategy) that consumers use in the angry experiences on relevant behaviors.

Furthermore, the existing literature provides us extensive research on consumer animosity. However, the literature is inconsistent as to the relationship between consumer animosity and product judgment. Specifically, the empirical animosity study conducted by Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) suggested that animosity had a negative influence on willingness to buy, but not the quality of the products produced in the target country. A number of subsequent studies support this hypothesis (e.g., Funk, Arthurs, Trevino, & Joireman, 2010, Klein, 2002, Maher & Mady, 2010). However, other studies have found that animosity is related to both behavior and product judgments (Ettenson & Klein, 2005, Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau, & Pornpitakpan, 2008), refuting the original animosity model. Therefore, this dissertation starts with a meta-analysis of consumer animosity to address the discrepancy implications in the literature. Furthermore, in retrospect, most animosity studies have focused on single country consumer samples. However, consumer animosity hinges on

the perspective of animosity toward nations, and a comprehensive study based on a sufficiently large number of countries does not yet exist. This dissertation could provide important insights with regard to the roles of cultural values in influencing the effect of consumer animosity.

Overview of the Essays

As apparent in the introduction, a central and unifying component of this dissertation is to examine the effect of consumer animosity on relevant behaviors and potential boundary conditions on animosity effect. *Essay 1* is a mixed-method study and aims to address two research questions. First, the magnitude of the effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy to the effect on product judgment. The pioneering study by Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) found that animosity toward the target country can be influential on foreign product purchases, but not quality judgments of products produced in that country. However, the animosity literature is quite vague about the relationship between consumer animosity and product judgments. To address this research question, we conduct a meta-analysis of the consumer animosity literature.

Second, we assess whether the effect of animosity varies across cultures. Most of the primary studies have focused only on a single country setting (e.g., Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998, Shoham, Davidow, Klein, & Ruvio, 2006). The lack of cross-culture comparisons leaves us an inadequate theoretical framework. While previous research has agreed that animosity is a powerful predictor of willingness to buy, this effect may be country-specific and may differ across countries. We address this research question by conducting several experiments to examine the moderating roles of cultural values between consumer animosity and willingness to buy. Besides, a meta-analysis does not establish convincing evidence of causation. A series of

experiments would help rule out alternative explanations and improve the robustness of the findings.

Essay 2 aims to examine a specific coping strategy used by consumers when they confront negative emotions. It is well established that consumer animosity affects consumers' buying behaviors (e.g., Klein, 2002, Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). The negative emotion that consumers possess can have adverse effects on their willingness to buy the products produced from the disliked country and thus can lead to the failure of the brands from that country. However, as far as I know, Westjohn, Magnusson, Peng, and Jung (forthcoming) and Leonidou, Kvasova, Christodoulides, and Tokar (2019) are among the few research that have investigated the boundary conditions of the animosity effect. To enrich the animosity literature, I examined the role of emotional venting on mitigating the negative effect of consumer animosity on consumer behaviors.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized as follows: Chapter I provides an introduction to the topic areas, an overview of the three essays, and a broad statement summarizing the plans for conducting each study, a statement of the relationship between the essays, and the overall contribution to the fields of study. Chapter II presents *Essay 1*. We begin with a conceptual background of consumer animosity. We then discuss the process to develop the database for the meta-analysis. From the database, we get the quantitative relationships that involve consumer animosity. Then we conduct a comprehensive examination that includes culture value differences moderate the consumer animosity-product judgment and willingness to buy relationship. Then we proceed with several experiments to prove causality. Chapter III presents *Essay 2*, which investigates the moderating role of emotional venting between consumer animosity and

consumer behaviors. In particular, I hypothesize a specific coping strategy that consumers use to cope with negative emotions, which is emotional venting. Angry consumers who vent their negative emotions are more likely to discharge the negative emotion and act less aggressively.

For each of the two essays, we provide a review of the relevant literature streams from which the hypotheses evolve, followed by the presentation of methods, results, discussion, and theoretical and practical contributions. Chapter IV summarizes the results as well as gives conclusions.

CHAPTER II

ESSAY 1: ACTING ON ANGER: CULTURAL VALUE MODERATORS OF THE EFFECTS OF CONSUMER ANIMOSITY¹

ABSTRACT

The recent rise in protectionism and demonization of foreign countries has increased the risk of brands falling victim to the negative effects of consumer animosity, or strong negative affect directed at a foreign country. We investigate the role of cultural values as moderating the relationship between consumer animosity and willingness to buy. The combined results of a meta-analysis and five experiments in the US and China offer strong evidence that collectivism and long-term orientation mitigate the negative effects of consumer animosity, and support the contention that animosity's effect on willingness to buy is much stronger than on product judgments.

Keywords: consumer animosity, willingness to buy, cultural values, meta-analysis

¹ *Essay 1* is a pre-peer-review version of an article accepted for publication in the Journal of International Business Studies. The definitive publisher-authenticated version is: Westjohn, S.A., Magnusson, P., Peng, Y., Jung, H. Acting on anger: Cultural value moderators of the effects of consumer animosity. *Journal of International Business Studies* (forthcoming). <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-019-00289-7>

Consumer animosity, defined as “anger related to previous or ongoing political, military, economic, or diplomatic events” (Klein, 2002: 346), has become an important international consumer behavior concept. The effects of animosity are becoming more prevalent as consumers increasingly act on their anger and become activist consumers (McGregor, 2018), and as the ability of activist consumers to affect change has been enhanced with the emergence of technological tools, e.g. social media, online communities, and review sites (Miller, 2016). Accompanying these social and technological developments, the disruptive forces of globalization have spurred a rise in protectionist sentiment and populism targeting foreign countries as the source of domestic problems (Ghemawat, 2017, Rodrik, 2018). Thus, the increased willingness of consumers to use action as a coping mechanism to deal with animosity, in combination with increased demonization of foreign countries has heightened the risk of brands falling victim to negative consequences due to their country association.

The seminal animosity study examined Chinese consumers’ animosity toward Japan (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Since then, researchers have explored the effect of animosity in a variety of countries with different targets of animosity, e.g., Australian animosity toward France (Ettenson & Klein, 2005), American animosity toward Russia (Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015), and Dutch animosity toward Germany (Nijssen & Douglas, 2004). The extant literature has made important discoveries to help us better understand consumer activism when consumers harbor animosity toward another country; however, several important research gaps remain unaddressed.

First, the primary theoretical contribution from the Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) animosity model of foreign product purchase is that animosity affects consumers’ behaviors (i.e. product ownership and purchase intentions), but not product judgments (i.e. perceptions of

quality). A number of subsequent studies support this hypothesis (e.g. Funk, Arthurs, Trevino, & Joireman, 2010, Klein, 2002, Maher & Mady, 2010). However, other studies have found that animosity is related to both behavior and product judgments (Ettenson & Klein, 2005, Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau, & Pornpitakpan, 2008), refuting the original animosity model. Thus, mixed empirical evidence casts doubt on the original model and subsequent examinations have not been able to provide conclusive evidence about animosity's effect on willingness to buy relative to that on product judgments.

This discrepancy has implications for strategic responses to situations involving consumer animosity. If the effect on behavior is much greater than the effect on product judgments, there is perhaps little that can be done to counteract the effects of animosity. It is possible that given consumers' poor knowledge calibration of brand origins (Samiee, Shimp, & Sharma, 2005), consumers may misattribute the brand to an incorrect country, thereby offering a reprieve of the negative effects of animosity. However, this scenario relies on either chance or a pre-animosity intentional strategy to prevent any country association altogether. On the other hand, if the effect on behavior and product judgments are relatively similar, firms could employ strategies to bolster the cognitive evaluations of their brands as part of an overall effort to counteract the negative effects of animosity on willingness to buy. There has been no conclusive evidence to indicate the degree to which animosity affects willingness to buy relative to product judgments. This study aims to address this gap.

A second, and in our view more important, research gap is the lack of cross-cultural comparisons with respect to the effect of animosity on willingness to buy and product judgments. The implicit assumption in the extant research that the effect of animosity is unchanged from one cultural context to another is dubious. A review of the literature reveals that consumers in many

different countries experience consumer animosity. However, most studies have focused only on a single country precluding cross-cultural comparisons (e.g., Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998, Shoham, Davidow, Klein, & Ruvio, 2006), and the few multi-country studies (e.g., Abraham & Reitman, 2018, Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015, Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau, & Pornpitakpan, 2008) focused on other issues leaving the question of cross-cultural differences unaddressed. We address this gap by examining whether cultural values moderate the animosity-willingness to buy relationship.

Cultural values regulate emotion-based responses, so that an individual's response is consistent with those values (Ho & Fung, 2011, Smith, 2017). For example, culture shapes and influences the outward expression of emotion, encouraging the expression of socially engaging emotions in individualist cultures (Kitayama, Mesquita, & Karasawa, 2006), and discouraging the expression of negative emotions in collectivist cultures (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007). Further, values have a propensity to predict preferences and attitudes (Olson & Zanna, 1993) and an ability to affect behavior (Feather, 1990); indeed, cultural values are an underlying influence in shaping behavior of individuals (Hofstede, 2001). Thus, the influence of values on attitudes and behavior, along with their role in regulating emotion-based responses, suggests that cultural values likely influence the effects of consumer animosity.

The animosity literature's lack of accounting for cross-cultural differences is relevant because of its implications for a company's strategic response in markets where consumers hold animosity toward the brand's home country. The effect of animosity may be magnified or muted, depending upon the country's dominant cultural values. Thus, a company's strategy in terms of resource allocation to address the animosity would be commensurate with the degree of its anticipated negative effects. In sum, given the lack of cross-cultural examinations and the

importance of cultural values in international business, clarifying the role of cultural values is an important gap to fill.

Thus, this study aims to address two important research questions, 1) the magnitude of the effect of animosity on willingness to buy relative to the effect on product judgments, and 2) how cultural values influence the negative effects of animosity. To accomplish this objective, we employ a multi-method approach. First, we conduct a meta-analysis of the consumer animosity literature. Meta-analysis is a valuable technique for integrating and expanding the base of knowledge on research topics (Kirca, Hult, Roth, Cavusgil, Perry, Akdeniz, Deligonul, Mena, Pollitte, Hoppner, Miller, & White, 2011). It is well suited for resolving theoretical disputes in a more definitive way than any single study because of its ability to synthesize empirical research over a variety of studies (Schmidt & Hunter, 2015). Second, following the meta-analysis, we employ a number of experiments, drawing on samples from both the US and China. Experiments are well suited for offering evidence of causation, and their use in international business research has been encouraged (Zellmer-Bruhn, Caligiuri, & Thomas, 2016). Each method contributes complementary insights into both research questions, thus the analytical approach is robust and rigorous.

We proceed by offering background on the consumer animosity literature. This serves as the foundation for our hypothesis on the effect of animosity on willingness to buy relative to product judgments and how cultural values influence the animosity-willingness to buy relationship. Afterwards, we describe the method and results of the Study 1 meta-analysis, followed by five experiments. Finally, we discuss the results and provide managerial and theoretical implications.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Consumer Animosity Consequences

Consumer animosity refers to consumers' strong feelings of dislike or even hatred toward a country due to its political, military, or economic behavior (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Thus, at its core, consumer animosity is a strong negative affect directed at a particular country (Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau, & Pornpitakpan, 2008). Most commonly, a history of war or economic repression has been the antecedents driving consumer animosity, but some studies have focused on different drivers (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). For example, feelings of animosity can be based on religious differences (Shoham, Davidow, Klein, & Ruvio, 2006), or concerns about a country's social and environmental practices (García-de-Frutos & Ortega-Egea, 2015).

The main consequence of consumer animosity is its negative effect on willingness to buy (Klein, 2002). For example, after the US implemented tariffs against a significant range of Chinese products in 2018, the microblogging site Weibo featured comments such as "do your duty...don't buy US products" (Kubota, Deng, & Li, 2018). A remaining question is whether animosity will have the same negative effect on product judgments. In the initial conceptualization of the animosity model, it was argued that animosity affects behavior (i.e. ownership and purchase intentions) without affecting product judgment. According to Ettenson and Klein (2005: 203), "consumers withhold consumption of products or brands [from a given country] not because of concerns about quality or value, but because these goods are associated with actions that the consumer finds objectionable." Angry consumers "do not distort or denigrate images of a target country's products, they simply refuse to buy them" (Klein, 2002:

347). For example, a Chinese consumer may acknowledge the high quality of Japanese brands, yet due to animosity arising from their historically turbulent relationship refuse to buy them.

The contrasting effect on behavior versus product judgments advanced by the animosity model is an important theoretical distinction from traditional behavioral frameworks, where attitudes are viewed as a central precursor to behaviors (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Yet, not all researchers have agreed with this perspective and several studies have indeed found a negative relationship between animosity and both willingness to buy and product judgments (Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau, & Pornpitakpan, 2008, Shoham, Davidow, Klein, & Ruvio, 2006, Tian & Pasadeos, 2012), which makes this question theoretically meaningful and important to address.

Theoretically, the link between consumer emotions (i.e. anger toward a country) and behaviors (i.e. boycott of products from that country) can be explained by a family of related social psychology theories, which all emphasize the desire for congruity between emotions and behaviors (Festinger, 1957, Heider, 1946, Lazarus, 1991, Tajfel, 1982). In short, when people experience negative emotions in response to a situation, there is a need for a coping behavior, or an effort to alleviate distress caused by the negative emotion. In the context of the animosity model, consumer purchase (or boycott) behavior is a coping mechanism to create balance between the consumer's emotional state and his or her actions (Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015).

However, the type of coping mechanism tends to differ based on the type of negative affect (Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994). Anger is an outward, "fight"-focused emotion that prompts the desire to punish the offending country, leading to lower purchase intentions. However, anger is more visceral than cognitive, and cognition would be necessary to revise product judgments. Angry individuals tend to act instinctively and focus on getting revenge

(Mitchell, Brown, Morris-Villagran, & Villagran, 2001). In contrast, other negative emotions, such as fear and sadness, are related to more in-depth thoughts. Such negative emotions tend to be associated with “flight.” Further, fighting back is not viewed as a viable option, and therefore, to cope, people are more likely to revise and downgrade cognitive thoughts about the offending entity, leading to negative product judgments (Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2009).

Animosity generally refers to anger and most animosity measurements include at least one item directly referring to anger (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). However, it is likely that some studies implicitly capture other negative emotions, e.g., anxiety and insecurity (Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau, & Pornpitakpan, 2008), which may lead to differential effects on willingness to buy and product judgments. For example, Harmeling, Magnusson, and Singh (2015: 681) found that when animosity feelings are dominated by anger, angry consumers “tend to act instinctively and focus their anger on taking measures to exact revenge.” In contrast, when the animosity feelings are dominated by fear, consumers are more likely to employ systematic, mindful deliberation about the threatening stimuli, suggesting that fear-based animosity is significantly related to product judgments. Given that the conceptual definitions and operationalization of animosity has been dominated by anger, we posit that there will be a much stronger effect of animosity on willingness to buy than on product judgments.

H1: Consumer animosity will have a stronger negative effect on willingness to buy than on product judgments.

Cultural Values

We suggest that the implicit assumption that the effect of animosity is invariant across cultures is flawed, and that there are conditional effects of consumer animosity based on the cultural values of the evaluator. Culture is the pattern of thinking, feeling, and acting, or software

of the mind, the core of which is formed from values. These cultural values are “broad tendencies to prefer certain states of affairs over others” (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) and cultural values are inextricably linked to affect that can motivate behavior (Schwartz, 2007). Cultural values have also been found to moderate the influence of emotions on evaluative judgments (Schoefer, 2010). Thus, it is logical to expect some interaction between emotion, i.e. anger/animosity and cultural values with respect to the consumer animosity-willingness to buy relationship.

We view cultural values through the theoretical lens of the Hofstede (2001) cultural framework because it has been the most influential framework used in international marketing research (Steenkamp, 2019) and demonstrates strong convergent validity compared to alternatives (Magnusson, Wilson, Zdravkovic, Zhou, & Westjohn, 2008). Following best practices we focus only on the values most theoretically related to the outcome of interest (e.g., Griffith & Rubera, 2014, Tung & Verbeke, 2010), and develop a priori hypotheses for three cultural value dimensions: collectivism, long-term orientation, and power distance.

Investigating the role of cultural values at the societal level with a meta-analysis (Study 1) establishes correlational evidence. However, as Oyserman and Lee (2008) assert, to provide stronger evidence of the causal effect, priming cultural values at the individual level is necessary, since manipulating cultural values at the societal level is not possible. Although the Hofstede cultural dimensions have been conceptualized as societal, or country-level constructs (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), there is strong evidence of the structural similarity of values at the individual and country levels (Fischer, Vauclair, Fontaine, & Schwartz, 2010). Moreover, the corresponding constructs manifest at the individual level can be primed and made temporarily accessible (Leung & Morris, 2015, Oyserman & Lee, 2008).

For example, research has shown that people in high power distance societies generally have higher individual-level power distance orientation (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012, Winterich & Zhang, 2014) and that the value can be made temporarily salient through priming. Similar findings have been established for the individualism dimension, generally labeled independent versus interdependent self-construal at the individual level (Markus & Kitayama, 1991, Oyserman & Lee, 2008) and for long-term orientation (Bearden, Money, & Nevins, 2006). Thus, we expect converging and robust evidence about the moderating effects of cultural values at both the societal level (examined in the meta-analysis – Study 1) and when made temporarily accessible through priming at the individual level (examined in the experimental studies – Studies 2, 3 and 4).

Individualism-Collectivism

The individualism-collectivism cultural value dimension refers to whose interests should prevail, the interests of the individual or the interests of the group. In individualist societies, ties between individuals are relatively loose with the expectation that individuals should care for themselves and their immediate family. On the other hand, in collectivist societies, ties between individuals are very strong, based on group membership determined from birth (Hofstede, 2001).

There is reason to suggest that individualism strengthens the relationship between animosity and willingness to buy. First, Kitayama, Mesquita, and Karasawa (2006) found that highly individualist cultures, such as the United States, foster emotions such as pride and anger, which stands in contrast to collectivist cultures, such as Japan, which fosters more positive emotions. This is logical, as those with an independent self-construal strive to assert their individualism and uniqueness, and stress their separateness from the social world (Heine & Lehman, 1995). Notably, this includes an emphasis on speaking one's mind and acting on one's

feelings (Hofstede, 2001), accompanied by a low aversion to confrontation. Not surprisingly, customer complaints, a type of consumer action, are more common in individualist compared to collectivist cultures (Liu & McClure, 2001).

