

BUY OR BOYCOTT? AN EXAMINATION OF MEDIATED  
CONSUMER ANIMOSITY EFFECTS  
ON PURCHASE INTENTIONS

by

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A DISSERTATION

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to investigate how consumer animosity directly and indirectly affects buying intentions of foreign brands in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis. Theories of social identity and realistic group conflicts served as a theoretical framework to model the impact of consumer animosity on purchase intentions. The results suggest that the stable and situational animosities led to slightly lower product quality assessment while consumer ethnocentrism did not, indicating that the latter is a less significant predictor of product judgment than both animosities. Furthermore, perceived social pressure from significant others has triple capabilities to significantly influence product quality assessment, boycott motivations, and buying intentions. In addition, the impact of animosity on purchase intentions was completely mediated by boycott motivations whereas the impact of consumer ethnocentrism and subjective norm was partially mediated through boycott motivations. By contrast, product judgment was a weaker mediator and only partially mediated the relationship between subjective norm and the intention of purchase. The present study provides theoretical and empirical insights into direct and indirect effects of consumer animosity on purchase intentions, which may be beneficial for both manufacturers and retailers who suffer from the boycott of foreign merchandise.

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

<i>a</i>	Cronbach's index of internal consistency
<i>AVE</i>	Average variance extracted: a measure of the shared or common variance due to measurement error in a latent variable
<i>C.R.</i>	Critical ratio for regression weight
<i>df</i>	Degrees of freedom: number of values free to vary in a particular statistical test or experiment
<i>M</i>	Mean: the sum of observations divided by the number of observations
<i>p</i>	Probability of rejecting the null hypothesis of a research question when that hypothesis is true
<i>r</i>	Pearson product-moment correlation
$R^2$	Squared multiple correlations
<i>SD</i>	Standard deviation
<i>SE</i>	Standard error
<i>t</i>	Computed value of <i>t</i> test
<i>z</i>	Computed value of Sobel test
$\beta$	Path coefficients
$\chi^2$	Computed value of Chi-square

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## **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Introduction**

“Why consumers hate them?” is a question recently proposed by marketing scholars for manufacturers and retailers (Klein et al., 1998). The question is basically an endeavor to activate research that (1) articulates a new conceptualization and definition of customer animosity, (2) investigates whether consumer animosity affect purchase intentions independent of evaluations of product quality, and (3) determines which sources are likely to cause consumer animosity. The attention devoted to consumer animosity by Klein and other scholars is often linked to research into a product of socio-psychological orientation. Nevertheless, the recent efforts made to animosity highlight the idea that consumer animosity has effects on purchase intentions independent from consumer ethnocentrism, which describes the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign products. The research community shares the view that discriminating between consumers who are likely to be ethnocentric (and thus avoid all foreign goods) and those who refuse to buy products from a particular country is vital for international marketers; that is, if levels of animosity toward a producer nation are high, it is likely that traditional ways of increasing market share will be inappropriate or unsuccessful.

Despite extensive research, however, there is not yet a global agreement on the effect of animosity on the evaluation of goods produced by an adverse country. That is, does animosity lead to quality denigration? Furthermore, the literature is still vague as to the mechanism of why consumer

animosity affects a consumer's willingness to buy products otherwise perfectly catered to his needs and desires. It can be assumed that consumers with high levels of animosity are likely to use boycotts to punish a country's action or express their anger or hostility against the country, which in turn influence their purchase intentions. But is this going to be the case for all consumers, no matter how the strength of animosity changes? Also, would increased social pressure be associated with increased animosity strength? Is there relationship of social pressure with consumer motivations for boycott participation?

Therefore, the objective of this dissertation is to conduct an animosity-based analysis of purchase intentions in consumers for particular foreign products. The present study assesses animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm related to evaluations of product quality for consumers. More importantly, the study examines the relative importance of product judgment and boycott motivations for influencing the effect of animosity on purchase intentions. With this in mind, Chapter 1 proceeds to a concrete discussion of the problem under consideration.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Disruption of 2008 Summer Olympic torch relay in Paris attracted an avalanche of worldwide attention. On April 7, 2008, the Olympic torch was forced to be extinguished three times amid protests by pro-Tibet and anti-China activists in the French capital (Spencer et al., 2008). Angry at the scenes in Paris in which one protester attacked a Chinese female wheelchair torchbearer, some Chinese internet users attempted to hit back with a grassroots boycott against French enterprises and goods. Even in Beijing, home to hundreds of French businesses, angry crowds gathered outside Chinese outlets of French retail group Carrefour to protest France's efforts to use the Beijing Olympics to pressure China on human rights and Tibet. Meanwhile, EU business officials warned

that calls in China for a boycott of French products since the chaotic Olympic torch relay in Paris could spark a backlash against Chinese exports.

Tensions between China and France is evidence that consumer animosity matters to international marketers. The investigation of the effect of such bilateral conflicts on consumer behavior towards products from an offending country has received research attention for over a decade (e.g., Ang et al., 2004; Klein et al., 1998; Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004). Numerous studies found that consumer animosity has direct and negative impact on the willingness to purchase particular imported products (e.g., Hinck, 2004; Klein et al., 1998; Shin, 2001). Most animosity related research has been predicted on the assumption that consumers utilize country-of-origin labels to determine their buying behavior of particular brands. Research has found that animosity effects may or may not to be consistent with product evaluations, depending on the degree of animosity and the source of animosity. Moreover, different market segments across the world demonstrate significant animosity effects which are influenced by factors such as prejudice toward certain ethnic groups, dogmatism, traditionalism, patriotism, nationalism, internationalism, socioeconomic status, and personal demographics.

Notwithstanding the fact that China emerged as the fastest growing market for global goods across the world, the academic literature on Chinese consumer animosity has only investigated Japan, a country which committed two major military conflicts with China over the past centuries (Klein et al., 1998; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008). While these studies found evidence that consumer animosity influences their willingness to purchase Japanese products, contradictory findings on the relationship of animosity and product evaluations illustrate that animosity feelings and product judgments arise from the linkages between specific market needs and product attributes.

The existing literature with respect to consumer animosity has been criticized on two grounds. First, it is not clear what is the cause or mechanism which persuades hostile consumers not to purchase. The consequence of this is that there is little empirical evidence to show the dynamics of animosity effects on buying behaviors. Second, it has been criticized for providing an inadequate theoretical framework for the study of cross-national literature. Most researchers on consumer animosity agree that although animosity effects seem to influence consumer behavior, these effects are country specific and may evolve over time. Notwithstanding there has been some evidence that dogmatic or nationalistic consumers tend to refuse to buy a particular country's products, there is no comprehensive theory of why consumers' animosity affects their purchasing behavior.

Both news media and academic researchers have shown that animosity against a country does matter to some consumers. Based on a longitudinal study of Australian negative attitude toward France, Ettenson and Klein (2005) concluded that consumer animosity effects exist over time. Chavis and Leslie (2008) showed that French marketers in the U.S. experienced boycott and as a result a 13% decrease in wine sales over six months due to France's opposition to the Iraq war in 2003. While these evidences that animosity triggered by situational events does have certain effects, there is no active linkage between animosity and purchase behavior, illustrating the blurry mechanism why consumers shun or even boycott particular imported products. Furthermore, there currently exists no adequately theoretical basis for explaining the cause why animosity feelings occur.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

To address these issues, the present research proposes a mediating model to explain the mechanism of animosity effects on the intention of purchase. The model incorporates three areas of

inquiry from the consumer behavior literature. These include the relationships of animosity, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm, the direct effects of animosity in addition to other factors on consumers' attitudes and behavioral intentions, and the indirect effects of these predictors on purchase intentions through mediators of product judgments and boycott motivations.

These constructs of prior research are incorporated based on theories of social identity and realistic group conflict. Social identity theory stated that the contextual salience of social identity may motivate nationalistic behavior of individuals, and national identity shapes subjective norm which in turn influences people's behavior. Realistic group conflict theory provides a social psychological explanation for the origin of animosity against outgroup that is rooted in the competition for interests between groups. Little research has examined the influence that boycott motivations may have on animosity effects on purchase intentions. Far less attention has been given to the possibility that subjective norm may play a dual role in influencing consumer animosity and mediating the effect of animosity on buying willingness.

The aim of this study, therefore, is to contribute to the research of consumer animosity by developing and empirically testing the model of how the mediating mechanism of animosity on purchase intentions works. In this research, Chinese consumers' attitudes toward France and their buying intentions of French products were examined. Animosity toward France is investigated because it is felt that France is ideal for examining the animosity effects on consumers' willingness to purchase foreign products. Recently, disruption of 2008 Summer Olympic torch relay in Paris triggered Chinese negative attitude toward France. Furthermore, angry at the scenes in Paris in which one protester tried to grab the torch carried by a disabled Chinese woman in a wheelchair, some called for boycott of French enterprises and goods.

#### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

A number of consumer behavior studies have been conducted to investigate the direct impact of animosity (e.g., Hinck, 2004; Klein et al., 1998; Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007), types of animosity (Jung et al., 2002), and antecedents of animosity (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Shoham et al., 2006; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008). However, little attention has been given to understand the mediating effects of internal and external factors on the influence of consumer animosity on purchase intentions. Further, research examining the relationship of consumer animosity and ethnocentrism is needed to aid in developing distinct appropriate marketing strategies for international marketers. Since the Chinese market is one of the most dynamic markets in the world, it would be useful to investigate the influence of Chinese consumers' negative attitudes toward foreign countries on buying behavior of imported products. Furthermore, collectivistic Chinese are typically influenced by group norms and values on their behavior. The degree of emphasis placed on norms may explain their tendencies to boycott products from a disliked country. Thus, identifying the effect of boycott motivations and subjective norm on the intention to buy foreign goods will increase understanding of consumer behavior in the context of cross-national animosity.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1 Overview**

The research topic of consumer animosity generally refers to a description of the impact of animosity on consumer purchase decisions. Consumer animosity is reported to negatively influence willingness to buy. There are at least five sources of animosity: war, policy, economy, ecology, and social-cultural activities. Consumer animosity can be investigated through the way it has conceptualized the sources of animosity and the relationships between animosity and other variables. Figure 1 (page 22) shows a four-cell typology for a classification of prior studies regarding their main focus. Although many studies support the findings that consumer ethnocentrism and animosity influence consumer purchase behavior, the relationship between animosity and product judgments has not reached a consensus. This chapter also illustrates the importance of consumer motivations for boycott and subjective norm in consumer animosity and ethnocentrism research. Table 1 summarizes the core findings of the extensive literature review on consumer animosity.

### **2.2 Consumer Animosity**

This part of the dissertation will be dedicated to the conceptualization of the first key construct, that is, consumer animosity. Besides focusing on the concept of consumer animosity itself, past studies on consumer animosity are reviewed. Five sources of animosity are introduced and a typology of animosity research is developed.

### **2.2.1 The Concept of Animosity**

The concept of consumer animosity was considered as part of the general concept of animosity (Klein et al., 1998). Historically, animosity has often been seen as an attitudinal construct that exists in the minds of individuals. Buss (1961) defined the construct of animosity as an attitude that involves the dislike and negative evaluation of others. Spielberger (1988) further stated that it is “a complex set of feelings and attitudes that motivate aggressive and often vindictive behavior” (p. 6). The remarkable features directly related to the animosity construct include the cognitive variables of cynicism, mistrust, and denigration (Miller et al., 1996).

Animosity has been examined as a primary psychosocial variable on physical health for many years (Smith, 1992). Recently, animosity research has been extended to the field of consumer behavior in the context of intranational and international marketing environments (e.g., Ettenson et al., 1998; Jung et al., 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Leong et al., 2008; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Rose et al., 2008; Shimp et al., 2004; Shin, 2001; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008; Witkowski, 2000). Among those, a significant contribution to consumer research has been the establishment of the animosity model of foreign product purchase, which was developed to predict the effects of animosity toward a particular country on the purchase of products produced by that country.

The term of consumer animosity is introduced by Klein et al. (1998) as referring to the “remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events” (p. 90). They conceptually distinguished the construct of consumer animosity and products’ country of origin effect (COO). While COO influences the quality perception of particular products from a country, consumer animosity deals with all products from a particular country regardless of perceived quality. Consequently, people who harbor animosity may avoid purchasing any product associated with an

offending country, even though they do not undervalue the quality of products from that country. In their seminal study, Klein and colleagues provided empirical evidence in support of this argument. By utilizing the Nanjing massacre in which 300,000 Chinese were killed by Japanese forces in 1937 as a historical background for Chinese hostility towards Japan, Klein et al. found that animosity negatively predicted consumers' purchase decisions regardless of product quality judgments.

Subsequent studies showed support for the effects of animosity on consumer purchase behavior in different countries, regions or ethnic groups within one country (e.g., Ang et al. 2004; Klein 2002; Nijssen and Douglas 2004; Shimp et al. 2004; Shin 2001). Despite these consistent reports, evidence in the literature for the relationship between consumer animosity and product quality judgments has been somewhat mixed. The original study by Klein et al. (1998) and further research by others showed that animosity is unrelated to product judgments. By contrast, Ettenson and Klein (2005) found that animosity in the long run seemed to influence product judgments. Similarly, results from Shoham et al.'s (2006) study indicated that animosity has a negative impact on both willingness to buy and evaluations of product quality. Shoham and colleagues explained their findings as being due to the existence of cognitive consistency (Festinger, 1957). This point was echoed by other researchers who indicated that high levels of animosity may affect product judgments (Rose et al., 2008; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008).

**Table 1. A Summary of Consumer Animosity Literature**

Author	Country		Variable		Study type	Data collection			Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable		Subject	N	Rate (%)		
Klein et al. (1998)	China	Japan	Product judgments, willingness to buy, product ownership	Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism	Mall intercepts	Adults	244	50	General, cars, TVs, VCRs, stereos, radios, cameras, refrigerators	Animosity has a significant impact on buying decisions independently of judgments of product quality
Ettenson et al. (1998)	Australia	France	<i>Study 1:</i> Product judgments, willingness to buy <i>Study 2:</i> Product judgments, prior purchase, boycott participation	<i>Study 1:</i> Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism <i>Study 2:</i> Animosity, efficacy, and consumer ethnocentrism	Survey	Adults	<i>Study 1:</i> 268 <i>Study 2:</i> 502	<i>Study 1:</i> 53 <i>Study 2:</i> 55	General	Animosity seems to be a predictor of buying behavior over time. Moreover, animosity predicted judgments of product quality

(continued)