In contrast, key attributes of an interdependent worldview involve the role of harmony and confrontation avoidance. Maintaining harmony is important in collectivist cultures, motivating collectivists to avoid confrontations; whereas the individualist tendency to speak one's mind is more likely to invite confrontation (Hofstede, 2001). Given that consumer animosity reflects a relationship in dis-harmony and indicates a confrontational state of affairs, collectivist cultures are more likely to suppress such confrontational responses, and show a preference for expressing more positive socially engaging emotions (Kitayama, Mesquita, & Karasawa, 2006), which would mitigate the effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy.

Further, in a collectivist society, people are more likely to forgive brand transgressions (Sinha & Lu, 2016), due to their tendency to suppress emotion-based responses (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007). When faced with a transgression, individualists perceive injustice or unfairness that needs to be remedied; whereas collectivists perceive a threat to social harmony that calls for forgiveness (Ho & Fung, 2011). This inclination toward forgiveness indicates that a country's transgressions are more likely to be forgiven by those with a collectivist mindset.

H2a: The negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy is weakened under conditions of collectivism (versus individualism).

Competing hypothesis. Although there is theoretical justification for the preceding hypothesis, one may put forward an equally strong alternative explanation. An interdependent worldview makes a strong distinction between the in-group and out-groups. Whereas the interdependent self is attuned to the concerns of others, oftentimes, such concerns are limited to

“when there is a reasonable assurance of the ‘good-intentions’ of others, namely their commitment to continue to engage in reciprocal interaction and mutual support” (Markus & Kitayama, 1991: 229). An offending country, subject to animosity feelings, is not a member of the in-group and has not proven a reasonable assurance of good intentions. As such, the concern for harmony with others that is typical of an interdependent worldview may not be salient when dealing with an offending country considered part of an out-group. Further, belongingness needs are very strong for individuals who are more interdependent (White, Argo, & Sengupta, 2012). Fractious relations with another country may be perceived as a social identity threat that activates the need to reinforce belongingness to one’s own national group, and manifest itself with the preference against brands from the offending country.

Further, from a thinking styles perspective, individualism and collectivism are associated with opposite modes, analytic and holistic thinking respectively. Individualists tend to engage in analytical thinking which hinges on the “detachment of the object from its context,” and therefore exclude contextual information such as animosity. On the other hand, collectivists tend to engage in holistic thought processes viewing objects and events as “an orientation to the context or field as a whole” (Krishna, Zhou, & Zhang, 2008), and are more likely to be affected by the situational context (Choi, Dalal, Kim-Prieto, & Park, 2003).

Thus, based on the in-group out-group distinction, and analytical versus holistic thinking arguments, it also seems reasonable to expect that consumers from collectivist cultures would exhibit a stronger association between their animosity and willingness to buy. Accordingly, we advance the following competing hypothesis.

H2b: The negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy is strengthened under conditions of collectivism (versus individualism).

Long-Term Orientation

Long-term orientation, originally referred to as Confucian dynamism, was introduced by Hofstede and Bond (1988) and added to Hofstede's (1980) four original cultural dimensions. It is defined as the extent to which a society exhibits a pragmatic future-oriented perspective fostering virtues like perseverance and thrift, rather than a conventional short-term point of view (Hofstede, 2001). It has also been called the difference between focusing on the "here and now" versus a holistic view of the future and the past (Bearden, Money, & Nevins, 2006).

Key characteristics of the long- versus short-term orientation value suggest that it may play a moderating role in the animosity-willingness to buy relationship. First, long-term oriented cultures regard emotions as dangerous and threatening to long-term relationships, thus high long-term orientation encourages muted or softened responses in order to preserve positive relations for the long-term future (Matsumoto, Yoo, & Nakagawa, 2008). This long-term perspective of relationships suggests a lower likelihood of changing behavior toward brands from an offending country. Qualitative results support this perspective and indicate that long-term orientation explains why Chinese more so than Americans tend to avoid direct conflict, insofar as direct conflict hurts the long-term relationship (Friedman, Chi, & Liu, 2006).

Second, short-term-oriented societies tend to have a strong need for cognitive consistency between attitudes and actions; whereas long-term-oriented societies have a weaker need (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). This difference would influence a consumer's response to animosity feelings. The need for cognitive consistency, typical of short-term orientation, suggests a strong need to align attitudes and actions, for example avoiding the purchase of products associated with a country that one dislikes. Contrastingly, long-term-oriented societies find that holding contradictory attitudes are less problematic (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov,

2010), implying that maintaining intentions to buy from a country despite anger directed at that country, is more acceptable. Thus, the strong need for cognitive consistency in short-term oriented cultures suggests a strong relationship between animosity and purchase intentions. However, long-term orientation favors a pragmatic view where what works is more important than being consistent (Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). As a result, the coexistence of consumer animosity toward a country along with a seemingly inconsistent willingness to buy products from that country may simply be practical and pragmatic. In sum, based on differences in terms of focus on a more holistic view to time and relationships, as well as the weaker need for cognitive consistency, the effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy should be relatively weaker in long-term oriented societies.

H3: The negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy is weakened under conditions of long- (versus short-) term orientation.

Power Distance

Power distance captures the extent to which a society accepts inequality in power, wealth, and prestige (Hofstede, 1980). Central to this concept is that power distance does not refer to the actual power disparity a person experiences or the amount of power a person has, but rather to attitudes toward power disparity (Oyserman, 2006). Power distance is typically referred to as power distance belief or power distance orientation when discussed at the individual level (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012, Winterich & Zhang, 2014). Whereas there is variance within any given society, in high (low) power distance societies, people tend to have higher (lower) power distance beliefs (Earley, 1999, Zhang, Winterich, & Mittal, 2010).

We posit that consumers' power distance beliefs may influence how strongly they respond to feelings of animosity. High power distance societies tend to discourage assertiveness

and encourage emotion regulation. They emphasize social order and restraint of actions that might disrupt that order; thus, suppression of emotion-based responses may be necessary (Matsumoto, Yoo, & Nakagawa, 2008). The emphasis on obedience and respect carries into organizational behavior. For example, people with high power distance beliefs are less likely to react negatively to injustices from superiors (Lee, Pillutla, & Law, 2000), less concerned about not having a voice in organizational decision making (Brockner, Paruchuri, Idson, & Higgins, 2002), and more accepting of an insult delivered by a superior to a subordinate (Bond, Wan, Leung, & Giacalone, 1985).

In contrast, low power distance is associated with characteristics such as equality and initiative (Hofstede, 1980). For example, visits to the doctor are expected to be consultative, superiors are expected to consult with subordinates, and learning emphasizes two-way communication between teacher and students (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Accordingly, people with low power distance beliefs are less likely to defer to authority and more likely to actively challenge perceived injustices (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009).

Logically, this should extend to perceived injustices involving countries. Animosity feelings derive from injustices where a (typically superior) country has caused feelings of injustice due to its military or economic power. People with high power distance beliefs are accustomed to behaving in a subservient manner, and active resistance or dissent is not expected. Thus, despite perceived injustice, challenging the offender by taking action would be inconsistent with the cultural value of high power distance. In contrast, low power distance beliefs encourage voice and initiative, and a sense of fairness dictates that injustices be reconciled, which leads to the following hypothesis.

H4: The negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy is weakened under conditions of high- (versus low-) power distance.

STUDY 1 – META-ANALYSIS

Database Development

To ensure the representativeness and completeness of our database, we used a four-stage sampling procedure to identify studies to be included in the meta-analysis. In the first step, we systematically searched the ABI/INFORM and Business Source Ultimate databases for articles using the keywords “animosity” and “consumer animosity.” The results of our search indicated that Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) initiated the research stream on consumer animosity with respect to willingness to buy and product judgments; thus, the database of correlations we developed covers the period beginning in 1998 and ending in mid-2018. Second, we conducted an issue-by-issue search of the top international business and international marketing journals for the 20-year period. Third, we examined references of all papers identified as suitable in the previous two steps. Finally, for papers that appeared suitable but lacked critical pieces of information (i.e. correlations matrix), we emailed authors to request the data.

To be included in the meta-analysis, studies had to report on relationships involving one or more operationalizations of animosity and either willingness to buy or product judgment and only those studies that measured constructs at the consumer level were included so that results from research that had vastly divergent goals were not aggregated. Procedures recommended by Lipsey and Wilson (2001) were followed for the development of the final database. First, to reduce coding errors, we prepared a coding protocol specifying the information to be extracted

from each study. An initial draft of the coding protocol was revised on the basis of feedback from international marketing scholars and meta-analysis experts regarding the appropriateness of the coding scheme. Then, a coding form was prepared for coders who recorded the extracted data on the variables of interest, including correlation coefficients, study sample sizes, statistical artifacts (i.e., measure reliability statistics), and study characteristics. Two coders knowledgeable about the animosity literature coded each study. Initial agreement between the two coders exceeded 95%, suggesting that the reliability of the coding process was high (Perreault Jr & Leigh, 1989). Remaining discrepancies were resolved through discussion and consensus reached. Upon completion of the search and data coding process, we had collected results from 43 independent samples covering 18 countries and reported in 37 studies. The Web Appendix lists all studies included in the meta-analysis.

Data Analysis

The source of consumer animosity varies, and it has been assessed most often in the context of war and economic issues (e.g., Klein, 2002, Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998), but other contexts include political (Park & Yoon, 2017) or religious issues (Shoham, Davidow, Klein, & Ruvio, 2006). Regardless of the motivating source of animosity, they all drive the same underlying construct, consumer animosity, or the overall intense negative affect directed at a nation.

Measurement of consumer animosity has been as a first-order construct in most cases, and as a second-order construct in others. Ten (out of 43) studies used multiple first-order measurements (e.g., war and economic). In such cases, it is recommended to create a composite correlation from the first-order dimensions and enter only one correlation into the meta-analysis, as opposed to two or three from the same study, in order to avoid under-estimation of sampling

variance (Eisend, Hartmann, & Apaolaza, 2017, Schmidt & Hunter, 2015).

We then corrected the effects obtained from each study by dividing the correlation coefficient by the product of the square root of the reliabilities of the two constructs (Schmidt & Hunter, 2015). For studies that did not report reliabilities or used single-item measures, we used the mean reliability for the construct from the remaining studies for the reliability correction (e.g., Geyskens, Steenkamp, & Kumar, 1998). After the correction, we transformed the corrected correlations into Fisher's z-coefficients, and assigned weights by taking the inverse of the estimated within-study variance. Finally, we estimated the effect size using a random-effects model, converted the Fisher's z-coefficients back to correlation coefficients, and calculated 95% confidence intervals (Rosenthal, Cooper, & Hedges, 1994).

The meta-analysis focuses on the bivariate relationship between animosity and willingness to buy and product judgments; however, most animosity studies like Klein et al.'s (1998) seminal work include consumer ethnocentrism (CET), i.e. the belief that purchasing foreign products is inappropriate and immoral (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Thus, in order to provide an additional perspective on the effect of animosity, we conducted a meta-analytic path analysis that includes both animosity and CET as predictors of both product judgments and willingness to buy. We conducted the path analysis in AMOS using the correlations estimated by the meta-analysis as input and the harmonic mean sample size of 262 (e.g., Rubera & Kirca, 2012).

Finally, to determine whether the variation in effect size could be explained by moderator variables, we calculated heterogeneity tests. The animosity-willingness to buy relationship had a significant Q-statistic ($Q = 2,715.00, p < 0.001$), which suggests that moderator variables could be applied to explain the variation in effect sizes. Thus, we assessed whether effect sizes differed

based on Hofstede's cultural value framework. We analyzed the effect of values using both meta-regression and the analog to the ANOVA (subgroup analysis) with SPSS macros developed by Lipsey and Wilson (2001). We performed the analog to the ANOVA on groups reflecting the opposing poles for each cultural value dimension, e.g. collectivism group versus individualism group, long- versus short-term orientation groups. We consider the meta-regression as the primary analysis method since it is more precise and powerful than the subgroup analysis. However, we complement the meta-regression with subgroup analysis to ease interpretation of the results. Subgroups facilitate interpretation of the relationship by allowing easy comparison of correlations between animosity and willingness to buy for each set of opposing groups. Cultural value subgroups were created using median splits calculated from all countries available in the Hofstede database, then mean effect sizes were compared across the groups. Country members of each cultural value subgroup are listed in the Appendix.

Study 1 Results

Mean Effect Sizes. Estimated mean effect sizes for the two bivariate relationships of interest are reported in Table 2.1. The corrected mean correlation between animosity and willingness to buy is strong and negative, ($r = -0.63$), and the 95% confidence interval is entirely below zero (-0.70 to -0.54). The relationship between animosity and product judgment is considerably weaker ($r = -0.23$), although the confidence interval is also entirely below zero (-0.35 to -0.11). As evidence of support for H1, the confidence intervals for the two correlations do not overlap, and a test of the difference between them using the Fisher r-to-z transformation and the harmonic mean sample sizes confirm the significant difference ($r_{willtobuy} = -0.63$, $n = 262$; $r_{prodjudg} = -0.23$, $n = 264$; $z = -5.72$, $p < .001$). The significantly weaker association of animosity with product judgment is consistent with the theoretical argument that animosity primarily

influences intentions and behavior, with lesser influence on judgments and evaluations, providing the foundation for a reluctance to buy a product despite a positive product evaluation.

“Insert Table 2.1 about here”

Path Analysis. Whereas the simple bivariate correlation between animosity and willingness to buy is -0.63, Figure 2.1 depicts animosity’s effect when controlling for effects of CET and product judgments. When the additional variables are included in a model to more closely resemble the seminal animosity model (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998), animosity’s direct effect on willingness to buy is ($b = -0.41$, $t = -9.85$, $p < 0.001$). Further, the path analysis reveals that animosity is still significantly related to product judgments; however, that relationship is considerably weaker ($b = -0.15$, $t = -2.28$, $p = 0.02$). Product judgment’s effect on willingness to buy is significant ($b = 0.39$, $t = 10.15$, $p < 0.001$); thus, the indirect effect of animosity on willingness to buy is -0.06. When added to the direct effect of -0.41, the total effect of animosity on willingness to buy is -0.47.

“Insert Figure 2.1 about here”

Cultural Value Moderators. The combined results, presented in Table 2.2, from the meta-regression and subgroup analyses indicate strong evidence of significant group differences for two of the five cultural value dimensions, collectivism and long-term orientation, and weaker evidence for power distance. The meta-regression analysis indicates a significant moderating effect of collectivism on the animosity and willingness to buy relationship ($\beta = 0.46$, $p < 0.001$). Subgroup analysis reveals a mean correlation in the individualism group ($r = -0.75$) that was significantly stronger than the collectivism group ($r = -0.54$; $Q = 12.24$, $p < 0.001$), which supports H2a over the competing H2b. In support of H3, long-term orientation also significantly moderated the relationship ($\beta = 0.47$, $p < 0.001$). The long-term orientation group’s mean

correlation ($r = -0.54$) was significantly weaker than the short-term orientation group ($r = -0.73$; $Q = 8.94, p = 0.003$) in the subgroup analysis. Regression analysis reflects weak evidence of a moderating role for power distance ($\beta = 0.25, p = 0.09$) offering only limited support for H4. This relationship was not reflected in the subgroup analysis where the mean correlation for the high power distance group ($r = -0.60$) was nominally weaker, but not significantly different from the low power distance group ($r = -0.65; Q = 0.53, p = 0.47$).

Although we made no a priori hypothesis, we also assessed the effect of the two remaining cultural values. The regression analysis reports nonsignificant results for both masculinity ($\beta = -0.07, p = 0.66$) and uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = 0.04, p = 0.77$). Consistently, the subgroup analysis also revealed nonsignificant differences in correlations, $r_{\text{masculine}} = -0.67$ versus $r_{\text{feminine}} = -0.56, p = 0.12$, and $r_{\text{low uncertainty}} = -0.62$ versus $r_{\text{high uncertainty}} = -0.65, p = 0.73$.

Other Potential Moderators. In addition to cultural values, for robustness we investigated other potential moderator variables that could account for the variation in the animosity to willingness to buy relationship. Specifically, we examined the potential effect of economic development, institutional strength, and whether the measurement of willingness to buy included items that were product category specific, e.g. cars or televisions.

Differences in economic development and institutional strength may lay a foundation upon which animosity would be magnified to the extent that there is wealth inequality or a lack of formal institutional channels for redress. We assess the potential role of economic development by examining the effect of the sampled country's GDP on a purchasing power parity basis on the animosity to willingness to buy relationship. Results from the meta-regression analysis reveal that the effect of economic development as reflected by GDP of the sampled population is non-significant ($\beta = -0.005, p = 0.16$). We also examine whether the magnitude of

the difference, i.e. GDP of offending country minus GDP of sampled country, affects the relationship. Again, the results were nonsignificant ($\beta = 0.004, p = 0.13$). Finally, we examine whether institutional strength of the sampled country would have an effect, using data from the Global Competitiveness Index available from the World Economic Forum to reflect institutional strength. The meta-regression results indicate a relationship that approaches, yet does not reach the threshold for significance ($\beta = -0.01, p = 0.08$).

Regarding product category differences, only 12 studies introduce product category in the assessment of willingness to buy; many of which include only one or a couple items that are category specific (e.g. Klein, Ettenson & Morris 1998). Given that very few studies focus on any given category, a test on specific product category differences is not feasible. However, we compared the animosity-willingness to buy correlations based on whether the study used any product category specific items (12 studies) versus assessing only products in general from the offending country (31 studies). The result of the analysis indicated no significant difference between the mean correlations for studies using a product category specific measure ($r = -0.66$) versus those that did not ($r = -0.62; Q = 0.32, p = 0.57$).

“Insert Table 2.2 about here”

Study 1 Discussion

The meta-analysis offers evidence that the bivariate correlation between animosity and willingness to buy (-0.63) is approximately three times stronger than the correlation with product judgments (-0.23). The path analysis which controls for the effects of CET and product judgments likewise reveals that the effect on willingness to buy (-0.41) is nearly three times stronger than the effect on product judgments (-0.15). This finding provides a valuable contribution to the animosity literature. By aggregating findings from 20 years of research on the

topic, we offer baseline estimates against which future studies can compare. Although the original animosity (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998) indicates no effect on product judgments, given the difference in magnitude between the two effect sizes along with the relative weak effect on product judgments, we conclude that these findings largely support the seminal animosity model, which asserted that animosity would be most closely associated with behaviors (i.e. purchasing behaviors or intentions) and less effect on quality judgments.