Author	Country		Variable		Study type	Data collection			Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable		Subject	N	Rate (%)		
Klein and Ettenson (1999)	USA	Japan	Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism	Socioeconomic status, personal and economic well-being, prejudice toward Asians, patriotism, and personal demographics	Survey	Adults	2255	NA	NA	Consumer animosity (a nation-specific construct) is conceptually distinct from consumer ethnocentrism (a construct related to foreign goods generally)
Shin (2001)	Korea	Japan	Product judgments, willingness to buy, and product ownership	Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism	Survey	Students	228	91	General	Animosity is negatively associated with willingness to buy while country of origin (i.e. favorable product quality judgments) is positively associated with willingness to buy

*(continued)*

Author	Country		Variable		Data collection			Rate (%)	Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable	Study type	Subject	N			
Klein (2002)	USA	Japan	Product judgments, ownership of a Japanese car	Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism	Survey	Adults	202	56	cars	Animosity toward a foreign nation is related to choices between foreign goods, while consumer ethnocentrism is related to choices between domestic and foreign goods
Jung et al. (2002)	Indonesia Korea Malaysia Singapore Thailand	USA Japan	Stable vs. situational animosity, national vs. personal animosity	Invasion during World War II, Asian economic crisis	Door-to-door interviews	Adults	2000	NA	NA	A typology of animosity was empirically validated across five Asian countries
Nijssen and Douglas (2004)	Netherlands	Germany	Product judgments, reluctance to buy	Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, availability of a domestic brand	Survey	Adults + students	219	40	Cars and TV sets	Animosity and consumer ethnocentrism influence foreign product evaluations, even when no domestic brands are available

*(continued)*

Author	Country		Variable		Data collection			Rate (%)	Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable	Study type	Subject	N			
Ang et al. (2004)	Indonesia Korea Malaysia Singapore Thailand	USA Japan	Consumer ethnocentrism, animosity, attribution	Invasion during World War II, Asian economic crisis	Door-to-door interviews	Adults	2000	NA	NA	Animosity towards the USA was higher than towards Japan with regard to the Asian crisis
Shimp et al. (2004)	USA: South and North	USA: South vs. North	Consumer choice behavior	Regional animosity	<i>Study 1:</i> Survey <i>Study 2:</i> Park intercepts <i>Study 3:</i> Survey	<i>Study 1:</i> Students <i>Study 2:</i> Adults <i>Study 3:</i> Students	<i>Study 1:</i> 79 <i>Study 2:</i> 70 <i>Study 3:</i> 219	NA	Electricity, computers, film processing, ISP, cellular Phone service	Regional animosity influences purchase choice and willingness to pay a price premium for preferred options from one's ingroup (versus outgroup) region
Hinck (2004)	Eastern Germany	Western Germany	Product judgments, willingness to buy	Domestic animosity	Survey	Adults	146	NA	General	Domestic animosity is responsible for a recent cross-segmental preference reversal in eastern Germany

(continued)

Author	Country		Variable		Study type	Data collection			Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable		Subject	N	Rate (%)		
Ettenson and Klein (2005)	Australia	France	<i>Study 1:</i> Product judgments, willingness to buy <i>Study 2:</i> Product judgments, prior purchase, boycott participation	<i>Study 1:</i> Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism <i>Study 2:</i> Animosity, efficacy, and consumer ethnocentrism	Survey	Adults	<i>Study 1:</i> 261 <i>Study 2:</i> 329	<i>Study 1:</i> 53 <i>Study 2:</i> 55	<i>Study 1:</i> General <i>Study 2:</i> Wine, champagne, perfume, cosmetics, jewelry, and apparel	Australian consumers have strong negative affect toward France over time, which in turn, had negative marketplace consequences for French products
Russell and Russell (2006)	USA France	USA vs. France	Ethnocentrism, movie choice, attitude, involvement	Animosity, cultural salience	Experiment	Students	<i>Study 1:</i> 251 <i>Study 2:</i> 253 <i>Study 3:</i> 120	NA	Movie	Results showed the effects of animosity and cultural salience on consumers' reactions to domestic versus foreign products

(continued)

Author	Country		Variable		Data collection			Rate (%)	Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable	Study type	Subject	N			
Shoham et al. (2006)	Israel: Jewish Israelis	Israel: Arab Israelis	Animosity, product quality judgments, willingness to buy, purchase behavior change	Dogmatism, nationalism, and internationalism	Mall intercepts	Adults	135	82	Bread and pastry, olives and olive oil, car service and repairs, restaurants, tourism, and fruits and vegetables	Dogmatism, nationalism, and internationalism affect animosity, which in turn predicts willingness to buy and actual purchase behavior in Jewish Israelis. Animosity also predicts product judgments
Rice and Wongtada (2007)	NA	NA	Response to foreign brand	Country-specific attitude, general attitudes, brand-specific attitude	Qualitative	NA	NA	NA	NA	Conceptualized consumer response to foreign brands in the context of animosity, consumer ethnocentrism and antiglobalization

(continued)

Author	Country		Variable		Study type	Data collection			Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable		Subject	N	Rate (%)		
Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007)	Austria	USA Germany Turkey Greece Spain Italy	Animosity	Warlike events, political disputes, economic issues, personal experiences	Survey	Adults	89	NA	NA	Consumers differ in their animosity targets, and there may be a number of different reasons causing animosity such as economic, political, religious or personal
Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007)	Greece	Turkey	Animosity, economic animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, product quality judgments, willingness to buy	Age, education, foreign languages, residence, sex	Mall intercepts	Adults	430	NA	General	Results showed the impact of personal characteristics on the animosity towards products originating in a specific country
Edwards et al. (2007)	Australia and New Zealand	France	Animosity	B2B, B2C, entry mode	Survey	Firms	100	22	NA	Consumer animosity model can be applied to industrial markets

(continued)

Author	Country		Variable		Data collection			Rate (%)	Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable	Study type	Subject	N			
Tian and Pasadeos (2008)	China	Japan	War animosity, economic animosity, product judgments, willingness to buy	Traditionalism, patriotism, nationalism, internationalism	Survey	Adults	297	37	General, cars	Traditionalism, patriotism, nationalism and internationalism affect animosity; only war animosity negatively predicts product judgments
Amine (2008)	USA France	USA vs. France	Attitudes about objects, attitudes toward behavioral intentions	COO effects, animosity, time effects	Thick description	NA	NA	NA	NA	Results revealed the complexity of real-life interactions between COO effects and animosity and fluctuating levels of animosity and COO effects over time

(continued)

Author	Country		Variable		Data collection			Rate (%)	Product category	Findings
	Home country	Target country	Dependent variable	Independent variable	Study type	Subject	N			
Leong et al. (2008)	Indonesia Malaysia Singapore Korea Thailand	USA Japan	Situational animosity, cognitive judgments, affective evaluations, willingness to buy	External attribution, external control, stable animosity, situational animosity	Door-to-door interviews	Adults	2000	NA	General	Affective and cognitive judgments were negatively influenced by situational animosity but not by stable animosity. Situational animosity was increased by external attribution, perceived external control, and stable animosity
Rose et al. (2008)	Israel	UK Italy	Product judgments, willingness to buy	Animosity, consumer ethnocentrism	Mall intercepts	Adults	<i>Arab Israelis:</i> 112 <i>Jewish Israelis:</i> 111	<i>Arab Israelis:</i> 86 <i>Jewish Israelis:</i> 96	General	Animosity was higher among Arab Israelis toward Britain than Jewish Israelis and levels of animosity toward Italy did not differ. High levels of animosity affected product judgments

### 2.2.2 Sources of Animosity

Rice and Wongtada (2007) identified five sources of animosity mentioned in the literature: war, policy, economy, ecology, and social-cultural activities.

**War animosity.** Existing literature indicated that both historical warlike events and current military conflicts can generate animosity towards a country (Klein et al., 1998). For example, Hirschman (1981) found that Jewish consumers were reluctant to buy German-made products. Similarly, the boycott of Japanese products by Chinese and Korean consumers due to the atrocities of the Japanese military during World War II was also observed (Klein et al., 1998; Shin, 2001; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008). Likewise, it is reported that Jewish Israelis did think twice when they purchase Arab Israelis' products after the second Arab Intifada in 2000 (Shoham et al., 2006). It also seems that Iraqi consumers tended to shun the purchase of American products because of the recent occupation of Iraq although they consider U.S. products to be of high quality (Kirschbaum, 2003). Indeed, people in many countries, especially in the Muslim world, Europe, and Asia, had an unfavorable view of the U.S. because of the US-led invasion of Iraq (Pew Research Center, 2005). According to a 2003 survey of global attitudes by the Leo Burnett advertising agency in India, China, South Korea, Indonesia, and the Philippines, one out of four people said they were reluctant to buy American products (Johanssen, 2004). On the other side, fearing for their safety as a result of widely reported animosity over Iraq war forced the U.S. consumers to change their patterns of foreign travel since 2002 (Amine, 2008).

**Policy animosity.** Rice and Wongtada (2007) distinguished policy animosity from war animosity as it arises from hostility toward a country's foreign or domestic policies. These policies are implemented and enforced through non-military actions such as diplomatic and legal activity. For

example, the threat of French President Sarkozy to boycott the Beijing Olympics and the Paris leg of the Olympic torch relay disruptions led to a Chinese call for a boycott of French goods (O'Connor et al., 2008). Likewise, American consumers harbor animosity towards China because of various political and diplomatic disputes such as human rights and Taiwan's identity (Witkowski, 2000). In Greece, consumers were found to avoid products from countries that do not support their policies in Cyprus (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004). Serbian enterprises and goods in Kosovo have also experienced boycott among Albanians because of Serbia's policy against Kosovo independence (Call for boycott of Serbian products, 2006).

**Economic animosity.** According to Klein et al. (1998), economic animosity arises from a foreign country's economic acts that a consumer finds both grievous and difficult to forgive. Feelings of economic animosity toward other countries might be based on anger against unfair economic affairs or on fear of being dominated (Rice and Wongtada, 2007). In the case of the former, for example, American consumers in the 1980s and early 1990s displayed strong discontentment against Japan for the phenomenal success of imported Japanese cars, which were believed to cause job losses in the US car industry (Amine, 2008). This type of economic animosity sparked by perceived unfair trading practices was also observed in other country dyads such as the US and China, the US and Mexico, and the US and Russia. In the case of the latter, people in small countries with high levels of foreign trade may be uneasy about the dominance of the power of larger economies. These feelings, for instance, resulted in the Netherlands consumers' negative attitudes towards products from Germany and reluctance to purchase German goods (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004).

**Ecological animosity.** Issues of ecological concern can result in anxiety and animosity among

consumers towards alien races or foreign countries. For example, French nuclear testing in the South Pacific led to growing negative attitudes among Australian consumers towards France and increased their motivation for boycotting French products (Edwards et al., 2007; Ettenson et al., 1998; Ettenson and Klein, 2005). Ecological animosity might also be triggered by some countries' certain unfriendly treatment of animals. For instance, whale conservation groups around the world have been calling for consumers to boycott Japanese products because Japanese continue to kill whales.

**Social-cultural animosity.** Consumers may experience negative emotions such as discontent, worry, and animosity when they feel their own cultures are threatened by invasion of foreign brands related to other cultures. An example is when the Iraqi people resist the cultural hegemony of America and its allies. According to Rice and Wongtada (2007), social-cultural animosity also includes religious animosity which could stem from religious differences. Klein (2002) indicated that religious animosity is widely prevalent throughout India. Shoham et al. (2006) found that religion is a potential source of animosity in Turkey. Heathcote (2006) reported that Arab nations' outrage against Denmark over the publication of Mohammed caricatures in a Danish newspaper caused tensions between countries or even armed conflicts. There is also animosity between the West and the East that is the consequence of social and cultural development. However, as Rice and Wongtada (2007) put it, "it is difficult to determine whether the basis for these observed animosities arises because of policies adopted by governments denominated by particular religious ideologies rather than because of religion per se."

### **2.2.3 A Typology of Animosity**

There are two major conduits to conceptualize the variation in consumer animosity. The first distinction between stable and situational animosities pertains to variations in their sources of

manifestation. The second variation in the function of animosity relates to the relationships of cause-and-effect between the independent and dependent variables. Based on the two variations, a four-cell typology can be developed that suits the context of consumer animosity from previous studies regarding their main focus (see Figure 1). The typology is valuable because it provides a framework for understanding existing research on animosity regarding the way it has conceptualized animosity and the relationships between animosity and other variables.

<b>Figure 1. A Typology of Animosity Research</b>		
	Dependent Variable	Independent Variable
Stable Animosity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Jung et al. (2002)</li> <li>● Ang et al. (2004)</li> <li>● Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007)</li> <li>● Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007)</li> <li>● Tian and Pasadeos (2008)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Klein et al. (1998)</li> <li>● Shin (2001)</li> <li>● Klein (2002)</li> <li>● Nijssen and Douglas (2004)</li> <li>● Shimp et al. (2004)</li> <li>● Rice and Wongtada (2007)</li> <li>● Tian and Pasadeos (2008)</li> <li>● Leong et al. (2008)</li> <li>● Rose et al. (2008)</li> </ul>
Situational Animosity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Klein and Ettenson (1999)</li> <li>● Jung et al. (2002)</li> <li>● Ang et al. (2004)</li> <li>● Shoham et al. (2006)</li> <li>● Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007)</li> <li>● Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007)</li> <li>● Edwards et al. (2007)</li> <li>● Tian and Pasadeos (2008)</li> <li>● Leong et al. (2008)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Ettenson et al. (1998)</li> <li>● Klein (2002)</li> <li>● Nijssen and Douglas (2004)</li> <li>● Hinck (2004)</li> <li>● Russell and Russell (2006)</li> <li>● Shoham et al. (2006)</li> <li>● Rice and Wongtada (2007)</li> <li>● Tian and Pasadeos (2008)</li> <li>● Amine (2008)</li> <li>● Leong et al. (2008)</li> <li>● Rose et al. (2008)</li> </ul>

Certainly assessing and classifying previous animosity studies based on this typology is not an unequivocal task. Some studies can be put into more than one category as the concept of animosity has been operationalized across dimensions. For example, when referring to China's anti-Japanese

sentiments, these are likely to cover present situation-specific issues but might also be based on a long history of war between the two countries. For purposes of consistency, all studies are classified according to the definition of animosity used by Jung et al. (2002) and the approach taken by Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) which are discussed in the next section.

### **2.2.3.1 Stable versus Situational Animosity**

Because animosity can be investigated by examining the function of its sources, two concepts of animosity can be specified: stable animosity and situational animosity (Jung et al., 2002; Ang et al., 2004). This terminological and conceptual distinction follows the Jung et al. (2002) suggestion that animosity works both as a long-lasting and cumulative emotional antagonism, which is equivalent to the concept of stable animosity, and as the negative feelings arising from a particular episode, which is equivalent to situational animosity. Similarly, Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) differentiated stable animosity as “being based on general historical perspectives” and situational animosity as being “situation-specific and of a temporary nature” (p. 98).