Our second contribution demonstrates the moderating effect of cultural values on the relationship between animosity and willingness to buy. The analysis revealed significant moderating effects for two of the five values, indicating that collectivism and long-term orientation mitigate the negative effects of animosity (and a weak effect for power distance). This adds to our understanding of animosity effects by shedding light on how consumers' predispositions predicted by cultural values theory influence their tendency to act on their animosity emotions. The robustness of the findings were further supported by testing and ruling out several alternative explanations.

Two important limitations temper the conclusions that can be drawn from Study 1 about the cultural value moderators. First, a meta-analysis does not establish convincing evidence of causation, leaving uncertainty about the nature of the relationship. Second, intercorrelation among Hofstede's values, e.g. collectivism and power distance, complicates interpretation of the results. Thus, the meta-analysis offers evidence of moderating effects of cultural values using dozens of previous studies with samples from 18 different countries, but potential collinearity and the nature of cross-sectional data limit the robustness of the findings. We address this weakness through a series of experiments.

EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES

Overview of Experiments

In Studies 2, 3 and 4, five experiments provide more clarity about which values moderate animosity's effect and evidence of a causal relationship. We conducted experiments in the US and in China, societies with two starkly different cultural value profiles. Chronologically, we conducted the US experiments prior to undertaking the China experiments. Results for the moderating effect of power distance were weak in the meta-analysis and non-significant in the US experiment, so we did not conduct a power distance experiment in China. The experiments for collectivism and long-term orientation reported here produce results that are consistent across both the US and Chinese samples, and with results found in pre-tests at an earlier stage of the investigation; thus, the results are robust and replicable.¹

In the US experiments, we selected Colombia as the target of animosity. Colombia was deemed appropriate due to 1) a history of tension, particularly surrounding drug trafficking and its resultant economic and social harm, and 2) Colombian consumer products (e.g., coffee and other food products) are readily available to US consumers. Combined, these factors make Colombia an appropriate choice to examine the theoretical predictions. Further, in order to ensure a sufficient presence and variance in animosity, we primed animosity in a similar manner as prior research (e.g. Russell & Russell, 2006). All participants were instructed to first read a fictitious story designed to instigate animosity.²

For the Chinese experiments, we selected Japan as the target of animosity, given its difficult history with China and that it has been used in other animosity studies, (e.g., Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Thus, instead of priming animosity, we relied on the presence of

enduring stable animosity toward Japan. The Chinese versions of the surveys were translated into Chinese by two bilingual academics and discrepancies between the two versions were reconciled through discussion (Douglas & Craig, 2007). Subsequently, it was back-translated into English to ensure equivalence, following best practices in international marketing research (Brislin, 1970).

Consistent with the conceptualization of animosity as an anger-based emotion, we measure animosity with four items adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998). Following the measurement of animosity, in each experiment, we primed two levels of one of the cultural value moderators, i.e. individualism versus collectivism, short- versus long-term orientation, and low versus high power distance, using established priming techniques (e.g. Kopalle, Lehmann, & Farley, 2010, Trafimow, Triandis, & Goto, 1991, Zhang, Winterich, & Mittal, 2010). We analyze the effect of animosity on willingness to buy and product judgments at the two levels of the primed cultural value moderators. Thus, the experiments are considered to be a $2 \times$ continuous, between-subjects design, which we analyze using moderated multiple regression due to the continuous nature of the focal antecedent (Spiller, Fitzsimons, Lynch Jr, & McClelland, 2013). Although the primary purpose of the experiments is to further test the effects of cultural value moderators, we also assess the relative effect of animosity on willingness to buy versus product judgments. Thus, the experiments provide tests of all five hypotheses.

Study 2 – COL: Participants and Procedure

In Study 2 – COL, we more closely investigate the role of collectivism as a moderator of animosity's effect on willingness to buy. In the US experiment, we recruited 86 non-student participants (mean age 37, 50% male) from Amazon Mechanical Turk online consumer panel to participate in this experiment. Based on the procedure described above, animosity had good

reliability ($\alpha = 0.93$) and generated sufficient animosity ($M = 4.21$, s.d. = 1.85). In the Chinese experiment, we recruited 85 student participants (mean age 22, 28% male)³ from the business school of a major university in Nanjing, China. The survey was administered in the classroom by a graduate student familiar with the study. Animosity for the Chinese sample ($M = 4.31$, s.d. = 1.21) also had good reliability ($\alpha = 0.86$).

Participants were randomly assigned to either the individualism or collectivism condition, and completed an adapted version of the similarities and differences with family and friends priming task (Trafimow, Triandis, & Goto, 1991). For the individualism condition, participants described three things that make them unique from their family and friends. They then described a time when they achieved a goal resulting from figuring something out independently. For the collectivism condition, participants described three things that they have in common with their family and friends, followed by describing a time when they sacrificed something for the good of the group. All primes are listed in the Web Appendix.

As a manipulation check, individualism-collectivism was then assessed with a three-item scale ($\alpha_{US} = 0.89$, $\alpha_{China} = 0.79$) based on (Yoo, Donthu, & Lenartowicz, 2011). Following the cultural value priming task and manipulation check measure, willingness to buy ($\alpha_{US} = 0.94$, $\alpha_{China} = 0.85$) and product judgments ($\alpha_{US} = 0.94$, $\alpha_{China} = 0.88$) were measured with scales adapted from (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Then the remaining non-primed values were measured, and finally demographics.

Study 2 – COL: Results

We first evaluated the effectiveness of the individualism-collectivism priming task in a MANOVA with all five cultural values as dependent variables; complete results are presented in Table 2.3. As expected, the group assigned to the collectivism task scored higher on collectivism

than the group assigned to the individualism task in both the US sample ($M_{Collectivism} = 4.44$, $M_{Individualism} = 3.72$, $F(1, 84) = 6.34, p = 0.01$) and the Chinese sample ($M_{Collectivism} = 4.40$, $M_{Individualism} = 3.85$, $F(1, 83) = 4.14, p = 0.04$). There were no differences between the groups for any other cultural value, suggesting that the manipulation was successful.

“Insert Table 2.3 about here”

To assess the moderating effect of collectivism (H2), we conducted regression analysis using model 1 of the Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro with animosity as the focal antecedent and the condition (individualism versus collectivism) as the moderator. Table 2.4 reports a significant interaction effect on willingness to buy for both the US sample ($b = 0.41, p = 0.01$) and the Chinese sample ($b = 0.45, p = 0.03$) suggesting a mitigating effect of collectivism. To assist in interpreting the effect, Table 2.4 reports the conditional effect of animosity in the US sample for the individualism group ($b = -0.73, p < 0.001$), which is significantly stronger than that for the collectivism group ($b = -0.32, p = 0.01$). Similar results were found in the Chinese sample with the effect for the individualism group ($b = -0.66, p < 0.001$) being significantly stronger than the collectivist group ($b = -0.20, p = 0.17$). The effects are illustrated in Figure 2.2, Panels A and C. In sum, the results are consistent with the meta-analysis and indicate that when individualist values are made temporarily accessible, this leads to a stronger willingness to act on their feelings of animosity, more so than collectivists, supporting H2a, over the competing H2b.

“Insert Figure 2.2 about here”

“Insert Table 2.4 about here”

In addition to the moderation analysis, Table 2.5 reports the unconditional effects of animosity on willingness to buy versus product judgments. The estimated effects on willingness to buy in both the US ($b = -0.55, p < 0.001$) and China ($b = -0.43, p < 0.001$) are very similar to

the results found in the meta-analysis. Further, there is a significant effect of animosity on product judgments in the US sample ($b = -0.23, p = 0.01$), but the effect is not significant in the Chinese sample ($b = -0.12, p = 0.25$). To assess whether the effect on willingness to buy is significantly stronger than the effect on product judgments, we conducted an equality of parameters test using AMOS. We regressed both willingness to buy and product judgments on animosity, and created a distribution of the difference between the two coefficients from 2,000 bootstrap samples. The resulting 95% confidence interval of the difference between the two coefficients does not include zero in either the US sample (-0.49 to -0.14) or the Chinese sample (-0.52 to -0.04). Thus, animosity's effect on willingness to buy is significantly stronger than its effect on product judgments, offering additional support for H1.

“Insert Table 2.5 about here”

Study 3 – LTO: Participants and Procedure

In Study 3 – LTO, we examine the role of long-term orientation as a moderator of animosity's effect on willingness to buy. For the US experiment, we recruited 99 non-student participants (mean age 35, 49% male) from Amazon Mechanical Turk online consumer panel. In the Chinese experiment, we recruited 82 student participants (mean age 19, 27% male). The same procedures and scales were used in these experiments as in the collectivism experiments, with exception of the priming task for the cultural value. Animosity was sufficient and varied in both the US ($M = 4.11, s.d. = 1.59$) and China ($M = 4.04, s.d. = 1.08$), and the composite constructs had good reliability ($\alpha_{US} = 0.90, \alpha_{China} = 0.85$).

Participants were randomly assigned to either the short- or long-term orientation condition. Participants in the long-term orientation condition completed a priming task that consisted of reading a short essay describing the benefits of thinking about their present day

actions and their effect on the long-term future. Next, they described three benefits they had experienced from sacrificing short-term benefits in order to eventually receive long-term benefits. For the short-term orientation condition in the US, we developed a corresponding priming task. Participants read a short essay describing the benefits of focusing on the present as opposed to always concerning one's self with the future. They then described three instances when they were distracted about past or future events, but felt better when they decided to focus on the present. To the best of our knowledge, nobody has attempted to prime long- versus short-term orientation in China before. During pre-tests, we discovered that an exact replication of the short- vs. long-term orientation prime that we used in the US was not successful in China. Therefore, with guidance from experts on Chinese culture, we slightly revised the priming instructions. Consistent with original writings on long-term orientation (Hofstede, 1980), we repositioned both priming tasks in terms of Confucian ethics. The modified prime emphasized the concept of protecting face in the moment for the short-term orientation prime.

A manipulation check for short- versus long-term orientation was assessed with a three-item scale ($\alpha_{US} = 0.73$, $\alpha_{China} = 0.52^4$) based on Bearden, Money, and Nevins (2006). After the priming tasks and manipulation check measure, willingness to buy ($\alpha_{US} = 0.89$, $\alpha_{China} = 0.84$) and product judgments ($\alpha_{US} = 0.90$, $\alpha_{China} = 0.89$) were measured, followed by measures for the remaining non-primed values and demographics.

Study 3 – LTO: Results

The effectiveness of the short- versus long-term orientation priming task is evidenced in Table 2.3. As expected, the group assigned to the long-term orientation task scored higher on long-term orientation than did the group assigned to the short-term orientation task in both the US sample ($M_{Long-term\ orientation} = 5.07$, $M_{Short-term\ orientation} = 4.59$, $F(1, 97) = 4.35$, $p = 0.04$) and the

Chinese sample ($M_{\text{Long-term orientation}} = 5.35$, $M_{\text{Short-term orientation}} = 4.86$, $F(1, 80) = 6.04$, $p = 0.02$).

There were no differences between the groups for any other cultural value, suggesting that the manipulation was successful.

To assess animosity's effect on willingness to buy under conditions of long-term orientation (H3), we conducted an analysis using the Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro with animosity as the focal antecedent and the condition (short- versus long-term orientation) as the moderator. Table 2.4 reports a significant interaction effect on willingness to buy for both the US sample ($b = 0.36$, $p = 0.02$) and the Chinese sample ($b = 0.42$, $p = 0.03$) suggesting a mitigating effect of long-term orientation, in support of H3. The conditional effect of animosity on willingness to buy in the US sample for the short-term orientation group was much stronger ($b = -0.74$, $p < 0.001$) compared to the long-term orientation group ($b = -0.38$, $p < 0.001$). Similar results were found in the Chinese sample with the effect for the short-term orientation group ($b = -0.59$, $p < 0.001$) being significantly stronger than the long-term orientation group ($b = -0.17$, $p = 0.27$). The effects are illustrated in Figure 2.2, Panels B and D. In sum, the results indicate that short-term oriented individuals tend to act on their feelings of animosity more so than long-term oriented individuals.

We used the same equality of parameters test using 2,000 bootstrap samples to assess whether the effect on willingness to buy is significantly stronger than the effect on product judgments. The resulting 95% confidence interval of the difference between the two coefficients does not include zero in the US sample (-0.40 to -0.01), further supporting H1. In the Chinese sample, the effect on willingness to buy (-0.39) is stronger than the effect on product judgments (-0.14) but the difference between the two does not reach conventional statistical significance thresholds (CI: -0.51 to 0.03). Thus, while the difference between the effect on willingness to

buy and product judgments is significant in both the US and China in the collectivism experiments, the difference is significant in only the US for the long-term orientation experiment.

Study 4 – PDI: Participants and Procedure

Finally, in Study 4 – PDI, we investigate the role of power distance as a moderator of animosity's effect on willingness to buy. We recruited 95 non-student participants (mean age 36, 46% male) from Amazon Mechanical Turk online consumer panel. The same procedure and scales were used in this experiment as in the prior experiments, with exception of the priming task for the cultural value. Given only weak evidence for the moderating effect of power distance in the meta-analysis and, as will be shown here, no effect of power distance in this experiment, we conducted the experiment only with the US sample.

Participants first read the fictitious story about Colombia designed to instigate animosity. Again, the story induced sufficient animosity ($M = 4.64$, $s.d. = 1.55$), and the composite construct had good reliability ($\alpha = 0.91$). Participants were randomly assigned to either the low or high power distance condition, and completed a power distance priming task based on Rucker and Galinsky (2008). Participants in the high power distance group recalled an incident when they had power over another individual, i.e. when they controlled the ability of another person to get something they wanted. They then described the situation. In the low power distance group, participants described an incident of the reverse situation, i.e. when an individual had control over the participant's ability to get something they wanted.

As a manipulation check, power distance was assessed with a three-item scale ($\alpha = 0.82$) based on Zhang, Winterich, and Mittal (2010). After the priming tasks and manipulation check measure, willingness to buy ($\alpha = 0.90$) and product judgments ($\alpha = 0.92$) were measured,

followed by measures for the remaining non-primed values and demographics.

Study 4 – PDI: Results

Table 2.3 reports the effectiveness of the low versus high power distance priming task. As expected, the group assigned to the high power distance task scored higher on power distance than did the group assigned to the low power distance task ($M_{\text{High power distance}} = 5.37$, $M_{\text{Low power distance}} = 4.84$, $F(1, 93) = 5.15, p = 0.03$). There were no differences between the groups for any other cultural value, suggesting that the manipulation was successful.

We again conducted an analysis using the Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro with animosity as the focal antecedent and the condition (low versus high power distance) as the moderator, to assess the moderating effect of power distance hypothesized in H4. There was no significant interaction between animosity and power distance on willingness to buy ($b = -0.02, p = 0.89$) rendering the conditional effect of animosity on willingness to buy in the low power distance group ($b = -0.61, p < 0.001$) no different from the high power distance group ($b = -0.63, p < 0.001$); see Table 2.4. Although we found no evidence of a moderating effect of power distance, the experiment does provide further support for H1. Table 2.5 reports that the unconditional effect of animosity on willingness to buy ($b = -0.62, p < 0.001$) was significantly stronger than its effect on product judgments ($b = -0.25, p = 0.002$) as evidenced by the equality of parameters test which produced a confidence interval for the difference that does not include zero (-0.60 to -0.15).

DISCUSSION

This investigation has taken a multi-method approach to addressing two important

research questions, 1) the magnitude of the effect of animosity on willingness to buy relative to the effect on product judgments, and 2) how cultural values influence the negative effects of animosity. The combined evidence from the meta-analysis and the experimental studies provide robust support for hypotheses 1-3, but not for H4. The strong support for the contrasting effect of animosity on willingness to buy and product judgments, as well as the moderating effects of collectivism and long-term orientation at both the societal and individual levels have a number of theoretical and managerial implications.

Theoretical Implications

The first theoretical contribution highlights the contrasting effect of animosity on willingness to buy versus product judgments. The results of the meta-analysis in Study 1, which aggregates 20 years of research on the topic, combined with the experiments of Studies 2, 3 and 4 offer more definitive evidence upon which to draw firmer conclusions and clarify the relationship.

The meta-analysis identified contrasting effect sizes of animosity on willingness to buy (-0.63) versus product judgments (-0.23). Four of the five experiments found evidence that the effect on willingness to buy was significantly stronger than the effect on product judgments, with average effects sizes in the experiments of -0.51 for willingness to buy and -0.21 for product judgments. Combined, this suggests that the effect of animosity on behavior (or behavioral intentions) is two to three times stronger than the effect on attitudes. The difference in magnitude between the two effect sizes largely support the seminal animosity model (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998), which asserted that animosity would be most closely associated with behaviors (i.e. purchasing behaviors or intentions) compared with quality judgments.

We do acknowledge that the effect of animosity on product judgments is statistically

significant in the meta-analysis and in three of the five experiments. Inconsistencies in past research may be due to measures that, instead of anger, captured other negative emotions such as anxiety and insecurity (Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau, & Pornpitakpan, 2008), which are fear-based emotions and have been found to affect product judgments (Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015). The rather weak effect size of animosity on product judgments may also partially explain past empirical inconsistencies as sufficient statistical power would be necessary to identify the relationship as significant. Following the recommended practice of focusing on the effect size (e.g., Meyer, van Witteloostuijn, & Beugelsdijk, 2017), we believe animosity's weak relationship with product judgments, especially in comparison to the effect on willingness to buy found in our results, supports the Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) original animosity model.

The second theoretical contribution calls attention to the role of cultural values as moderators of the consumer animosity-willingness to buy relationship. To date, the animosity literature has treated this phenomenon as a universal phenomenon and assumed no differences in how consumers reacted to feelings of animosity based on cultural worldview. However, this study reveals a previously unknown contextual influence of cultural values. Specifically, this study's combination of meta-analysis of samples from 18 different country cultures and five experiments across two contrasting cultures provides robust support for the moderating effects of individualism versus collectivism and long-term orientation.

A careful review of the literature led to two competing theoretical predictions for the individualism versus collectivism dimension. On the one hand, individualist traits like speaking one's mind, acting on one's feelings, and a low aversion to confrontation coupled with collectivist tendencies to avoid confrontation and need for harmony suggest that the animosity-

willingness to buy relationship should be stronger for individualists. However, on the other hand, collectivists' strong distinction between in-group versus out-group and tendency for holistic thinking suggest that the animosity-willingness to buy relationship could be stronger for collectivists.