According to Jung et al. (2004), stable-situational dichotomy is more efficient and generalizable than previous accounts since the parties on both sides accommodate various sources of animosity. For example, some US consumers may refuse to buy Chinese products because of their situational economic animosity sparked by the trade deficit with China, while others may harbor situational political animosity toward China due to its Darfur foreign policy which has been criticized by the West for supporting the Sudanese regime. From whatever sources of animosity, all these researchers are able to classify animosity into stable and situational animosities and linkages between them. Leong et al. (2008) summarized the perspective that all these studies share the belief that distinct animosities work through different mechanisms to reduce consumer willingness to buy products

from perceived targets of hostility. Therefore, a concept explication of animosity must take into account both kinds of animosity and link them with suitable sources.

**Stable animosity.** Jung et al. (2002) conceptually defined stable animosity as “general antagonistic emotions accumulated over the years because of historical events such as previous economic or military hostilities between countries” (p. 527). Viewing stable animosity as permanent and deep-rooted, Jung et al. argued that it is not a natural or inherent tendency that arises from a personality trait. Instead, it is likely to be “initiated by an external specific event, but over time, the accumulation of other events compounds the animosity, making it more enduring” (p. 527).

Within the animosity literature, most war-related events examined fall in the category of stable animosity as they are based on historic events reaching from World War II back to Greek-Turkish clashes a thousand years ago (Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). However, stable animosity could arise not only from military events but also from socio-cultural issues. As observed by Rice and Wongtada (2007), certain religious animosities exist between the Muslim world and Israel and between the West and Iran.

Stable animosity serves as a barrier against the expansion of international marketing because it reduced willingness to buy products from perceived hostile national entity (Ang et al., 2004). Unlike consumer ethnocentrism, stable animosity may or may not influence the evaluations of foreign product quality (Ang et al., 2004; Rose et al., 2008; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008).

**Situational animosity.** Situational animosity is defined as “strong emotions of enmity associated with a specific circumstance at hand” (Jung et al., 2002, p. 527). Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) employed the concept of situational animosity to describe how consumers make sense of most current economic, political, or diplomatic negative feelings. They conceptually

defined situational animosity as temporary negative sentiments caused by specific circumstance. For example, Ang et al. (2004) take the 1997 Asia economic crisis as the reason for consumer animosity among five Asian countries toward the U.S. and Japan. More recently, disruption of 2008 Summer Olympic torch relay in Paris is another non-economic example in which situational animosity may arise. Reactions toward a Chinese wheelchair torchbearer attacked by protesters and the Olympic flame extinguished in Paris created resentment toward France specific to the Beijing Olympic crisis (Times, 2008).

Whereas most stable animosity feelings are a result of certain war-based atrocities, situational animosity which has a significant impact on buying behavior can also arise from present or recent military incidents. In particular, the Iraq war elicited contemporary public animosity toward the U.S. and spurred a worldwide boycott of American products (James, 2003). Similarly, the impact of the second Intifada on Israeli Jews' purchase intentions is evidenced by the study of Shoham et al. (2006), who reported that the recent conflicts have exacerbated the existing animosity between Israeli Jews and Arabs, causing reduced purchases of Arab products and services by Jewish consumers.

Situational animosity may become stable over time as it evolves into an ingrained hostility toward a specific country (Jung et al., 2002; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007). For example, events such as the partition of India in 1947 may initially lead to temporary animosities between India and Pakistan, however, the latter might be momentous that they subsequently persist for decades and passed from generation to generation.

### **2.2.3.2 Animosity as Dependent and Independent Variables**

In addition to classifying studies regarding their focus on stable or situational animosity,

animosity research can be broken down into research examining animosity as independent or dependent variables. Studies of animosity as dependent variables have examined the role of various factors in influencing the strength or modification of animosity. At the stable level, consumer animosity toward a particular country may be influenced by cultural and religious practices or personal beliefs and values (e.g., Rice and Wongtada, 2007; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008) and by prejudice toward certain ethnic groups (e.g., Klein and Ettenson, 1999). At the situational level, animosity as the dependent variable is examined by researchers using mainly attribution theory (e.g., Leong et al., 2008).

In many cases, animosity has typically been studied as an independent variable in the field of consumer behavior. Analyses for purchase intentions of the consumer indicated that both stable animosity and situational animosity have negative effects on willingness to buy (Ang et al., 2004). Consequently, the question emerges as to whether there are any factors mediating the effect of animosity? As for the evaluation of foreign products, Tian and Pasadeos (2008) found that war and economic animosities had differing effects on product judgments. So the question becomes, do consumers who harbor stable animosity or situational animosity toward an offending country denigrate the quality of that country's products?

#### **2.2.3.2.1 Stable Animosity as a Dependent Variable**

Although many researchers have examined extrinsic and intrinsic factors influencing consumer animosity (e.g., Ang et al., 2004; Jung et al., 2002; Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007; Riefler and Diamantopoulos, 2007; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008), no evidence has yet been systematically collected about how various factors impact the strength and modification of stable animosity. Based on previous research, only two categories of determinants which

potentially influence stable animosity have been reported: 1) personal beliefs and values 2) and demographics.

For an examination of stable animosity as the dependent variable, the factors of personal beliefs and values may include traditionalism, patriotism, nationalism, and internationalism. Tian and Pasadeos (2008) put forward the argument that traditionalism, defined as adherence to tradition as authority, is positively related to stable animosity. Their logic was rooted in earlier studies that dealt with traditionalism in general. For instance, several authors contended that traditionalism is not only negatively related to open-mindedness and internationalism, but also acts as a counteractive force to the efforts of cooperation across countries (Hwang, 2003; Smith, 1971). Empirical supports for a positive relationship between patriotism, nationalism and stable animosity as well as for a negative relationship between internationalism and stable animosity are also provided by the study of Tian and Pasadeos (2008).

Stable animosity related studies have also looked at the demographics of the respondents as a separate set of predictors. The main advantage of using demographic variables is their easy way to segment consumers in conformity to their attitude toward foreign goods. Within the animosity literature, hypotheses predicting that consumer demographics such as age, education, foreign languages, residence, sex influence their animosity levels were partially supported. For example, Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007) found that younger consumers were less likely to hold stable animosity while better-educated consumers have higher animosity levels in comparison with consumers with less education. However, there is empirical evidence to the contrary. For example, Tian and Pasadeos (2008) found that demographics of the respondents would not have a significant influence on their animosity feelings.

### **2.2.3.2.2 Stable Animosity as an Independent Variable**

Conceptualizations of stable animosity developed by Jung et al. (2002) made it possible to examine stable animosity as the independent variable. These studies are highly appropriate when it comes to examining stable history-related animosity as the predictor of consumer buying behavior. The primary outcome of these studies is whether stable animosity causes resistance to purchase foreign products. Researchers have used different constructs such as willingness to buy products (Klein et al., 1998; Leong et al., 2008; Rose et al., 2008; Shin, 2001; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008), willingness to pay a premium (Shimp et al., 2004), product ownership (Klein et al., 1998; Shin, 2001), reluctance to buy (Nijssen and Douglas, 2004), and response to foreign brand (Rice and Wongtada, 2007). All these studies found strong statistical evidence for stable animosity toward an offending country reducing consumer willingness to buy that country's products.