Although both arguments hold theoretical appeal, the evidence at both the societal and individual levels consistently support H2a, i.e. the effects of animosity on willingness to buy are stronger in the individualism context. This finding is interesting insofar as theory seemed to pit different aspects of the individualism-collectivism dimension against one another. For example, collectivism includes both the desire for harmony, but also affords different expectations and behavioral responses based on in- versus out-group status. The desire for harmony suggests a weaker effect, but consideration of foreign brands as belonging to the out-group suggests low motivation to achieve harmony and a potentially stronger effect. Across all our studies, the desire for harmony seemed to outweigh the out-group distinction.

Whereas the individualism-collectivism dimension has been the subject of abundant research, comparatively little attention has been given to long-term orientation values. Time orientation was not even included in the original framework offered by Hofstede (1980), and empirical research incorporating this dimension has been relatively limited. However, this study's findings suggest that it significantly influences how people respond and cope with their animus toward a foreign country. Particularly, the strong sense of national pride and need for cognitive consistency between attitudes and actions, reflective of a short-term orientation, help explain this relationship. This finding also highlights the potential explanatory power of cultural values beyond the dominant individualism-collectivism dimension.

Our final contribution is methodological, highlighting the utility of combining societal-

level data analysis along with individual-level experimental manipulations. The meta-analysis and experimental studies produced consistent evidence for the contrasting effect of animosity on willingness to buy and product judgments, as well as the moderating effects of collectivism and long-term orientation. However, the meta-regression analysis indicated a weak moderating effect of power distance; whereas, the power distance experiment produced estimates that were far from significant. The discrepancy on the moderating effect of power distance raises questions. We attribute the inconsistency between the meta-analysis and experiments to the correlation between power distance and collectivism at the societal level. In the meta-analysis, where both power distance and collectivism were significant, the correlation between the countries included in the sample resulted in groups with very similar member countries. Thus, the experiments serve an important function to isolate the true causal mechanism.

Current best practices suggest that multi-country studies should include at least seven countries to be able to draw reasonable conclusions (Franke & Richey Jr, 2010). However, even with a large number of countries, such as in the Study 1 meta-analysis, the possibility of intercorrelation among predictor variables remain, making it difficult to isolate the true relationship. The addition of an experimental approach priming cultural values at the individual-level of analysis can serve as a tool to help resolve such issues. In sum, combining analysis of both societal-level data and individual-level experimental manipulations may be a useful technique, especially in the case of correlated values in the data or with small numbers of countries.

Managerial Implications

The findings from this investigation lead to several implications for managers. First, the aggregate evidence that animosity has limited effect on product judgments has important

implications for brand tracking studies. Questions about perceived product quality may not reflect the influence of animosity and may over-estimate product potential. This suggests that when managers suspect that when external animosity-causing events may potentially affect product sales, it may be important to capture consumers' purchase intentions and not just product judgments.

Further, effects of consumer animosity are necessarily contingent upon the strength of association of a brand with its country of origin, and prior research indicates that consumer knowledge of brand origin is poorly calibrated leading to inaccurate country-brand associations (Samiee, Shimp, & Sharma, 2005). Thus, it is important for managers to understand with which country consumers associate the brand; it may be the incorrect country. One potential strategy includes branding a firm's product as a global brand, or attempting to otherwise weaken the brand's association with any country. This may help individual brands avoid the negative effects of consumer animosity. At the same time, hiding from one's country of origin by itself is not likely a strong defense, and other more proactive strategies should be identified.

This study found that cultural values influence how willing consumers are to act on their emotions, with more collectivist and long-term oriented consumers suppressing emotional responses. This suggests that if a brand finds its home country the target of animosity from one or multiple countries, understanding the cultural profiles of the countries holding animosity feelings can assist managers in assessing the degree of impact on purchase intentions, and may guide the allocation of resources to attempt to ameliorate those effects. Naturally, given that China-Japan is often considered the prototypical exemplar of countries where animosity has a strong influence on buying behaviors, it is clear that a collectivist and/or long-term oriented worldview does not always preclude consumers from acting on their emotions, they may just be

less likely to do so.

Finally, the experimental studies may also suggest a viable strategic approach to mitigate animosity effects. Through priming, we made certain values temporarily accessible, which reduced the subjects' willingness to act on their emotions. Research has shown that brand communication messages can activate different cultural values (e.g., Ma, Yang, & Mourali, 2014). This suggests that brands may employ promotion campaigns emphasizing collectivist and long-term orientation themes that have been shown in this research to weaken the effects of animosity.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The multi-method nature of the study, and the consistent evidence across the meta-analysis and experiments from two different countries, provide confidence in the findings. Nonetheless, this study is subject to several limitations, which provide avenues for future research. First, any meta-analysis is constrained by the volume, nature, and scope of the original studies on which it is based. The volume of animosity studies is still somewhat limited, which have contributed to the rather large confidence intervals. After a period of time, new studies should be included in a meta-analysis, which may narrow the intervals, providing a more precise estimate of effect sizes.

Most marketing research, including the animosity literature, has generally been limited to examining attitudes and purchasing intentions. Our review found only a couple of studies, which have examined more consequential outcome variables, like product ownership. Even though the link between intentions and behaviors has generally been found to be strong, greater effort in

examining actual behavioral outcomes is always desired.

Further investigation into the role of collectivism and long-term orientation could uncover the underlying mechanisms for their effects. Our theoretical arguments were based on the key characteristics that are typical of each particular value. For example, individualism fosters emotions such as pride and anger and long-term orientation encourages emotional restraint and cognitive consistency. It was beyond the scope of this study to investigate whether some of these characteristics are more influential in driving the effects, but future research may contribute to an even more fine-grained understanding of the effects by uncovering such differences.

The measurement of animosity is still evolving. Most researchers have conceptualized it as an intense negative feeling. Yet, its measurement has varied considerably with focus being given primarily to beliefs about particular and varying dimensions of animosity, i.e. war, economic, political, religious, etc. While we consider these as all measuring the same underlying feeling or affect, the variety of cognitive drivers of that negative affect may contribute noise to the data. Indeed, different sources of animosity may generate anger, while others generate fear, with each emotion having distinguishable consequences (Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015). Future research should continue to theorize and test differences in effects based on the source of animosity and the type of emotions it generates. Finally, while this research uncovers new moderating variables that could potentially be wielded through promotion campaigns, it would be practical to find other more managerially controllable moderators that reduce the effect or potentially completely nullify the effect.

In sum, the increase in consumer activism along with increasing demonization of foreign countries has heightened the risk of brands falling victim to consumer animosity. This

investigation provides needed summary assessments of the effects of consumer animosity, and identifies two cultural values that mitigate those effects.

NOTES

¹The experimental studies reproduce results found in pre-tests indicating robust and replicable findings. In the pre-test for the COL experiment, the group assigned to the collectivism task scored higher on collectivism than the group assigned to the individualism task ($M_{Collectivism} = 4.59$, $M_{Individualism} = 3.84$, $F(1, 60) = 5.29$, $p = 0.03$). The interaction between animosity and COL on willingness to buy was significant ($b = 0.48$, $t = 2.58$, $p = 0.01$). In the LTO pre-test, the group assigned to the long-term orientation task scored higher on long-term orientation than the group assigned to the short-term orientation task ($M_{Long-term orientation} = 4.96$, $M_{Short-term orientation} = 4.26$, $F(1, 71) = 5.00$, $p = 0.03$). There was a significant interaction between animosity and LTO on willingness to buy ($b = 0.38$, $t = 2.01$, $p = 0.05$). Finally, in the PDI pretest, the group assigned to the high power distance task scored higher on power distance than did the group assigned to the low power distance task ($M_{High power distance} = 4.44$, $M_{Low power distance} = 3.71$, $F(1, 72) = 4.71$, $p = 0.03$). However, the interaction was nonsignificant ($b = 0.10$, $t = 0.55$, $p = 0.58$). Thus, the experimental results are consistent with the pre-tests.

²At the end of the survey, participants were debriefed regarding the fictional nature of the Colombia animosity scenario.

³The business school at the Chinese university from where the sample was drawn typically attracts many more females than males.

⁴Although reliability metrics fall below generally recommended thresholds, we deemed it acceptable since 1) this was the first known attempt at priming long-term orientation in China, 2) the experiment provides complementary evidence beyond the US sample (and the meta-analysis) and 3) the prime was significant on all three of the items used to capture long- versus short-term orientation.

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Table 2.1 Meta-analysis of animosity bivariate relationships

| Relationship | Number of Effects | Cumulative N | Corrected Mean r | LLCI | ULCI | Homogeneity Test Q |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|--------------|------------------|-------|-------|--------------------|
| Animosity → Willingness to Buy | 43 | 14,200 | -0.63 | -0.70 | -0.54 | 2715.00 |
| Animosity → Product Judgments | 42 | 13,919 | -0.23 | -0.35 | -0.11 | 2349.82 |

Corrected mean correlation coefficients are sample-size weighted, reliability-corrected estimates of the population correlation coefficients. LLCI and ULCI are the 95% lower and upper limit confidence intervals. Significant Q-statistics indicate the presence of variation not explained by sampling error and justify testing moderators.

Table 2.2 Meta-analysis cultural value moderators of animosity - willingness to buy relationship

| Meta-regression | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| Moderator | β | p | b | LLCI | ULCI |
| Collectivism | 0.46 | <0.001 | 0.006 | 0.009 | 0.003 |
| Long-term Orientation | 0.47 | <0.001 | 0.006 | 0.003 | 0.010 |
| Power Distance | 0.25 | 0.09 | 0.004 | -0.001 | 0.009 |
| Masculinity | -0.07 | 0.65 | -0.002 | -0.010 | 0.006 |
| Uncertainty Avoidance | 0.05 | 0.77 | 0.001 | -0.004 | 0.006 |

| Subgroup Analysis | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------|----|--------|-------|-------|
| Group | Q between | k | Mean r | LLCI | ULCI |
| Collectivism | 12.24 | | | | |
| COL-High | | 27 | -0.54 | -0.62 | -0.45 |
| COL-Low | | 16 | -0.75 | -0.81 | -0.67 |
| Long-term Orientation | 8.94 | | | | |
| LTO-High | | 24 | -0.54 | -0.63 | -0.44 |
| LTO-Low | | 18 | -0.73 | -0.79 | -0.64 |
| Power Distance | 0.53 | | | | |
| PDI-High | | 18 | -0.60 | -0.70 | -0.48 |
| PDI-Low | | 25 | -0.65 | -0.73 | -0.56 |
| Masculinity | 2.38 | | | | |
| MAS-High | | 27 | -0.67 | -0.74 | -0.58 |
| MAS-Low | | 16 | -0.56 | -0.67 | -0.42 |
| Uncertainty Avoidance | 0.12 | | | | |
| UAI-High | | 10 | -0.65 | -0.76 | -0.50 |
| UAI-Low | | 33 | -0.62 | -0.69 | -0.54 |

Mean effect size and 95% confidence intervals reported in Pearson's r. k = number of correlations in the group. Total k for the LTO model varies slightly due to Kuwait having no LTO score. β = standardized coefficient, b = unstandardized coefficient. We applied a meta-analytic analysis of variance model using maximum likelihood estimation, and meta-regression analysis using full-information maximum likelihood estimation (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Groups were created using median splits based on Hofstede's full set of data; see Appendix. COL=collectivism, LTO=long-term orientation, PDI=power distance, MAS=masculinity, UAI=uncertainty avoidance.

Table 2.3 Experiments - manipulation check means and *p*-values

| US | | Measured value | | | |
|-----------------|------|----------------|-------------|-------------|------|
| Primed value | COL | LTO | PDI | MAS | UAI |
| COL | High | 4.44 | 4.57 | 3.73 | 3.26 |
| | Low | 3.72 | 4.66 | 3.38 | 3.31 |
| | F | 6.34 | 0.11 | 1.21 | 0.02 |
| | p | 0.01 | 0.74 | 0.27 | 0.89 |
| LTO | High | 3.99 | 5.07 | 3.90 | 3.20 |
| | Low | 4.24 | 4.59 | 3.81 | 2.87 |
| | F | 1.01 | 4.35 | 0.08 | 1.07 |
| | p | 0.32 | 0.04 | 0.77 | 0.30 |
| PDI | High | 3.65 | 4.65 | 5.37 | 3.37 |
| | Low | 3.77 | 4.70 | 4.84 | 2.97 |
| | F | 0.18 | 0.02 | 5.15 | 1.49 |
| | p | 0.67 | 0.88 | 0.03 | 0.23 |
| China | | Measured value | | | |
| Primed value | COL | LTO | PDI | MAS | UAI |
| COL | High | 4.40 | 5.01 | 4.68 | 3.41 |
| | Low | 3.85 | 4.99 | 4.72 | 3.18 |
| | F | 4.14 | 0.01 | 0.27 | 0.91 |
| | p | 0.04 | 0.95 | 0.87 | 0.34 |
| LTO | High | 4.51 | 5.35 | 4.63 | 3.03 |
| | Low | 4.12 | 4.86 | 4.96 | 2.94 |
| | F | 2.56 | 6.04 | 2.10 | 0.12 |
| | p | 0.11 | 0.02 | 0.15 | 0.73 |

COL=collectivism, LTO=long-term orientation, PDI=power distance, MAS=masculinity, UAI=uncertainty avoidance.

Table 2.4 Experiments - conditional effect of animosity on willingness to buy

| Cultural value condition | US | | | China | | |
|----------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--------|
| | b | t | p | b | t | p |
| COL × Animosity | 0.41 | 2.65 | 0.01 | 0.45 | 2.16 | 0.03 |
| Individualism = 0 | -0.73 | -7.15 | <0.001 | -0.66 | -4.41 | <0.001 |
| Collectivism = 1 | -0.32 | -2.78 | 0.01 | -0.20 | -1.37 | 0.17 |
| LTO × Animosity | 0.36 | 2.34 | 0.02 | 0.42 | 1.93 | 0.03 |
| Short-term orientation = 0 | -0.74 | -6.63 | <0.001 | -0.59 | -3.91 | <0.001 |
| Long-term orientation = 1 | -0.38 | -3.66 | <0.001 | -0.17 | -1.11 | 0.27 |
| PDI × Animosity | -0.02 | -0.14 | 0.89 | | | |
| Low power distance = 0 | -0.61 | -6.11 | <0.001 | | | |
| High power distance = 1 | -0.63 | -5.76 | <0.001 | | | |

b = unstandardized regression coefficient. COL=collectivism, LTO=long-term orientation, PDI=power distance.

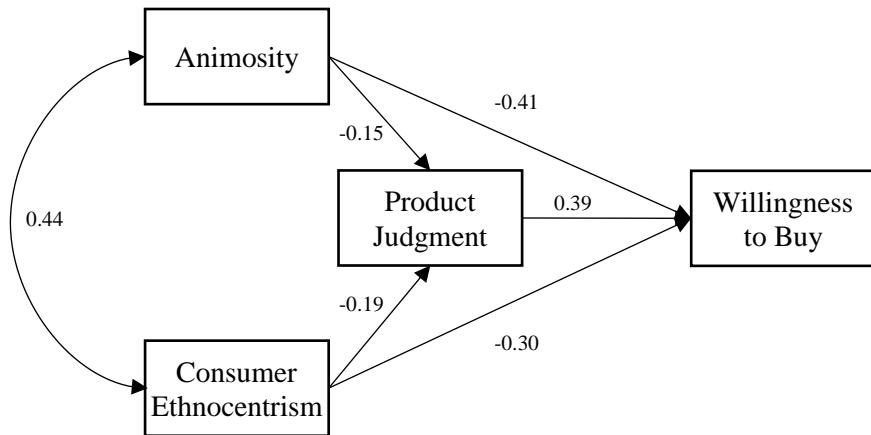
Table 2.5 Experiments - animosity's effect on willingness to buy versus product judgments

| | US | | | | | | China | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|-------|-------|--|--|
| | b | t | p | LLCI | ULCI | b | t | p | LLCI | ULCI | | |
| Study 2 – COL | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| DV: willingness to buy | -0.55 | -6.90 | <0.001 | -0.70 | -0.39 | -0.43 | -4.04 | <0.001 | -0.66 | -0.21 | | |
| DV: product judgments | -0.23 | -2.67 | 0.008 | -0.40 | -0.06 | -0.12 | -1.15 | 0.25 | -0.37 | 0.09 | | |
| Equality of parameters test | -0.32 | | | -0.49 | -0.14 | -0.31 | | | -0.52 | -0.04 | | |
| Study 3 – LTO | b | t | p | LLCI | ULCI | b | t | p | LLCI | ULCI | | |
| DV: willingness to buy | -0.54 | -7.04 | <0.001 | -0.70 | -0.39 | -0.39 | -3.54 | <0.001 | -0.60 | -0.16 | | |
| DV: product judgments | -0.33 | -4.23 | <0.001 | -0.48 | -0.17 | -0.14 | -1.18 | 0.24 | -0.38 | 0.10 | | |
| Equality of parameters test | -0.22 | | | -0.40 | -0.01 | -0.25 | | | -0.51 | 0.03 | | |
| Study 4 – PDI | b | t | p | LLCI | ULCI | | | | | | | |
| DV: willingness to buy | -0.62 | -8.58 | <0.001 | -0.76 | -0.45 | | | | | | | |
| DV: product judgments | -0.25 | -3.05 | 0.002 | -0.43 | -0.08 | | | | | | | |
| Equality of parameters test | -0.37 | | | -0.60 | -0.15 | | | | | | | |

Equality of parameters was tested by creating a distribution of the difference between the two coefficients using 2,000 bootstrap samples. b = unstandardized regression coefficient.

Unconditional effects reported. COL=collectivism, LTO=long-term orientation, PDI=power distance. LLCI and ULCI are the 95% lower and upper limit confidence intervals.