Studies that have examined the effect of stable animosity on product judgments can be grouped into two categories. Researchers in the first group have conceptually defined stable animosity as an independent variable having no significant impact on product judgments (Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Shin, 2001). To a large degree, they distinguished consumer ethnocentrism from animosity because the former is significantly related to both product judgments and purchase intentions while the impact of the latter on buying are independent of consumer evaluations of the target country's product quality (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Klein et al., 1998).

The second group of studies has conceptualized and measured stable animosity as the independent variable and product judgments as the dependent variable (Leong et al., 2008; Rose et al., 2008; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008). These studies showed that the quality of foreign products might be underrated by consumers who hold high levels of stable animosity (Rose et al., 2008; Tian and

Pasadeos, 2008). It is also important to note that Leong et al.'s research (2008) is the only study conceptualizing and measuring stable animosity as the independent variable and situational animosity as the dependent variable. Using Japanese occupation during World War II as a stable factor and the 1997 Asian economic crisis as a situational factor, Leong et al. found that Asians' stable animosity exacerbates their situational animosity based on present or recent events. These findings make valuable contributions to using animosity as a framework to understand consumer purchase behavior.

#### **2.2.3.2.3 Situational Animosity as a Dependent Variable**

Similar to the previous group, studies on situational animosity as a dependent variable conceptualized a relationship between various factors as the independent and situational animosity as the dependent variable. These studies focused on situational animosity influenced by business mode and economy (Ang et al., 2004; Edwards et al., 2007; Klein and Ettenson, 1999), racial prejudice (Klein and Ettenson, 1999), socio-psychological attribution (Leong et al., 2008), personal beliefs and values (Shoham et al., 2006; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008), and demographics (Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Nakos and Hajidimitriou, 2007).

More in detail, Ang et al.'s (2004) study of five Asian countries showed that the Asian economic crisis caused a higher level of situational animosity toward the United States than toward Japan. Using French nuclear testing in the South Pacific in 1995 as a triggering source, Edwards et al. (2007) found that entry mode of French firms in Australian and New Zealand industrial markets can influence the experience of animosity and business-to-business (B2B) firms were less likely to cause situational animosity compared to business-to-consumer (B2C) firms. Research on the differences of animosity and consumer ethnocentrism has reported that racial prejudice toward Asians predicted

situational animosity toward Japan among U.S. consumers (Klein and Ettenson, 1999). However, a direct measure of attitudes toward Asian Americans rather than toward Asians limited the generalizability of racial prejudice as a predictor of consumer animosity.

A study by Leong et al. (2008), carried out after the 1997 Asia economic crisis, found that Asian consumers' external attribution and external controllability influenced positively situational animosity toward the USA. The researchers concluded that the attributional process which links attribution and consumer emotions such as anger and hostility influences consumer willingness to buy foreign products. Their findings about the relationship between attributional inferences and animosity levels provide empirical support for the proposition that people in Asian collectivistic cultures tend to make external inferences (Moris and Peng, 1994). Analysis of the findings of this study suggested that social psychological factors like collectivism/individualism could exert influence on consumer animosity. Similarly, other personal beliefs and values such as dogmatism, traditionalism, patriotism, nationalism, and internationalism have also been found to affect situational animosity (Shoham et al., 2006; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008).

Examining of consumer demographics over again showed the lack of conclusive results in the literature with respect to its predictive role of situational animosity. For instance, Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007) revealed that education was a significant predictor of situational animosity which is inconsistent with prior research (Klein and Ettenson, 1999). The contradictory findings among these illustrate that differing effects of demographics on situational animosity is country-specific in a certain given geographical or historical context. On all accounts, the above discussion calls into question whether it is demographics that act as one of the predictors of either stable animosity or situational animosity. In the case of animosity research, the researcher feels that

the most appropriate answer on demographics as a variable is that demographics is a good way to describe rather than to forecast identified outcomes (Beane and Ennis, 1987).

#### **2.2.3.2.4 Situational Animosity as an independent Variable**

Similarly with stable animosity as an independent variable, situational animosity have been empirically linked with buying behavior as well as evaluations of product quality (e.g., Amine, 2008; Ettenson et al., 1998; Leong et al., 2008; Rose et al., 2008; Shoham et al., 2006; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008). Cumulative research evidence dictated that the consumer under a boycott seeks and receives psychological balance from the undervaluation of product quality. Ettenson et al. (1998), for example, discovered that animosity in Australian consumers based on the 1995 French nuclear testing seems to be a persisting predictor of buying behavior over time. Furthermore, those who refuse to buy French products tend to denigrate the quality of French goods after one year of the nuclear testing. To further find an explicit and direct link between situational animosity as the independent variable and product judgments, one can turn to the social psychology literature. Festinger (1957), for example, noted that people are inclined to seek consistency in their attitudes and beliefs in any situation where certain cognitions are incongruous, even if that may lead to irrational kinds of actions. Therefore, the tendency to harmony and consistency among those who harbor strong animosity toward an offending country could result in product quality denigration and hence reluctance to buy.

In a large scale survey of 2000 adults of five countries (Indonesia, Malaysia, Singapore, Korea, and Thailand), Leong et al. (2008) conceptually defined situational animosity in an international economic crisis as an independent variable, influencing both product judgments and buying intentions. They found that the effect of situational animosity on evaluations of the performance of products can be broken down into two dimensions: affective evaluations and cognitive judgments.

They therefore measured the influence of situational animosity from both cognitive and affective responses. On the one hand, they were concerned how much consumers do emotionally like products from the target countries. On the other hand, they explored consumer perceptions with respect to various product attributes. Their results showed that situational animosity negatively predicts both affective evaluations and cognitive judgments. Further, the effect on the former was much higher than for the latter. These findings are consistent with Shoham et al.'s (2006) results, which revealed consumer animosity based on situational armed conflicts inversely predicts product judgments. Shoham et al. identified the impact of inter-ethnic animosity on purchase behaviors in domestic settings.

### **2.3 Consumer Ethnocentrism**

Ethnocentrism is seen a component of attitude that is strongly affiliated with social and interracial factors. This part will review prior research on the construct of consumer ethnocentrism and the measurement issues. In addition, the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and animosity are analyzed.

#### **2.3.1 The Concept of Consumer Ethnocentrism**

Consumer ethnocentrism is derived from the general psychological concept of ethnocentrism, which is rooted deeply in most areas of inter-group relations (Lewis, 1976; Shimp and Sharma, 1987). First introduced by Sumner (1906), ethnocentrism is described as the tendency to view their own group as superior to others and thus to reject those which are dissimilar while accepting those which are similar. From this general framework, Shimp and Sharma (1987) defined consumer ethnocentrism as the beliefs held by consumers about the propriety and morality of purchasing foreign products. It has been further stated that people who are consumer ethnocentric tend to

distinguish products from the in-group (home country) and from out-groups (foreign countries) and to shun the purchase of foreign products because they feel that doing so is inappropriate, unpatriotic, and possibly even immoral because it hurts their domestic economy. As such, highly ethnocentric consumers are more likely to rate foreign products' quality negatively and be willing to purchase domestic products (Shimp and Sharma, 1987). The magnitude of consumer ethnocentrism is measured by the CETSCALE (Consumer Ethnocentric Tendencies Scale), which has been developed and validated by Shimp and Sharma (1987).

### **2.3.2 Relationship between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Animosity**

Klein and Ettenson (1999) indicated that consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity may be positively correlated. Both can stem from economic and political events and both provide insight into consumers' attitudes towards foreign products. Empirical evidence also suggest that both animosity and consumer ethnocentrism negatively predict purchase intentions. However, animosity is a distinct construct from consumer ethnocentrism in that they play different roles in affecting buying behavior (Klein et al., 1998). More in detail, the animosity is directed toward a particular target country while consumer ethnocentrism concerns beliefs regarding foreign products in general (Klein, 2002). For instance, Chinese consumers have shown a tendency to avoid foreign products in preference for domestic products due to increasing consumer ethnocentrism and improving domestic products (Zhou and Hui, 2003). However, consumer ethnocentrism cannot explain the refusal of Japanese products, which has been triggered by anti-Japanese sentiment rife in China.

Studies also showed that consumer ethnocentrism and animosity have differing influence on consumers' evaluations of foreign products. Researchers have consistently found that consumer ethnocentrism is significantly related to both product judgments and purchase intentions (Netemeyer

et al., 1991; Shimp and Sharma, 1987). Those who believe it is wrong or immoral to purchase foreign products also tend to hold negative attitudes of the quality of those goods. In contrast, the effects of animosity on buying may or may not be associated with quality judgments of the target country's products. For example, consumers who harbor economic animosity towards Japan are likely to rate the quality of Japanese products positively while those who hold war-related animosity might denigrate Japanese products.

## **2.4 Subjective Norm in a Consumer Behavior**

Defined as one's perception of the social pressure to perform or not perform a behavior in question (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), subject norm is a significant concept of the theory of reasoned action which is a widely accepted model of the determinants of behavior in social psychology. According to this theory, an individual's subjective norm is determined by the multiplicative function of one's normative beliefs and motivation to comply with perceived expectations (Ajzen, 1991). The influence of a person's normative belief that important individuals or reference groups approve or disapprove of a particular behavior will generate different behavioral intentions. In the area of reasoned action, behavioral intention is the subjective probability that a given behavioral alternative will be performed by a person (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Applied to research in consumer behavior, the concept of subjective norm suggested that consumers may believe that others would favor certain behaviors, and this belief tends to influence their subsequent purchase intentions and behaviors (Pavlou and Chai, 2002).

Subjective norm can be classified into societal norm and social influence. Societal norm refers to following the larger societal fashion while social influence reflects sticking to opinions from family and peers (Pavlou and Chai, 2002). With subjective norm effects on

consumer behavior, people compare themselves and adjust behaviors more with similar others than with dissimilar others (Ajzen, 1991). For instance, since collectivistic Chinese are likely to be influenced by others' attitudes, they like to see what the most popular opinions are and use that information as part of their decision-making process (Frauenfelder, 2005).

A great deal of empirical research provided support for the effect of subjective norm on purchase intentions. For example, Summers et al. (2006) found that subjective norm had a significant effect on female consumers' purchase intentions of a controversial luxury product, apparel made with American alligator leather. Robinson and Smith (2002) revealed that subjective norm is an independent predictor of consumers' intention to buy sustainably produced foods. Zhang et al. (2007) demonstrated that consumer subjective norms are directly associated with purchase intentions when consumers engage in Internet based transactions. The impact of subjective norm on intentions is also supported in many countries, including the U.S. (Shimp and Kavas, 1984), Germany (Bredahl, 2001), the U.K. (Mahon et al., 2006), Korea (Lee, 1990), and China (Eves, 2007).

Though little research has focused on subjective norm associated with consumer negative feelings and attitudes toward foreign countries, Stitt (2004, May) utilized the theory of reasoned action to examine the normative beliefs associated with an individual's attitude toward behavioral outcomes. The result of Stitt's research indicated that subjective norm is positively correlated with one's attitude to perform a behavior even in the absence of others. Given that consumer animosity in essence is an emotional antagonism toward a specific party, the present study applied the concept of subjective norm to the animosity model to examine the effect of social pressure associated with consumer animosity and other factors. More in detail, individuals who report high levels of

animosity against a country might think others around sharing the same thought and vice versa. Meanwhile, individuals who feel more social pressure tend to adapt themselves to the objective relations of things. It is believed that increases in social pressure would be associated with increases in animosity strength and decreases in the intention of purchase. Likewise, increases in social pressure would be associated with growths in consumer motivations for boycott participation.

## **2.5 Motivations for Boycott Participation**

Boycott is defined in Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary as "to engage in a concerted refusal to have dealings with (as a person, store, or organization)." Friedman (1999) described consumer boycott as "the attempt by one or more parties to achieve certain objectives by urging individual consumers to refrain from making selected purchases in the marketplace" (p .4). Often organized by pressure groups, boycotts urge consumers not to buy specific brands or the products from certain countries, in order to exert a commercial pressure on the target to adopt favorable practices in their policy and behavior. Typically, boycotts can serve as a form of social control of business and as a mechanism for promoting corporate social responsibility (Smith 1990).

Boycott participation is theorized not only as a collective effort for corporate behavior change, but also as an individual representation of each participant. On a personal level, consumers' negative feelings such as anger and hostility toward an institution and even more a country may be directly expressed in the form of boycott participation (Ettenson and Klein, 2005). Indeed, boycotting decisions have increasingly being used by individual consumers as an economic protest against companies or countries to promote political agendas rather than consumer agendas (Friedman, 1999). In other words, the actions are not based on beliefs

about the product quality but about the political or social positions of the countries.

Although boycotts are increasingly important from business and societal perspectives, little attention has been paid to the underlying intentions of consumer boycotts in the context of international crisis. Prior research on boycott participation provided insight into the reason why hostile consumers desire to boycott which in turn withhold their purchase intentions toward particular foreign brands. In reviewing the literature on consumer boycotts, John and Klein (2003) identified four purposes for boycott participation: instrumental, expressive, punitive, and clean hands. An instrumental boycott aims to force the target to change its behavior or to adjust its disputed policy, such as lowering a product's price or coercing the target country to altering its diplomatic practices. In contrast, expressive boycotts are more a form of generalized protest that expresses consumers' anger or outrage toward the target. Consumers participating this type of boycott usually do not expect to change the target's policy or behavior and are "more concerned with venting the frustrations of the protesting group" (Friedman 1991, p. 153). Meanwhile, punitive boycotts allow the consumer to satisfy a desire of retaliating the target by withholding their purchases. In this case, consumers have little intentions to establish a dialogue with the organization or the country (Friedman, 1999). Finally, consumers who believe a target's actions are wrong can avoid guilt and may feel good about himself by participating a clean hands boycott (Smith 1990).

There is no doubt that a single consumer's participation in a boycott may be driven by multiple motivations (Klein et al., 2002). Consumers may boycott a product to hold down its price, or to express anger or to punish a foreign firm for its actions. There are interesting implications and conceptual work by integrating the concept of boycott motivations into the

model of consumer animosity. Empirically, consumer motivations for boycott are diverse and can be sources of reasons for negative actions. One can hypothesize that compared to low hostile consumers, high hostile consumers are more likely to use boycotts to affect a country's policy or express their anger or hostility against the country, which in turn influence their purchase intentions toward particular brands. Ettenson and Klein (2005) offered interesting related evidence with respect to the relationship between consumer animosity and boycott participation. They found Australian consumers who have strong negative affect toward France have been actively participated in boycotts for French products over time. Meanwhile, consumer nationalism, which positively predicts consumer animosity (Shoham et al., 2006; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008) and ethnocentrism (Balabanis et al., 2001), is found to motivate the consumer to take action against products of the adversary country (Carvalho, 2004). These results indicated that empirical tests of the role boycott motivations play between consumer animosity and purchase intentions are well feasible.