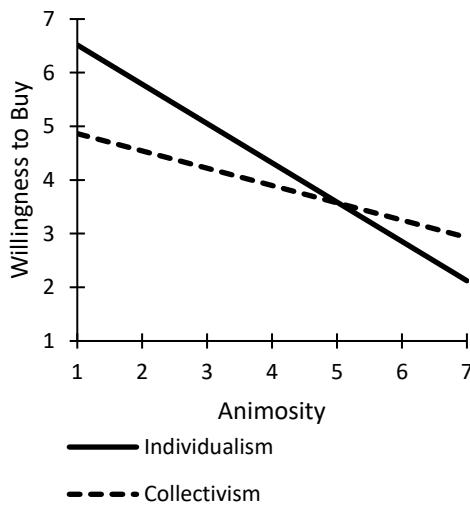
Figure 2.1 Meta-analytic path analysis



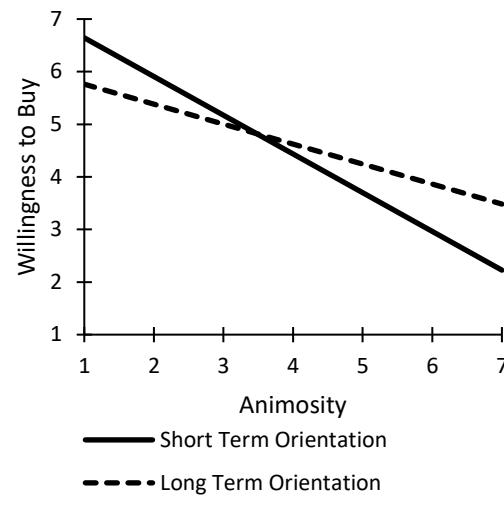
Path analysis using correlation matrix as input from meta-analytic estimates. All paths significant at $p < 0.02$. Standardized coefficients shown.

Figure 2.2 Experiments - animosity interactions with collectivism and long-term orientation

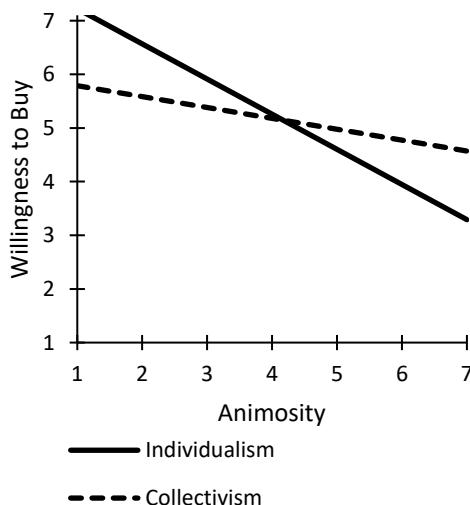
Panel A: US animosity × collectivism



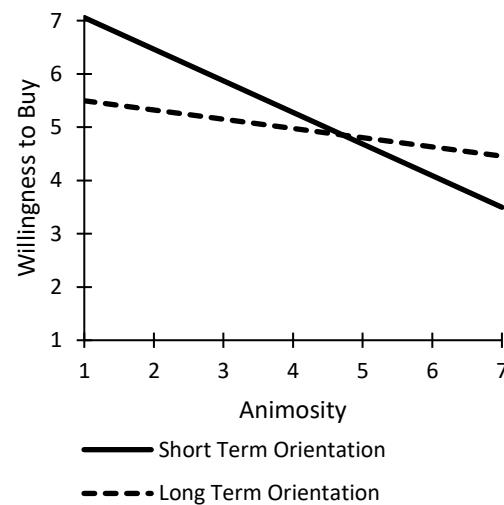
Panel B: US animosity × long-term orientation



Panel C: China animosity × collectivism



Panel D: China animosity × long-term orientation



Charts show animosity and willingness to buy as scaled in their original metric (1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree). Mean animosity is 4.21 in the US collectivism experiment, 4.11 in the US long-term orientation experiment, 4.31 in the China collectivism experiment, and 4.04 in the China long-term orientation experiment.

APPENDIX

Meta-analysis cultural value country groups

| COL | LTO | PDI | MAS | UAI |
|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| <u>High</u> | <u>High</u> | <u>High</u> | <u>High</u> | <u>High</u> |
| China | China | China | Australia | Greece |
| Greece | Japan | Greece | China | Israel |
| Iran | Kuwait | Korea | Greece | Japan |
| Korea | Netherlands | Kuwait | Japan | Korea |
| Kuwait | Korea | Malaysia | Malaysia | Kuwait |
| Malaysia | Lithuania | Russia | Saudi Arabia | Russia |
| Russia | Russia | Saudi Arabia | USA | Saudi Arabia |
| Saudi Arabia | Taiwan | Turkey | | Spain |
| Taiwan | Ukraine | Ukraine | | Turkey |
| Turkey | | | | Ukraine |
| Ukraine | | | | |
| <u>Low</u> | <u>Low</u> | <u>Low</u> | <u>Low</u> | <u>Low</u> |
| Australia | Australia | Australia | Iran | Australia |
| Israel | Greece | Iran | Israel | China |
| Japan | Iran | Israel | Korea | Iran |
| Lithuania | Israel | Japan | Kuwait | Lithuania |
| Netherlands | Malaysia | Lithuania | Lithuania | Malaysia |
| Spain | Saudi Arabia | Netherlands | Netherlands | Netherlands |
| USA | Spain | Spain | Russia | Taiwan |
| | Turkey | Taiwan | Spain | USA |
| | USA | USA | Taiwan | |
| | | | Turkey | |
| | | | Ukraine | |

Ukraine and Lithuania contributed effect sizes only for product judgments, not willingness to buy. COL=collectivism, LTO=long-term orientation, PDI=power distance, MAS=masculinity, UAI=uncertainty avoidance. High/Low groups based on median splits of all countries available from Hofstede data: COL (44), LTO (45), PDI (62), MAS (49), UAI (70).

Experiments – scale items and source

Animosity – adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) US $\alpha=0.93$, $\alpha=0.90$, $\alpha=0.91$; CN $\alpha=0.86$, $\alpha=0.85$

I dislike Colombia (Japan).

I feel anger towards Colombia (Japan).

The actions of Colombia (Japan) are very frustrating.

Thinking about the Colombia (Japan) situation irritates me.

Willingness to buy – adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) US $\alpha=0.94$, $\alpha=0.89$, $\alpha=0.90$; CN $\alpha=0.85$, $\alpha=0.84$

I would not feel guilty if I bought a Colombian (Japanese) product.

I am willing to buy Colombian (Japanese) products.

I would not avoid buying Colombian (Japanese) products.

It would not bother me at all to own Colombian (Japanese) products.

There is nothing wrong with owning Colombian (Japanese) products.

Product judgments – adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) US $\alpha=0.94$, $\alpha=0.90$, $\alpha=0.92$; CN $\alpha=.88$, $\alpha=.89$

Products from Colombia (Japan) are likely to be carefully produced and have fine workmanship.

Products from Colombia (Japan) are likely to have a high degree of technological advancement.

Products from Colombia (Japan) are likely to be quite reliable.

Collectivism – adapted from Yoo, Donthu, and Lenartowicz (2011) US $\alpha=0.89$, $\alpha=0.89$, $\alpha=0.88$; CN $\alpha=0.79$, $\alpha=0.77$

Individuals should sacrifice self-interest for the group.

Individuals should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.

Group loyalty should be encouraged even if individual goals suffer.

Long-term orientation – adapted from Bearden, Money, and Nevins (2006) US $\alpha=0.79$, $\alpha=0.73$, $\alpha=0.84$; CN $\alpha=0.59$, $\alpha=0.52$

I often think about the long-term future.^a

The most important events in my life are not occurring now, but in the long-term future.^b

I don't mind giving up today's fun for success in the future.

My long-term future is more important than the present moment.

The most important events in my life are occurring now or in the near future, not in the long-term future.^c

Success in the future does not require giving up today's fun.^c

Leisure time is important.^c

Power distance – adapted from Zhang, Winterich, and Mittal (2010) US $\alpha=0.80$, $\alpha=0.79$, $\alpha=0.82$; CN $\alpha=0.60$, $\alpha=0.73$

As citizens we should put high value on conformity.

I would like to work with a manager who expects subordinates to carry out decisions loyally and without raising questions.^b

In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.^a
Employees should respect their supervisors highly.

Uncertainty avoidance – adapted from Yoo, Donthu, and Lenartowicz (2011) US $\alpha=0.87$, $\alpha=0.90$, $\alpha=0.85$; CN $\alpha=0.83$, $\alpha=0.74$

It is important to have instructions spelled out in detail so that I always know what I'm expected to do.

It is important to closely follow instructions and procedures.

Rules and regulations are important because they inform me of what is expected of me.

Masculinity – adapted from Yoo, Donthu, and Lenartowicz (2011) US $\alpha=0.87$, $\alpha=0.82$, $\alpha=0.82$; CN $\alpha=0.56$, $\alpha=0.69$

It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women.^a

Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.

Solving difficult problems usually requires an active, forcible approach, which is typical of men.

There are some jobs that a man can always do better than a woman.^b

All items were evaluated on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) scale. α = cronbach's alpha for the collectivism, long-term orientation, and power distance experiments respectively. a = item used in China, but not in US samples; b = item used in US, but not in China samples, c = China LTO experiment used only these reversed items. Native Chinese speakers translated all items for the Chinese questionnaire from English to Simplified Chinese, which were then back-translated by different translators to ensure translation equivalence.

WEB APPENDIX

Experiments - Cultural Value and Animosity Manipulations

COL Prime (Adapted from SDFF-Trafimow, D., Triandis, H. C., & Goto, S. G. 1991)

For the next few minutes, please think about what you have in common with your family and friends, and write complete sentences in response to the questions below.

First, what are 3 things you have in common with your family and friends?

Now, think about a time when you sacrificed something for the good of benefiting your family, a group of friends, or teammates. In a few sentences, describe the situation below, e.g. what did you sacrifice and how did it benefit the collective group?

IDV Prime (Adapted from SDFF-Trafimow, D., Triandis, H. C., & Goto, S. G. 1991)

For the next few minutes, please think about what makes you unique and different from your family and friends, and write complete sentences in response to the questions below.

First, what are 3 things that make you unique and different from your family and friends?

Now, think about a time when you achieved a personal goal resulting from figuring something out independently on your own, or after having made a tremendous individual effort, even though your friends or family did not support you. In a few sentences, describe the situation below, e.g. what obstacles did you overcome to achieve the goal on your own, or how did others interfere with your efforts?

LTO Prime - US (Adapted from Kopalle, P. K., Lehmann, D. R., & Farley, J. U. 2010.)

Many people get in trouble by focusing on immediate pleasures without regard to long-term consequences. Such people often spend money on expensive cars and clothes, or engage in risky behaviors (e.g., drug use) without regard to their long-term financial situation or future health. On the other hand, many people who have sacrificed immediate pleasure by saving money or working multiple jobs have ended up wealthy and happy. Thinking about the future has frequently led to better results for them.

For example, compared to others, long-term oriented students who are willing to postpone some activities to spend more time studying are more likely to graduate with honors and have a good job leading to a successful career and comfortable lifestyle. Long-term oriented people may focus more on healthy eating and exercise leading to a long and healthy life.

What are 3 benefits you have experienced from sacrificing short-term benefits in order to eventually receive long-term benefits? You can describe general benefits, or specific benefits that you experienced - or anticipate experiencing.

Please describe each one in a sentence.

STO Prime - US (Original, inspired by online article:

<https://www.theguardian.com/lifeandstyle/2012/jan/28/enjoy-living-present-moment>)

A study by Harvard psychologists discovered that people spend 46.9% of their time doing one thing while thinking about another. They also found this daydreaming makes them more unhappy than if they were paying attention to the present moment, even when it's unpleasant.

Gently bringing our minds back to the present can help us let go of these unhelpful interpretations and see situations for what they are, rather than getting pulled into angry, fearful or depressing thoughts about them.

When what we're doing is pleasant, this means we can enjoy and appreciate life much more. We can savour the sensations of a tasty meal, rather than wolfing it down absent-mindedly, missing the moment as we fret about an earlier conversation, or how we'll manage our next set of tasks.

Now, think of three instances in your life where you were distracted about the past, or future, but felt better when you decided to focus on the present moment.

Please describe each one in a sentence.

LTO Prime – China (Original)

According to Confucian ethics, we should work hard and focus on our long-term future. Many people get in trouble by focusing on immediate pleasures without regard to long-term consequences.

People who have sacrificed immediate pleasure by saving money or working multiple jobs have ended up wealthy and happy. Thinking about the future has frequently led to better results for them. For example, long-term oriented students who are willing to postpone some activities to spend more time studying are more likely to graduate with honors and have a good job leading to a successful career and comfortable lifestyle.

Now, think of three instances in your life when you have sacrificed short-term benefits in order to eventually receive long-term benefits?

Describe three situations where you sacrificed in the short term for future long-term benefits.

STO Prime – China (Original)

According to Confucian ethics people should treat each other with respect, the same way they expect to be treated. Thus, it is important to protect our face. For example, it is important to reciprocate greetings, favors and gifts so we can save face in that moment. Likewise, when someone insults us, it is important to take action to save face in that moment.

Now, think of three instances in your life when you had to focus on the short term and take action to save face in the present moment.

Describe three situations where you lost face and the action that you took in that moment to save face.

PDI High Prime (Adapted from Rucker, D. D. & Galinsky, A. D. 2008)

Please recall a particular incident in which you had power over another individual or individuals. By power, we mean a situation in which you controlled the ability of another person or persons to get something they wanted, or were in a position to evaluate those individuals.

Think about this situation in which you had power over someone—what happened? How did you feel? etc.

Now, provide any 3 details about that situation, e.g. something about the context, who had power and who did not, or how you felt.

Finally, in 2-4 sentences, describe the situation in which you had power over another individual or individuals.

PDI Low Prime (Adapted from Rucker, D. D. & Galinsky, A. D. 2008)

Please recall a particular incident in which someone else had power over you. By power, we mean a situation in which someone had control over your ability to get something you wanted, or was in a position to evaluate you.

Think about this situation in which someone had power over you—what happened? How did you feel? Etc.

Now, provide any 3 details about that situation, e.g. something about the context, who had power and who did not, or how you felt.

Finally, in 2-4 sentences, describe the situation in which someone else had power of you.

Animosity Prime (Inspired by Russell, D. W. & Russell, C. A. 2006)

As you might know from watching or reading the news, US relations with Colombia have always been tense. In a 2016 poll, Colombians ranked Americans as the worst tourists in their country, and don't seem to appreciate the money Americans spend there, which has always irritated Americans.

What has Americans angry now, is the unfair trade situation. While products from Colombia entering the US face virtually no taxes or fees, US products entering Colombia continue to face high taxes and fees set by Colombia. Many view this arrangement as completely unfair, and it prevents US companies from exporting more products. As a result, the US trade deficit with Colombia is at an all-time high, while US workers and exporters suffer.

Even more frustrating, when asked to address this imbalance, Colombian officials claim that they need the taxes on US products in order to fund the crackdown on drug trafficking to the US by Colombian drug cartels. Colombian drug cartels are the most violent in the western hemisphere and are the ultimate source of violence in US cities - not to mention the lives that are destroyed from drug use.

The disgusting truth is that Colombian drug cartels continually try to bribe Colombian government officials. Colombia will get its money one way or the other, either from taxes on US exports or drug money from the cartels. A Colombian official was overheard saying that it's not Colombia's problem. Families and victims of drug crime and drug overdoses were especially angry at these comments, as everyone should be.

Studies included in the meta-analysis

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CHAPTER III

ESSAY 2: INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONAL VENTING ON THE EFFECT OF CONSUMER ANIMOSITY

ABSTRACT

The developing research stream on consumer animosity illustrates that feelings of animosity towards an offending country can have a negative impact on consumers' consumption of products from that country. As a consequence, brands affiliated with the offending nation can be mired in the negative effects of consumer animosity. However, few research has studied the moderating roles that can mitigate the animosity effect. To address this gap, three studies were conducted to empirically test the moderating role of emotional venting between consumer animosity and relevant consumer behaviors. The pilot study and Study 1 offered strong evidence that emotional venting mitigates the negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy. In Study 2, I replicated this result using donation as the outcome variable in a natural setting and found that venting leads to giving to different types of recipients; participants are more likely to donate to the hostile country.

Keywords: consumer animosity, emotional venting, willingness to buy, donation

While firms carefully cultivate favorable images globally, research on consumer animosity suggests that tensions between countries drive consumer negative emotions that can damage firms linked to the target country (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). Evidence of significant damage to firm sales following animosity incidents is prevalent, suggesting that consumer animosity does affect a large amount of consumers. For example, Japanese car (e.g., Toyota and Honda) sales plunged in China after Diaoyu islands dispute as anti-Japanese sentiment flared over the piece of territory property (Forbes, 2012). Apple reported a disastrous decline in sales in China as rising anger over the US's trade tariff kept excessively aggressive efforts of Chinese consumers to boycott products made in the US (Forbes, 2019). As such, international firms' business performance can be jeopardized as a consequence of consumers' anger toward exporters' home country that gives rise to tensions. Such tensions are likely to continue to arise with few options for firms to respond to them.

In the marketing literature, Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) were the first to relate tensions between countries to consumers' purchase behaviors and bring the concept of consumer animosity to the marketing literature. Consumer animosity was defined as "anger related to previous or ongoing political, military, economic, or diplomatic events." (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998, p. 90) and has been suggested to have a negative impact on consumers' willingness to buy foreign products (e.g., Ettenson & Klein, 2005, Klein, 2002, Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Following Klein and her colleagues, researchers examined consumer animosity in a wide variety of contexts and found that consumers throughout the world may experience animosity toward a foreign country (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). Thus, it is vital for international firm managers who face animosity toward their country to examine ways to counter the negative influence of consumer animosity.

However, despite sizable research in the consumer animosity literature, little research has been conducted on the boundary conditions of the animosity effect. Leonidou, Kvasova, Christodoulides, and Tokar (2019) and Westjohn, Magnusson, Peng, and Jung (forthcoming) were among the few that examined the moderating roles on animosity effect, and both suggest that individual's cultural orientations can significantly moderate the consumer animosity – willingness to buy link. In this current research, I argue that there may be a countervailing force to consumer animosity, namely emotional venting, defined as the tendency to focus on whatever upset one is experiencing and to ventilate those feelings (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Consumer animosity is consumers' anger aimed at a foreign country, and their refusal to purchase products from that country is an expression of this anger (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Harmeling, Magnusson, and Singh (2015) reviewed the measurement scales of consumer animosity and reported that this construct primarily focuses on anger. Besides, Westjohn, Magnusson, Peng, and Jung (forthcoming) suggest that consumer animosity is a fight-focused emotion (dominated by anger) that prompts the desire to exact revenge, leading consumers to eschew products associated with the offending country.

Although such anger promotes retaliatory behaviors, research in psychology has found that the impact of anger can be invalidated via emotional venting. Psychological experts supported that emotional venting may extinguish people's flame of anger and help them achieve a better state (Bushman, Baumeister, & Phillips, 2001). For example, anger rooms are efficient way for people to vent their negative feelings. Also, consumers use the internet as an opportunity to vent their negative feelings (Sparks & Browning, 2010). In the global consumption context, the question arises as to whether consumers are less likely to resist foreign products after venting their anger toward the target country. However, the relative dearth of empirical research on the

impact of emotional venting on animosity – willingness to buy relationship leaves brand managers no clue how to manage the relationship between consumers and firms from the offending foreign country.

Based on this background, the current study extends the consumer animosity literature to examine and identify emotional venting that consumers use to cope with resentment or anger and the corresponding effects. Emotional venting is a distinct consumer coping strategy. Coping refers to people's cognitive and behavioral attempts to manage stressful situations and reduce levels of stress in the context of emotional arousal (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) suggest that people carry a preferred set of coping strategies to each setting, which remain consistent under all circumstances. This perspective is in line with psychological research that emotion may interact with a coordinated set of coping strategies and may affect behaviors (Gross & John, 2003). Furthermore, Westjohn, Magnusson, Peng, and Jung (forthcoming) suggest that a coping mechanism is needed to relieve distress when individuals experience negative emotions. Among the coping strategy inventory, emotional venting has been widely studied with anger and thus is theoretically relevant to animosity coping (e.g., Biaggio, 1987, Bushman, 2002). Therefore, examining the moderating effect of emotional venting provides a broader understanding of the particular contexts in which the effect of animosity is mitigated to influence consumer behaviors.

The current study contributes to the consumer animosity literature by investigating the role of emotional venting in the relation between consumer animosity and relevant behaviors. First, by conducting a pilot study and an experiment in the US, it provides empirical studies to examine emotional venting that could mitigate the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy foreign-made products. Second, this research focused not only on willingness

to buy intentions, but also on a specific consumer behavior (donation) as the outcome variable. I asked participants to make donation decisions as they really would in the real-life during the world Coronavirus 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic in 2020. Besides, I examined the mitigation role of emotional venting in a natural setting and offered a more nuanced understanding of consumer animosity.

The remainder of *Essay 2* proceeds as follows. I begin with a baseline hypothesis of the consumer animosity – willingness to buy relationship. Then I provide a conceptual background of coping strategy and develop the hypothesis explaining how emotional venting moderates the consumer animosity – willingness to buy relationship. Next, I empirically test the proposed hypotheses using three studies. The pilot study uses measured scales and demonstrates that the interaction of emotional venting and consumer animosity is significant on willingness to buy. Following the pilot study, Study 1 replicates this using a scenario-based experiment to validate the results of the pilot study. Next, instead of measuring a broad purchase intention, Study 2 examines the effect of consumer animosity on specific consumer behavior – donation in a naturally occurring setting. Finally, I conclude with theoretical and practical implications.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

The Effect of Animosity

Consumer animosity reflects the hostility toward a foreign country related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). Klein and her colleagues suggested that consumer animosity negatively influence consumers' willingness to buy products from the country toward which animosity is held (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). In particular, they hypothesized that consumers' animosity toward the offending country

would not lead them to denigrate the quality of the products produced in the target country, but would lead them to avoid purchasing. With a sample of Chinese consumers in Nanjing where a terrible massacre fell under the Japanese army, their study provided empirical support that animosity is a powerful predictor of foreign product purchases. Chinese consumers harbor stable animosity toward Japan and thus avoid purchasing Japanese products. The authors concluded that the hostility or animosity toward Japan could lead to a reluctance to buy products made from Japan.

Following Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998), many scholars replicated Klein and her colleagues' study in different cultural contexts. For example, Nijssen and Douglas (2004) suggested that economic and political animosity decreased American consumers' willingness to buy Chinese products. Ettenson and Klein (2005) found that Australian consumers' outrage toward French automobile manufacturers following France's nuclear testing in the South Pacific. Jewish Israelis in reaction against purchasing products marketed by Arab Israelis as the Palestinians' uprising against Israel's occupation of the West Bank and Gaza (Shoham, Davidow, Klein, & Ruvio, 2006). More recently, Harmeling, Magnusson, and Singh (2015) reported that Chinese consumers boycott products made in Japan due to disagreements over Diaoyu island. This research consistently found that consumers hold negative emotions due to international disputes and thus were reluctant to consume the products marketed by a specific foreign country.

Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) provided little theory-based explanations for consumer animosity – willingness to buy relationship. Shoham, Davidow, Klein, and Ruvio (2006) applied balance theory (Heider, 1958) and cognitive consistency theory (Festinger, 1957) to the idea that the sentiment of animosity reduces consumers' willingness to buy products made

from an animosity-evoking country. Based on balance theory and cognitive consistency theory, individuals value harmony among their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Shoham, Davidow, Klein, and Ruvio (2006) argued that the relationships between consumer animosity, product judgment, and willingness to buy are imbalanced with negative and positive relationships between them. The imbalance produces unpleasant tension, and people have the desire to reduce the tension by changing the attitude. Thus, consumers who feel heightened animosity due to disputes between countries would be motivated to alleviate the negative feelings by reducing the consumption of foreign products to restore the balance. Likewise, I hypothesize that consumers who have strong feelings of antagonism toward an offending country would avoid purchasing the products made from that country.

H1: Consumer animosity has a negative effect on willingness to buy products from the offending country.

Consumer Coping Strategies

Coping refers to individuals' cognitive and behavioral attempts to manage stressful situations and reduce stress levels (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). More specifically, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) defined coping as "constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person" (p. 141). The coping strategies are aimed at changing the distressed consumer-environment relationship by regulating the emotions (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987).

Consistent with prior research on coping strategies (e.g., Luce, Bettman, & Payne, 2001, Strizhakova, Tsarenko, & Ruth, 2012), I focus primarily on the manifestations of emotional venting with strong theoretical relevance to consumer animosity. Emotional venting has been

widely studied with anger in psychology. It has been suggested that people can reduce anger and subsequent aggression after venting their negative feelings. As I discussed above, consumer animosity has been dominated by anger, which is an outward negative emotion (Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015, Westjohn, Magnusson, Peng, & Jung, forthcoming), that often engages in proactively coping and promotes the desire to approach and retaliate (Gelbrich & Roschk, 2010) rather than to distance from or avoid the referent. Therefore, I believe it is logical to state that emotional venting is theoretically relevant to animosity.

At the same time, it is viable for firms to provide platforms to enable consumers to vent their emotions about the company's home country towards which the consumers hold animosity. Thus in this essay, I aim to examine how emotional venting affects the negative effect of animosity that is evoked due to tensions between the home country and the offending country. Next, I hypothesize and empirically investigate the effect of emotional venting in the global consumption-related context.

The Moderating Role of Emotional Venting

Emotional venting is the tendency to focus on whatever upset one is experiencing and to ventilate the negative feelings (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). More recently, Duhachek (2005) defined emotional venting as "attempts to recognize and express one's emotions" (p. 46). The coping strategy of emotional venting means some efforts to alter the situation and usually includes displays of displeasure to express one's emotions.

In the psychology literature, scholars suggest that verbalizing negative emotions would grant emotional recovery. People believe that, through venting, one can achieve a release of anger and negative emotions (Biaggio, 1987). Venting one's anger would blow off steam by expressing the negative emotion and thus produce a positive improvement in one's psychological

state. For example, when unpleasant consumption experiences trigger negative feelings, consumers undergo negative emotions such as anger. To reduce the negative feelings, consumers post or vent on online platforms to improve psychological state (Yen & Tang, 2015), and the posting of negative comments is most likely to be as a result of venting (Sparks & Browning, 2010). If people do not let their anger out, it will cause them to end up generating even more anger and explode in an aggressive behavioral outcome. Alternatively, if they are aware of their anger and “letting it out,” people would have a lower level of physiological arousal after expressing their anger (Geen & Quanty, 1977). Thus, it is logical to expect some interaction between anger/animosity and emotional venting with respect to the effect of consumer animosity on consumer behaviors.

In the confrontation with another country, anger is the manifestation of consumer animosity toward a specific foreign country. Consumer animosity reflects a consumer’s anger toward a hostile foreign country (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998). As suggested by Mitchell, Brown, Morris-Villagran, and Villagran (2001), anger focuses individuals on revenge relevant thoughts. Facing the unfair offense, angry consumers are motivated to provoke aggressive revenge on the offending country convicted of the offense. In such settings, with low emotional venting, individuals are likely to bottle their anger up inside. The anger will remain inside and cause psychological damage, leading to subsequent retaliatory behaviors. In other words, low emotional venting is likely to strengthen the association between their anger toward the offending country and product avoidance.

Alternatively, with emotional venting, individuals are likely to regulate their negative emotions by commenting on the incident and openly displaying feelings of displeasure to achieve a feeling of relief (De Matos & Rossi, 2008). Also, venting negative emotions may lead

to a reduction of stressful psychological reactions (Bridges, 2006). In the case of anger toward a foreign country, when consumers apply emotional venting strategy, this activity can buffer anger and improves their psychological state, and purges aggression from consumers' system. This can result in a more favorable evaluation of products from the aggressor country and thus leads to greater behavioral intentions.

In addition, venting through online platforms is considered as having a great reach, and therefore, is considered a very viable option by consumers (Obeidat, Xiao, Iyer, & Nicholson, 2017). Firms could create online platforms such as one-on-one dialog boxes that allow consumers to vent their anger to the firm individually. The aim of venting negative emotions on online platform is to help reduce consumers' anger and solve their problems. A distinction between this venting platform (e.g., one-on-one dialog box) and online complaining is that while consumers complain in public in an attempt to warn others about the negative experience, this venting platform is primarily intended to encourage consumers to express and vent their negative emotions via verbalizing directly to the firm without spreading anger and influencing other consumers.

In sum, emotional venting can help get the anger out of consumers' system, and consumers, therefore, can reduce negative emotions, evaluate the situation less severe, and should thus reduce subsequent aggression. Thus, I argue that by engaging in emotional venting of anger towards the offending country, consumers should diminish anger and decrease products avoidance.

H2: Consumer animosity has a negative effect on willingness to buy products from the offending country; this effect will be mitigated after consumers emotionally venting their anger.

Overview of Studies

In the current research, I examine the impact that emotional venting on the negative effect of animosity on relevant consumer behaviors. Three studies are reported. In the pilot study, I use measured scales and demonstrate that emotional venting significantly reduces the negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy products from the offending foreign country. In Study 1, I replicate the emotional venting effect on consumer animosity – willingness to buy relationship. It provides more clarity about the evidence of a causal relationship by testing my hypotheses using an experiment. In this experiment, I select Colombia as the target of animosity that holds by US consumers. Finally, in Study 2, I not only attempt to replicate the results of Study 1 but also attempt to increase the generalizability by examining consumer donation behavior as the outcome variable in the natural context of the COVID-19 crisis. Thus, in the experiment, I select China as the target of animosity and directly measure participants' animosity without priming their emotions, given the current COVID-19 pandemic causes anger toward China among people in the US.

Pilot Study

The purpose of this study was to test H2 that emotional venting mitigates the effect of animosity on willingness to buy. In this study, I test hypothesis 2 using measured scales of the related constructs. I expect that with emotional venting, angry consumers should be less likely to resist purchasing products made from the target country.

Method

To test the hypotheses empirically, I collected data from MTurk. In total, the online survey generated a sample of 214 (43% female; $M_{age} = 35.63$, $SD_{age} = 10.83$); see Table 3.1.

“Insert Table 3.1 about here”

To ensure there are sufficient animosity emotions in participants, I primed animosity by requesting participants to read a hypothetical scenario about Colombia, as developed by Magnusson, Westjohn, and Sirianni (2019). I selected Colombia as the target of animosity in this study as Colombia has failed demonstrably to reduce the production of cocaine, which makes the US difficult to tackle a domestic drug abuse epidemic that is fueling criminal violence throughout the region (TheEconomist, 2019). Additionally, Colombia is currently the 26th largest supplier of goods imports in 2018, with the top import categories of coffee, tea, and spices (OfficeoftheUnitedStatesTradeRepresentative, 2018). Thus, Colombia is an appropriate choice for the experimental design. Participants were requested to read a scenario that describes drug and trade issues between Colombia and the US. Immediately after the scenario, participants rated consumer animosity by four items adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) ($\alpha = 0.85$), on a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The sample items are, “I dislike Colombia,” and “I feel anger towards Colombia.”

Participants' reports of emotional venting were measured with four items adapted from Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989). Participants were asked to rate whether they would vent negative emotions when experiencing a stressful event. The sample items for emotional venting include “I get upset and let my emotions out,” and “I let my feelings out,” and had strong reliability ($\alpha = 0.84$).

For the measurement of willingness to buy, I drew on well-established scales from the animosity literature (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998) ($\alpha = 0.90$). Participants were asked about their willingness to buy Colombian products in the choice set. Sample items are “I would not feel guilty if I bought a Colombian product,” “I am willing to buy Colombian products,” and “I will not avoid buying Colombian product.” Consistent with prior consumer animosity research, I

control for consumer ethnocentrism, which was defined as a belief that it is inappropriate to purchase foreign products because to do so may damage the domestic economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Consumer ethnocentrism was measured with five items adapted from (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) and had high reliability ($\alpha = 0.91$). Finally, participants reported their age, race, gender, and education. These measures were collected to serve as controls in the analysis. Of these measures, consumer ethnocentrism ($b = 0.61$, $t = 11.79$, $p < 0.001$) and gender ($b = -0.18$, $t = -2.82$, $p = 0.005$) covaried significantly with consumer animosity. This indicates that female consumers and ethnocentric consumers are more likely to harbor animosity toward an offending foreign country. Education covaried significantly with willingness to buy ($b = 0.19$, $t = 3.14$, $p < 0.002$), suggesting that consumers with higher education are less likely to purchase products from foreign countries.

After completing the questionnaire, participants were debriefed and were informed that the scenario about Colombia was hypothetical. In addition, an examination of the dataset suggested that none of the participants were from Colombia, and thus the sample was not biased. A complete list of items is presented in Appendix A. Table 3.2 provides average variance extracted and zero-order correlations of the constructs in this study.

“Insert Table 3.2 about here”

Results

SPSS Statistics 24 was used to assess the validity and reliability of the constructs through a series of psychometric procedures. I conducted an exploratory factor analysis of all the items used to measure consumer animosity, emotional venting, willingness to buy, and consumer ethnocentrism in the model. The analysis produced a four-factor solution, with all items load on their intended constructs, explaining 73.10% of the variance. I then conducted a confirmatory

factor analysis using Mplus 8.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015). Based on the criteria suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999), the sample provided a respectable fit and the resulting fit statistics met commonly accepted thresholds ($\chi^2 = 167.84$, $\chi^2/\text{d.f.} = 1.49$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.05, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.97, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.04). All items loaded significantly on the intended constructs, with loadings ranging from 0.67 to 0.87, indicating unidimensionality and convergent validity.

Second, the composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981, Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) for each construct were also calculated. CR and AVE estimates approached accepted standards for all the constructs. CR for the latent constructs ranges from 0.84 to 0.91. AVE ranges from 0.57 to 0.72. CR and AVE estimate exceeded recommended thresholds (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, Fornell & Larcker, 1981), providing evidence of reliability. Finally, discriminant validity was evident in that all squared correlations were less than the respective variance extracted estimates for all pairs of constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

To test the hypothesized relationships, I used Mplus 8.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015) with self-reported measures of animosity as the predictor, emotional venting as the moderator, and willingness to buy as the outcome variable. As reported by Table 3.3, there was a significant simple main effect for animosity on willingness to buy ($b = -0.60$, $t = -10.08$, $p < 0.001$), which is consistent with the animosity literature and supported H1. In addition, the animosity by emotional venting interaction ($b = 0.21$, $t = 3.11$, $p = 0.002$) was significant, supporting H2. The results indicate that participants' willingness to buy products made from the offending country was significantly higher when they choose to vent their negative emotions; see Figure 3.1.

“Insert Table 3.3 about here”

“Insert Figure 3.1 about here”

Discussion

The results of the pilot study supported hypothesis 2 that emotional venting mitigates the negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy. This study used measured scales of emotional venting. Thus, it is correlational in nature and lacks the evidence of causation. In the next set of studies, I sought to replicate the results of the pilot study through a series of experiments in order to increase the generalizability of the findings. These studies are described next.

Study 1 – Emotional Venting Experiment

The purpose of this study is to establish that the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy would be moderated by emotional venting. Recall that the pilot study used the measured scales of the constructs and found that emotional venting weakens the effect of animosity (H2). To address the limitation of the previous study, this study manipulates animosity as well as emotional venting and measures the effect of animosity on willingness to buy at two conditions. Since emotional venting involves some overt form of emotional expression, I ask participants in the venting condition to write down three sentences to vent their emotions. Those in the control condition were asked to describe a typical day at work or school. As such, Study 1 is a 2 (emotional venting, vs. control) \times continuous, between-subjects design.

Method

I conducted this experiment in the US and recruited 177 participants from Amazon MTurk (45% female; $M_{age} = 37.12$, $SD_{age} = 12.70$). To test the moderating effect of emotional venting, I randomly assigned participants to one of the two between-subjects conditions (emotional venting, vs. control).

As in the pilot study, to ensure there are sufficient angry emotions in participants, I

exposed participants to a hypothetical scenario about Colombia, followed by Magnusson, Westjohn, and Sirianni (2019). Immediately after the scenario, participants rated consumer animosity by four items adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) ($\alpha = 0.89$).

Bendezú, Sarah, and Martha (2016) showed that corresponding coping strategies can be experimentally primed. The authors primed children's avoidance coping by randomly assigning children to an avoidance room free of distraction and a distraction room. Similarly, in this study, I prime participants' coping strategy of emotional venting via randomly assigning participants to either the emotional venting or the control condition, and participants were asked to complete a writing task. In the venting condition, I described the attributes and the benefits of emotional venting and manipulated emotional venting by asking participants to think about venting their anger towards Colombia by posting angry feelings in three sentences, talking through their irritating incidents. Whereas in the control condition, participants described their typical day at work or school in three sentences. Next, participants responded to a measure of emotional venting adapted from Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) ($\alpha = 0.91$), using the same items and response format as in the pilot study. All primes are listed in Appendix B.

Participants next responded to the same four items that were used to measure willingness to buy in the prior study ($\alpha = 0.93$). Finally, participants reported their demographic information. Among the 177 participants, 175 are US citizens, one from Canada and one from Nepal. Thus, the sample is not biased. After completing the questionnaire, participants were debriefed and thanked. In this analysis, I controlled consumer ethnocentrism and demographic variables. None of the controls covaried significantly with willingness to buy and thus are not reported.

Results

To test the manipulation check, I used ANOVA with emotional venting as the dependent

variable; results are presented in Table 3.4. An analysis of the manipulation check for emotional venting indicated that participants in the venting condition ($M_{\text{venting}} = 4.60$) scored higher on emotional venting compared to the control group ($M_{\text{control}} = 4.11$, $F(175) = 4.69$, $p = 0.04$), reflecting that the manipulation of emotional venting was successful.

“Insert Table 3.4 about here”

Hypothesis 2 predicts that emotional venting positively moderated the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy products made from the offending country. To test this prediction, I used model 1 Hayes (2017) PROCESS macro. Animosity was the predictor, the condition (venting versus control) was the moderator, and willingness to buy was the dependent variable. Consistent with the pilot study, the procedure produced a significant main effect of animosity ($b = -0.41$, $t = -3.54$, $p < 0.001$). As I predicted of H2, priming emotional venting weakened the consumer animosity – willingness to buy link. The results showed that emotional venting moderated the effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy ($b = 0.42$, $t = 1.95$, $p = 0.054$) such that emotional venting resulted in higher willingness to buy intentions when animosity level is high; see Table 3.5. As shown in Table 3.6, subsequent spotlight analysis (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991, Fitzsimons, 2008) revealed that the conditional effect of animosity for the control group ($b = -0.61$, $t = -3.93$, $p < 0.001$) is significantly stronger than that for the venting group ($b = -0.19$, $t = -1.19$, $p = 0.24$), which indicates that among participants who vented their anger, the negative effect of animosity disappeared. In other words, when individuals are proactively venting negative emotions, it leads to a weaker effect of animosity on avoidance of products made from the hostile country, in support of H2; see Figure 3.2.

“Insert Table 3.5 about here”

“Insert Table 3.6 about here”

“Insert Figure 3.2 about here”

Discussion

The pilot study demonstrates the moderating effect of measured emotional venting on the effect of consumer animosity. In this study, I manipulated emotional venting and predicted that emotional venting weakened the negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy. The results supported hypothesis 2.

However, the shortcoming of Study 1 is that it examined the effect of consumer animosity and emotional venting on consumers' broad purchase intentions. To directly address the question of whether people's behavior would be changed after venting, I examine a more specific behaviorally oriented outcome variable in Study 2. Study 2 followed a similar procedure to that of Study 1. However, rather than studying the effect of animosity on willingness to buy, I examined the impact of animosity on consumers' donation behaviors in a natural setting.

Study 2 – Emotional Venting Increases Donations to the Offending Country

Study 2 builds on Study 1 by testing the moderating role of emotional venting in a more behaviorally oriented specific domain: donation decisions. It aims to generalize the implications of the research findings of previous studies. Recall that Study 1 primed consumer animosity with the fictitious story about Colombia. However, in this case, I am using the COVID-19 pandemic as an event driving US consumer animosity toward China. According to Forbes (2020), people in the US have been upset and angry with China about the virus, and anger towards China grows as the coronavirus pandemic has spread. Thus, the animosity is naturally occurring and offers a realistic and natural setting for the experiment.

This study helps us understand angry consumers' donation decisions, holding both charitable organizations and the constant sum constant. I design the study task so that

participants had to decide how to allocate the relief fund, providing more rigorous research findings. In this experiment, I selected China as the target of animosity, given the ongoing COVID-19 crisis that has caused tension between the USA and China. I would like to see whether animosity has a consistent negative influence on consumer behaviors under nature settings. Thus, instead of priming animosity, I relied on the presence of naturally occurring animosity towards China during the COVID-19 pandemic and measured consumer animosity directly.

Method

I conducted this experiment in the US, and 267 participants answered the survey on MTurk (36% female; $M_{age} = 36.39$, $SD_{age} = 11.92$). The study session consists of two main parts: (1) a writing exercise on venting one's emotions and (2) responding to a fundraising appeal. Participants were randomly assigned to the two conditions (control and emotional venting). As in Study 1, participants in the venting condition were asked to vent their negative emotions by writing three sentences describing how they let the negative emotions out, while those in the control condition were asked to describe their typical day at work or school. All the participants then rated emotional venting using the same items and response format as in the previous studies ($\alpha = 0.87$). However, unlike Study 1, instead of priming animosity with a hypothetical scenario, I simply measured animosity toward China. The data for Study 2 was collected on April 9th amid the world pandemic, during which people in the US have strong negative sentiments against China. Thus, I took advantage of the naturally occurring animosity among people and did not manipulate participants' emotions in this study. Consumer animosity was measured using the four items adapted from Klein, Ettenson, and Morris (1998) ($\alpha = 0.92$).

Study 1 used willingness to buy as the outcome variable and found that emotional venting

significantly mitigates the animosity – willingness to buy relationship. Study 2 generalizes the results with donation as the dependent variable while also testing the hypothesized moderator of emotional venting. Donation is deemed a prosocial context intimately linked with marketing and can be used for greater generalizability and to test decisions with real-life instances (Cavanaugh, Bettman, & Luce, 2015). Thus, in this study, I would like to explore consumer animosity on donation rather than behavioral intentions.

The donation appeal that participants read listed two beneficiaries: China and Vietnam relief fund, both described as providing immediate relief from suffering from COVID-19. I use China relief and Vietnam relief as the two beneficiaries since both China and Vietnam are developing countries (TheWorldBank, 2019), and the severe level of crisis in both countries may be independently evaluated equally by participants. I expect to see the participants' donation behavior would only be influenced by the priming in the experiment and not the subconscious judgment of the crisis in the two countries. In other words, participants would not perceive China as being more affected by the virus and thus donate a more substantial amount to China relief fund. After the appeal, participants were asked, "imagine you have \$100 dollars to donate, how would you allocate your donation?"(Cavanaugh, Bettman, & Luce, 2015). They then drag the slider handle to select an amount to donate to each of the two countries with random order across participants, and the total amount donated was required to equal 100. The dependent variable measure was dollars allocated to China relief. Finally, participants completed demographic measures. I examined the nationality of the participants. All of them are US citizens, suggesting that this sample is not biased. Consistent with previous studies, I controlled consumer ethnocentrism and demographic variables. Of these controls, income ($b = -0.80$, $t = -2.44$, $p = 0.02$) and education ($b = 4.27$, $t = 2.06$, $p = 0.04$) covaried significantly with donation decisions.

This indicates that consumers with higher education and lower-income are more likely to donate to the offending foreign country.

Results

As stated above, I expect to see the same assessment of the perceived severity of the pandemic crisis in China and Vietnam by the participants. To ascertain that participants perceive China and Vietnam are equally affected by the virus, I measured the perceived severity of the crisis on jobs and health of people in China and Vietnam, and the results showed that there was no significant difference in the perceived effect of the virus on China and Vietnam ($M_{\text{China}} = 5.23$, $M_{\text{Vietnam}} = 5.03$, $t = 1.71$, $p = 0.09$). This indicates that participants did not perceive a significant difference in the influence of COVID-19 on China and Vietnam.

Consistent with Study 1, participants who were in the venting condition rated higher on venting ($M_{\text{venting}} = 4.82$) than those in the control condition ($M_{\text{control}} = 4.45$, $F(265) = 4.33$, $p = 0.04$). The manipulation was successful, see Table 3.7.

“Insert Table 3.7 about here”

Examinations of the amount donated to China versus Vietnam relief funds enabled me to test if emotional venting will lead people to mitigate their anger towards China and thus donate more to China relief. An analysis of variances using donation to China relief as the dependent variable and animosity as the independent variable produced a significant main effect ($b = -5.21$, $t = -6.07$, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, using the manipulation check variable as reported in Table 3.8, the resulting animosity \times venting interaction was statistically significant ($b = 1.17$, $t = 2.37$, $p = 0.02$), meaning that after venting, people donated significantly more money to China relief than those did not vent negative emotions. Subsequent spotlight analysis (Aiken, West, & Reno, 1991, Fitzsimons, 2008) revealed that the addition of venting of negative emotions increased

donation to the country towards which animosity is held. Examining the contrasts, the venting effect for the participants who rated lower on venting ($b = -7.13$, $t = -6.05$, $p < 0.001$) is significantly stronger than that for the participants rated higher on venting ($b = -4.42$, $t = -3.54$, $p < 0.001$); see Table 3.9.

“Insert Table 3.8 about here”

“Insert Table 3.9 about here”

“Insert Figure 3.3 about here”

Discussion

Study 2 bolsters the suggestion that venting of emotions mitigates the negative effect of consumer animosity and provides evidence by examining participants’ donation behaviors. Venting of emotions leads to giving to different types of recipients (i.e., China vs. Vietnam), providing support for the prediction that emotional venting can lead to greater behavior intentions. People who vent anger are more likely to give money afterward to China relief over Vietnam relief than people who do not vent. All the studies show that venting matters; venting of emotions mitigate people’s negative emotions and affect not only people’s willingness to buy the products from the offending country but also their donation behaviors towards the target country.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Theoretical Implication

Essay 2 aimed to empirically examine a hypothesized model of the relationship between consumer animosity on consumer behaviors in the context of an international incident. This research investigated the use of emotional venting, a specific coping strategy that is used by

consumers who experience negative emotions in purchase-related situations in the global context. It set out several hypotheses attempting to understand the association of consumer animosity and emotional venting on willingness to buy and donation decisions. The findings of *Essay 2* offer several theoretical implications.

First, this research enriches consumer animosity by empirically proving that the negative effect of animosity can be countered by emotional venting. To date, the consumer animosity literature has few research that examined potential factors that could eliminate the negative effect of consumer animosity on consumer behaviors. The pilot study of *Essay 2* used measured scales and found that the emotional venting and consumer animosity interaction on willingness to buy was statistically significant. In Study 1 of *Essay 2*, a causal model was developed and tested via an experiment in which I primed consumer animosity and emotional venting. The key moderating factor that affects consumer animosity – willingness to buy was identified in a causal framework. Both studies show that emotional venting offsets the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy foreign-made products. In line with emotional venting literature, individuals verbalize negative feelings, feel psychologically better, and thus evaluate the provocation less severe (Bushman, 2002). In the global consumption context, consumers who apply the coping strategy of emotional venting intentionally get rid of anger by expressing it, which can lead to a positive improvement in their psychological state. Then this can lead to a lower level of tendency to retaliate the target country and greater behavioral intentions, which also translates to a higher likelihood of purchasing products from offending countries. Therefore, the influence of emotional venting suggests that the negative effect of consumer animosity on consumer behaviors could be reduced.

Second, to improve the generalizability of the findings, I conducted an experiment in

Study 2 and tested the effect of emotional venting in the context of donation behavior, using donation as the key outcome variable. The pilot study and Study 1 suggested that emotional venting can be a significant factor that counteracts the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy intentions of products from a foreign country. To generalize the findings, I examined specific consumer behavior in the natural context of the COVID-19 crisis in 2020. The intuitive notion may suggest that consumer animosity would cause people to avoid focusing resources on the foreign country that causes tension. Counterintuitively, the results showed that emotional venting would increase donations or contributions to the foreign country towards which consumers hold animosity. The findings enrich the animosity literature by examining a real-life decision as the outcome variable predicted by consumer animosity and emotional venting.

Third, this research extends the venting literature by examining it in a global consumption context. The psychology literature suggests that venting can improve individuals' psychological state and purges aggression. My findings indicate that emotional venting could mitigate the negative effect of anger, leading to more positive behavioral intentions. Specifically, after emotional venting, consumers have increased purchase intentions of products made from the country towards which consumers hold animosity (Study 1), and are more likely to donate to the hostile country if asked to allocate between two comparable beneficiary countries.

Managerial Implication

Within a domestic and foreign blended cultural context, consumer animosity is an important consumer segmentation criterion for international managers. Consumers hold sentiments of animosity toward a foreign country and hence resist purchasing the products from that country. This behavior could cause significant financial damage on the target firms from the

offending country, and brands could suffer from the weakened relationship between countries and the negative impact of consumer animosity. For example, the American consumers resist against French wines caused a total loss of \$112mn (Chavis & Leslie, 2009) and Japanese carmakers lost revenue of \$250mn in China output because of anti-Japan protests (Reuters, 2012). Thus, the implications of this research apply to those segments of consumers who have negative emotions toward a foreign country.

Essay 2 may suggest that the online community could be an appropriate arena in which to vent anger, considering that consumers cannot verbalize towards a foreign country/government directly. In addition, venting through online platforms is often considered a very viable choice by consumers (Obeidat, Xiao, Iyer, & Nicholson, 2017). Research has suggested that the existence of consumer animosity can have a negative influence on consumers' relationship with firms associated with the target country. Brand managers shall provide approachable platforms to encourage consumers to vent their negative emotions to the firm and find acceptable solutions. Increasing the availability of and accessibility to online platforms where consumers can interact with the firm and release their negative emotions could help reduce the negative impacts of anger. Furthermore, with the impact of modern technologies in shaping consumer behavioral responses to foreign brands, people are more easily to conduct revenge. The damaging effect of animosity on willingness to buy may be even more pronounced in an online environment, given the great power of angry customers to use the internet to cope actively to seek retaliation. Therefore, firms need to proactively monitor the online space to find consumer posts and deal with their negative remarks timely. Also, as mentioned before, firms can create one-on-one dialog boxes for consumers to vent individually. In such case, their anger would not spread in public and influence other consumers.

Finally, non-profit organizations have regularly solicited donations to address global issues and help relieve the people who are suffering from significant loss. Study 2 used the global pandemic as a context within which to test if emotional venting mitigates the negative effect of consumer animosity and affects consumer behaviors. The results suggested that venting leads people to donate to the country towards which they hold animosity. This research has important implications for marketers and policymakers from a foreign country. During a national crisis, the online community could be an effective way for people to vent their negative emotions, which may lead to more positive attitudinal and behavioral intentions. Specifically, policymakers may strategically increase potential donators' contributions via providing online communities and encouraging donators to vent their anger. In sum, the findings underscore the importance of creating platforms for emotional venting in a fundraiser context.

FUTURE RESEARCH AND LIMITATIONS

The consistent evidence across three experiments provide confidence in the findings. Nonetheless, this study is subject to several limitations, which provide avenues for future research. First, the findings of *Essay 2* necessitate the replication of this study in other countries to verify whether the mitigating effect of emotional venting is consistent across countries. Additional data collected from other countries is warranted to confirm the moderating roles of emotional venting. Besides, this research measured the effect of a situational animosity towards an offending foreign country. Future research could examine the mitigation role of emotional venting in a country in which people hold stable animosity (e.g., China and South Korea). Considering that consumer animosity has several dimensions, such as war animosity and

economic animosity, researchers could also investigate the role of emotional venting on the effect of specific dimensions of consumer animosity.

Second, given that individuals' behaviors and judgements may be impacted by cultural values, future research may test whether cultural values influence the moderating effect of emotional venting. For example, Individualism society emphasize speaking one's mind and acting on one's feelings (Hofstede, 2001). However, collectivism society values harmony and avoids confrontation (Hofstede, 2001). It seems that people in individualistic society are more likely to voice up and thus could weaken the effect of emotional venting on animosity – willingness to buy relationship. Further research may also focus on other potential moderators, such as personality traits, personal identifications, etc.

Third, the generalizability of *Essay 2* may be limited due to the nature of the sample, which was made up of MTurk sample. It could be true that the findings may not be applicable to overall consumers. There is a common criticism among scholars that data collected from MTurk shall have low quality as people participate in surveys for money (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013), which calls into question the overall quality of MTurk data. Data collected from consumer labs may provide more precise information on causal relationships.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

This dissertation serves as an in-depth examination of consumer animosity in the context of an international incident. Because of territory disputes (e.g., China and Japan both demanding the Diaoyu Island; India and Pakistan combating for the Kashmir region), economic arguments (e.g., the USA's recent introduction of import tariffs on China), or historical war issues (e.g., Japan conquered South Korea back to 1937), consumers harbor anger and feel strong repulsion toward the offending country. While we highlight the importance of understanding animosity, we also take into account cultural values and coping strategies in influencing angry consumers' behaviors. This dissertation provides needed summary assessments of the effects of consumer animosity and identifies roles that can mitigate those effects.

The first chapter provided an overview of the research areas and the content of the essays. Chapter II presented *Essay 1*, which sets out several hypotheses attempting to understand the association of animosity, cultural values, and willingness to buy. A meta-analysis addressed the inconsistent findings in the animosity literature. Next, causal models were therefore developed and tested via a series of experiments. In Chapter III, *Essay 2* extends the knowledge of animosity and examines the moderating role of emotional venting on the animosity effect. This closing chapter concludes and summarizes the previous chapters.

Specifically, *Essay 1* provided a comprehensive literature review of consumer animosity and addressed the inconsistent results in the consumer animosity literature. It also provided

important insights with regard to the roles of cultural values in influencing the effect of consumer animosity. We used a meta-analysis to aggregate 20 years of research on consumer animosity and found that consumer animosity had a significant negative effect on product judgments. Besides, the meta-analysis results showed that the effect of animosity on willingness to buy is three times stronger than on product judgments. This suggests that animosity would be more influential on people's behaviors compared with cognitive judgments.

Following the meta-analysis, we conducted a series of experiments to examine the moderating role of cultural values on the animosity effect. Previous researchers investigated the effect of consumer animosity based on data collected from one single country, ignoring the potential influence of cultural values. This research examines the role of cultural values in influencing the animosity effect by six experiments, in which we prime individual cultural values. The results offer strong evidence that collectivism and long-term orientation mitigate the negative effects of consumer animosity. The influence of these values suggests that the cultural value profile of the sample population should be considered when interpreting results of studies, especially when comparing results to samples drawn from contrasting cultures.

Essay 2 advances knowledge by exploring the mitigation role of emotional venting on the animosity effect. Consumer animosity reflects consumers' anger when offended by a foreign country and thus avoid purchasing products made from that country. Prior research suggested that emotional venting of negative emotions may help get the anger out of consumers' system and buffer the emotional impact, leading to greater behavior intentions (Sengupta, Balaji, & Krishnan, 2015). By conducting three studies in *Essay 2*, I found that emotional venting significantly mitigates the negative effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy products from the offending country. This research also found that emotional venting leads consumers to

donate a more considerable amount to the country towards which they hold animosity.

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Table 3.1 Sample characteristics

| Characteristics | | Pilot Study | | Study 1 | | Study 2 | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|-------------|------|---------|------|---------|------|
| Sample Size | | 214 | | 177 | | 267 | |
| Average Age | | 35.6 | | 37.1 | | 36.4 | |
| Gender | Male | Freq. | % | Freq. | % | Freq. | % |
| | Female | 122 | 57.0 | 97 | 54.8 | 172 | 64.4 |
| Income | Less than \$24,000 | 92 | 43.0 | 80 | 45.2 | 95 | 35.6 |
| | \$24,000 - \$45,000 | 26 | 12.1 | 18 | 10.2 | 25 | 9.4 |
| | \$45,000 - \$75,000 | 52 | 24.3 | 48 | 27.1 | 49 | 18.4 |
| | \$75,000 - \$120,000 | 75 | 35.0 | 53 | 29.9 | 100 | 37.7 |
| | More than \$120,000 | 42 | 19.6 | 43 | 24.3 | 76 | 28.7 |
| | Less than high school | 18 | 8.4 | 15 | 8.5 | 15 | 5.7 |
| Education | High school | 1 | 0.6 | 1 | 0.4 | 14 | 5.2 |
| | Some college | 14 | 6.5 | 18 | 10.2 | 49 | 18.4 |
| | Bachelor's degree | 51 | 23.8 | 41 | 23.2 | 117 | 46.9 |
| | Master's degree or above | 32 | 15.0 | 34 | 19.2 | 169 | 63.3 |
| | | | | | | 34 | 12.7 |

Note: the analysis was run with gender as a covariate and the results were qualitatively unchanged.

Table 3.2 Correlations and descriptive statistics

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|--------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------|--------|------|------|
| Consumer animosity | 0.77 | | | | | | | |
| Emotional venting | 0.37** | 0.75 | | | | | | |
| Willingness to buy | -0.43** | 0.10 | 0.80 | | | | | |
| CET | 0.53** | 0.37** | -0.20 | 0.85 | | | | |
| Age | 0.07 | -0.18** | -0.06 | -0.10 | - | | | |
| Gender | -0.21** | -0.06 | 0.10 | -0.07 | -0.19 | - | | |
| Income | -0.05 | -0.18** | -0.08 | 0.01 | -0.01 | -0.02 | - | |
| Education | -0.05 | -0.05 | 0.20** | 0.02 | 0.06 | -0.003 | 0.22 | - |
| Mean | 3.19 | 4.46 | 4.46 | 4.10 | 35.63 | 0.57 | 8.03 | 3.78 |
| SD | 1.02 | 1.39 | 1.49 | 1.63 | 10.83 | 0.50 | 4.92 | 0.78 |

Notes: CET = Consumer ethnocentrism, SD = standard deviation.

The diagonal (italicized and bold) represents the square root of AVE.

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (two-tailed).

**Correlation is significant at the .01 level (two-tailed).

Table 3.3 Pilot study - Effect of emotional venting on willingness to buy

| | <i>b</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> |
|--------------------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Animosity | -0.60 | -10.08 | < 0.001 |
| Venting | 0.46 | 4.33 | < 0.001 |
| Venting × Animosity | 0.21 | 3.11 | 0.002 |
| Controls on animosity | | | |
| Age | 0.09 | 1.40 | 0.16 |
| Gender | -0.18 | -2.82 | 0.005 |
| Income | -0.04 | -0.73 | 0.47 |
| Education | -0.08 | -1.38 | 0.17 |
| Consumer ethnocentrism | 0.61 | 11.79 | < 0.001 |
| Controls on willingness to buy | | | |
| Age | 0.04 | 0.70 | 0.48 |
| Gender | -0.03 | -0.51 | -0.61 |
| Income | -0.06 | -1.03 | 0.30 |
| Education | 0.19 | 3.14 | 0.002 |
| Consumer ethnocentrism | 0.01 | 0.13 | 0.90 |

N=214

b = unstandardized regression coefficient.

Venting = Emotional venting

Table 3.4 Study 1 - manipulation check means and p-value

| Primed Conditions | Means | F | p |
|----------------------|-------|------|------|
| Control | 4.11 | | |
| Emotional venting | 4.60 | 4.69 | 0.04 |

Table 3.5 Study 1 Result – conditional effect of venting on willingness to buy

| | <i>b</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> |
|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Animosity | -0.41 | -3.54 | < 0.001 |
| Condition | -0.21 | -0.96 | 0.34 |
| Condition × Animosity | 0.42 | 1.95 | 0.05 |

N=177

b = unstandardized regression coefficient.

Venting= Emotional venting

Table 3.6 Study 1 Result – conditional effect of animosity on willingness to buy

| | Effect | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>LLCI</i> | <i>ULCI</i> |
|---------|--------|----------|----------|-------------|-------------|
| Control | -0.61 | -3.93 | < 0.001 | -0.92 | -0.30 |
| Venting | -0.19 | -1.19 | 0.24 | -0.51 | 0.13 |

N=177

b = unstandardized regression coefficient.

Table 3.7 Study 2 Result - manipulation check means and p-value

| Primed Conditions | Means | F | p |
|----------------------|-------|------|------|
| Control | 4.45 | | |
| Venting | 4.82 | 4.33 | 0.04 |

Venting = Emotional venting

Table 3.8 Study 2 Result – conditional effect of venting on donation

| | <i>b</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> |
|---------------------|----------|----------|----------|
| Animosity | -5.21 | -6.07 | < 0.001 |
| Venting | 1.92 | 1.79 | 0.08 |
| Venting × Animosity | 1.17 | 2.37 | 0.02 |

N=267

b = unstandardized regression coefficient.

Table 3.9 Study 2 Result – conditional effect of animosity on donation

| | Effect | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>LLCI</i> | <i>ULCI</i> |
|--------------|--------|----------|----------|-------------|-------------|
| Low venting | -7.13 | -6.05 | < 0.001 | -9.45 | -4.81 |
| High venting | -4.42 | -3.54 | < 0.001 | -6.87 | -1.96 |

N=267

b = unstandardized regression coefficient.

Figure 3.1 Pilot study - Animosity interaction with emotional venting on willingness to buy

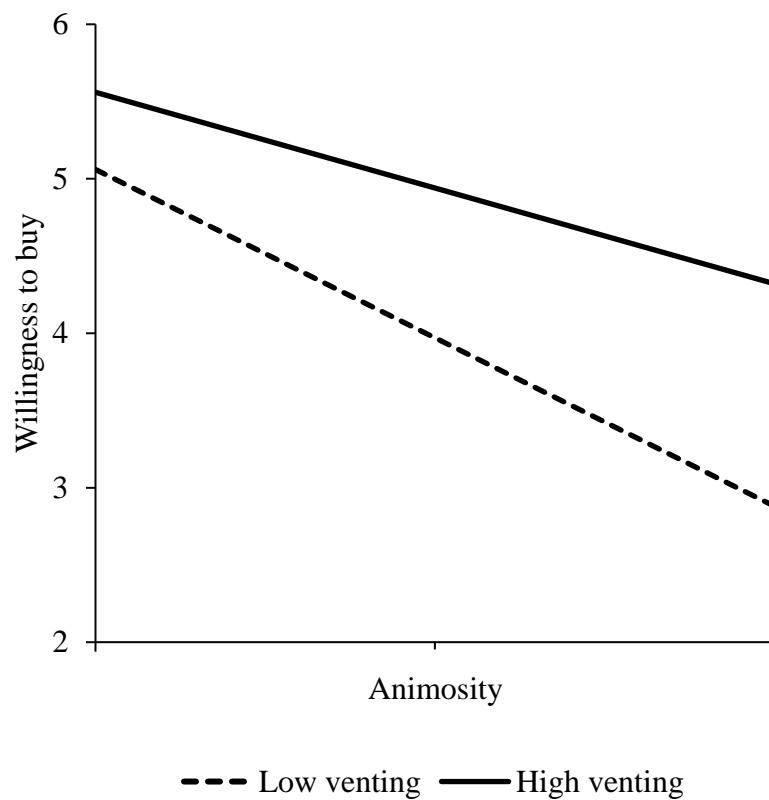


Chart shows animosity and willingness to buy as scaled in their original metric (1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree).

Figure 3.2 Study 1 – Animosity interaction with emotional venting on willingness to buy

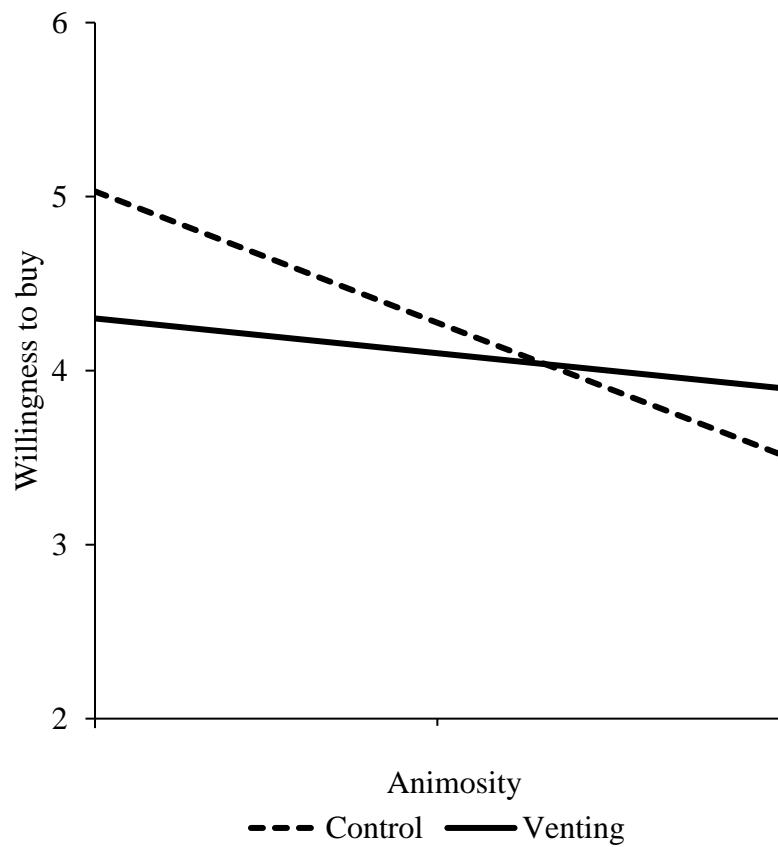


Chart shows animosity and willingness to buy as scaled in their original metric (1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree).

Figure 3.3 Study 2 - Animosity interaction with emotional venting on donation

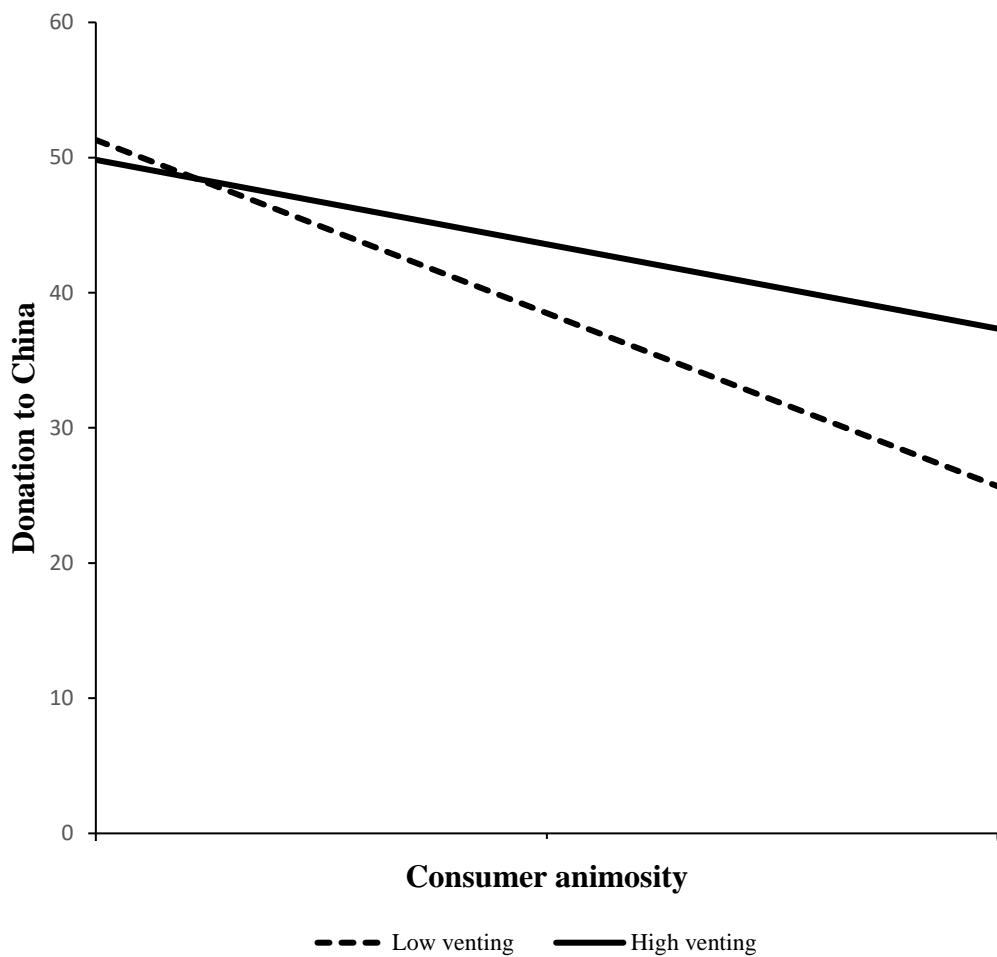


Chart shows animosity as scaled in its original metric (1-strongly disagree to 7 – strongly agree).

APPENDIX A

Scale items and sources

Consumer animosity – adapted from Klein, et al. (1998) and Harmeling, et al. (2015) $\alpha=0.85, 0.89, 0.92$; CR=0.85

I feel anger towards Colombia (China).

The actions of Colombia (China) are very frustrating.

I dislike Colombia (China).

Thinking about the Colombia (China) situation irritates me.

Willingness to buy – adapted from Klein, et al. (1998) $\alpha=0.90, 0.93, 0.92$; CR=0.90

I would not feel guilty if I bought a Colombian (Chinese) product.

I am willing to buy Colombian (Chinese) products.

I would not avoid buying Colombian (Chinese) products.

It would not bother me at all to own Colombian (Chinese) products.

There is nothing wrong with owning Colombian (Chinese) products.

Emotional venting – adapted from Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) $\alpha=0.84, 0.91, 0.87$; CR=0.84

Get upset and let my emotions out.

Let feelings out.

Feel some emotional distress and express my feelings.

Become upset and be aware of it.

Donation – adapted from Cavanaugh, Bettman, and Luce (2015)

How would you allocate your \$100 donation given the country choices below?

Consumer ethnocentrism – adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987) $\alpha=0.91$; CR=0.91

Only those products that are unavailable in the United States should be imported.

USA products, first, last and foremost.

A real American should always buy USA-made products.

Americans should not buy foreign products, because this hurts USA business and causes unemployment.

All items were evaluated on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) scale. α = Cronbach's alpha for the pilot study, Study 2 and Study 3 respectively. CR = composite reliability for the pilot study.

APPENDIX B

Experiments – Animosity and emotional venting Manipulations

Animosity Prime (Adapted from Magnusson, Westjohn, and Sirianni (2019))

As you might know from watching or reading the news, US relations with Colombia have always been tense. In a 2016 poll, Colombians ranked Americans as the worst tourists in their country, and don't seem to appreciate the money Americans spend there, which has always irritated Americans.

What has Americans angry now, is the unfair trade situation. While products from Colombia entering the US face virtually no taxes or fees, US products entering Colombia continue to face high taxes and fees set by Colombia. Many view this arrangement as completely unfair, and it prevents US companies from exporting more products. As a result, the US trade deficit with Colombia is at an all-time high, while US workers and exporters suffer.

Even more frustrating, when asked to address this imbalance, Colombian officials claim that they need the taxes on US products in order to fund the crackdown on drug trafficking to the US by Colombian drug cartels. Colombian drug cartels are the most violent in the western hemisphere and are the ultimate source of violence in US cities - not to mention the lives that are destroyed from drug use.

The disgusting truth is that Colombian drug cartels continually try to bribe Colombian government officials. Colombia will get its money one way or the other, either from taxes on US exports or drug money from the cartels. A Colombian official was overheard saying that it's not Colombia's problem. Families and victims of drug crime and drug overdoses were especially angry at these comments, as everyone should be.

Emotional Venting Prime

Venting of emotions refers to the attempts to recognize and express one's emotions. It's a great way to release suppressed emotions, feelings, and thoughts.

Venting our emotions produces a positive improvement in one's psychological state and has been shown to help us cope with difficult circumstances.

Thinking about China vent any emotions you have, talking through the issue.

Describe your emotions in three sentences. Please write at least 30 characters for each sentence.

Control

Please write three sentences in the boxes below describing a typical day at work or school.

Donation Appeal (Adapted from Cavanaugh, Bettman, & Luce, 2015)

The COVID-19 corona virus is having a devastating impact on people's jobs and health, especially in poor countries like China and Vietnam.

Imagine you have a total of \$100 to donate to a Global Emergency Relief Fund and can direct your funds to specific poor countries.

How would you allocate your \$100 donation given the country choices below?

APPENDIX C

Institutional Review Board Approval Letter



February 19, 2019

Stanford A. Westjohn, Ph.D.
Department of Marketing
Culverhouse College of Business
The University of Alabama
Box 870225

Re: IRB # 18-OR-140-R1 "The Role of Cultural Values on the Effects of Consumer Animosity"

Dear Dr. Westjohn:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your renewal application. Your renewal application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. You have also been granted the requested waiver of one element of informed consent as well as a waiver of documentation of informed consent. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

The approval for your application will lapse on February 18, 2020. If your research will continue beyond this date, please submit a continuing review to the IRB as required by University policy before the lapse. Please note, any modifications made in research design, methodology, or procedures must be submitted to and approved by the IRB before implementation. Please submit a final report form when the study is complete.