The purpose of the present study, then, is to conduct an animosity-based analysis of purchase intentions in Chinese consumers of French products. The current study assessed stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm related to the evaluations of French product quality for Chinese consumers. Additionally, the study examined the relative importance of boycott motivations and product judgment for mediating the effect of animosity on purchase intentions. This research provides insights into the impact of animosity and ethnocentrism on behavior of Chinese consumers and, as such, will assist international marketers in the development of effective solution for target high-animosity consumers aimed at expanding market opportunities for producers.

## **CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **3.1 Overview**

The previous chapter reviewed a host of published studies in the consumer animosity literature. Although much attention has been devoted to the phenomenon of consumer animosity, the current research literature has been criticized for the lack of a well-founded theoretical basis explaining the underlying reasons of consumer animosity. In this chapter the focus of attention is on the theoretical framework of the reason why consumers feel angry toward foreign countries and thus avoid buying those particular foreign-sourced products. This study endorses two premises that (1) branded products are imbued with symbolic meanings that influence consumer attitudes toward these products and (2) negative attitudes generate somewhat negative prognoses; positive attitudes generate somewhat positive prognoses. In the intent to explain how the concept of animosity is related to consumer behavior, the researcher has recourse to the field of social psychology. This chapter first discusses social identity theory with main focus on national identity, followed by the theory of realistic group conflict. Both theories are significant research paradigms in the study of ingroup and outgroup attitudes.

### **3.2 Social Identity Theory**

Developed by Tajfel and Turner (Tajfel, 1978, 1981; Tajfel and Turner, 1979), social identity theory attempted to understand the psychological process of intergroup discrimination underlying the development and maintenance of social identity. According to Tajfel (1981), a social identity is “that

part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (p. 255). A social group is a set of individuals who belong to a common social category such as nationality, ethnicity, gender, class, religion, political affiliation, profession, and so forth. In social identity theory, individuals are motivated to achieve or maintain a positive psychological group distinctiveness. Consequently, they usually interact not as a single person but as a representative of a social group or category (Tajfel and Turner, 1979).

There are two significant psychological processes involved in social identity formation, which produce distinct consequences (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). The first process is social categorization which refers to "the process of bringing together social objects or events in groups which are equivalent with regard to an individual's actions, intentions and system of beliefs" (Tajfel, 1981, p. 254). By doing so people tend to accentuate intra-category similarities and exaggerate inter-category differences (Tajfel, 1981). The second process is social comparison which refers to the process of comparing one's own social group with others with respect to attributes and characteristics. When making a social group comparison, people tend to maximize intergroup distinctiveness especially on those dimensions which reflect favorably upon ingroup. Through the process, an individual perceives positively the ingroup and negatively the outgroups purporting to enhance his or her self-esteem and thus acquire a relatively positive social identity.

Turner (1985) pointed out that social categorization and social comparison are mutually dependent and complementary processes that are involved in the formation of a group identity. Social categorization leads to the formation of ingroup and outgroup and social comparison accounts for ingroup favoritism and discrimination. An outcome of social categorization and social

comparison operating together is the emergence and persistence of ethnocentrism: a favorable attitude toward the own group and an unfavorable attitude toward others. The value of social identity theory for the present study lies in the fact that the theoretical concepts of social categorization and social comparison elucidate the underlying psychological mechanisms leading to nationalistic and antiforeign attitudes.

A form of social identity is national identity which is based on the social category of nation (Ravenburg, 2000). Defined as “a collective sentiment upon the belief of belonging to the same nation and of sharing most of the attributes that make it distinct from other nations” (Guibernau, 2007, p. 11), national identity includes “being proud to be a national of a country, appreciating the nation’s problems and sharing in problem solving, believing the country is achieving its goals within constraints, taking personal pride and joy in achievements, introducing openly self as a national, and encouraging friends and close acquaintances to see ones country in positive lights” (Karkatsoulis et al., 2005). It should be noted that an individual might or might not accept all attributes of national identity because of social dynamics and personality traits. The strength of national identity one demonstrates is basically determined by influence systems (positive or negative) instrumented by the nation and its people.

Notwithstanding differences of identity perceptions in distinct systems and cultures, national identity is universally believed to be associated with conflict between countries and plays a role in promoting solidarity within the country (Hobsbawm, 1990; Colley, 1992). It can thus become a basis of explaining the public expression of anti-French sentiment. On the one side, the contextual salience of national identity may drive nationalistic behavior of individuals. Identity salience is conceptualized by social psychologists as “the likelihood that the identity will be invoked in diverse

situations” (Hogg et al., 1995, p. 257). Being organized into a hierarchy with various levels of salience, national identity can be easily promoted to a higher level of salience by special events such as the Olympic games from a relatively lower level on a daily basis (Stryker and Serpe, 1982). The more salient an identity, the more likely it is to result in behavior accordant with that identity (Carvalho and Cook, 2004). A routine sense of national identity is unlikely to motivate one into action; along with increases in levels of identity salience, the Chinese are more likely to be driven to take action that assert their sense of national identity, such as anti-French protests and boycott participation. By doing so shared national sentiment in special context grows to promote social solidarity among the Chinese.

On the other side, national identity shapes subjective norm and expectations, which in turn influence people’s action. As a form of social identity, national identity encourages or even forces people to perform a behavior in a way that displays attaching to their country. People do so not only for their own self-enhancement but also for social pressure. In the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic crisis, expressing hostility toward France may become an underlying subjective norm, outside of which certain favorable attitudes toward France might be carefully avoided in Chinese society. Action of opposing or protesting against France has thus turned into a way for the Chinese to collectively exhibit their national identity.

To summarize, social identity is an important activator of social behavior. The theory of social identity provides an explanation to the mechanism of why people feel proud of their national ingroup and dislike outgroups. Salience and social pressure encourage and coerce people to act accordant with national identity. Given that national identity is found to be related to conflict between countries, the posterior part of this chapter reviews realistic group conflict theory which elaborates on the

rootstock of intergroup conflicts behind social identity.

### **3.3 Realistic Group Conflict Theory**

The term “animosity” is defined by Merriam-Webster as an antagonistic attitude that is ill will or resentment tending toward active hostility. In essence, consumer animosity is mental representations of an attitude or an emotion perception towards national or ethnic groups. Realistic group conflict theory provides a social psychological explanation for the formation of negative attitudes against outgroup that is rooted in the competition for interests between groups (Austin and Worchel, 1979).

Developed by Sherif (1966), realistic group conflict theory was used to account for intergroup conflict that arises as a result of conflict of interests between groups. The theory puts forth the concept that the competition for interests between the groups inevitably leads to greater social distance between groups and strengthened hostility toward the outgroup as well as heightened ingroup cohesion and ethnocentrism. According to Coser (1956), intergroup competition can be seen as a typical symbol of each social system and the competition for interests between groups is the activator for antagonistic intergroup attitudes and intergroup conflict. In this picture, the competition between groups arises from either material goods (power, privilege, status, or limited resources) or immaterial goods (values, beliefs, or norms) (Gijssberts et al., 2004). The former type of competition leads to conflicts of socio-economic interests while the latter forms a cultural threat to the ingroup. The essential element in realistic group conflict theory is the collision of interests between ingroup and outgroup.

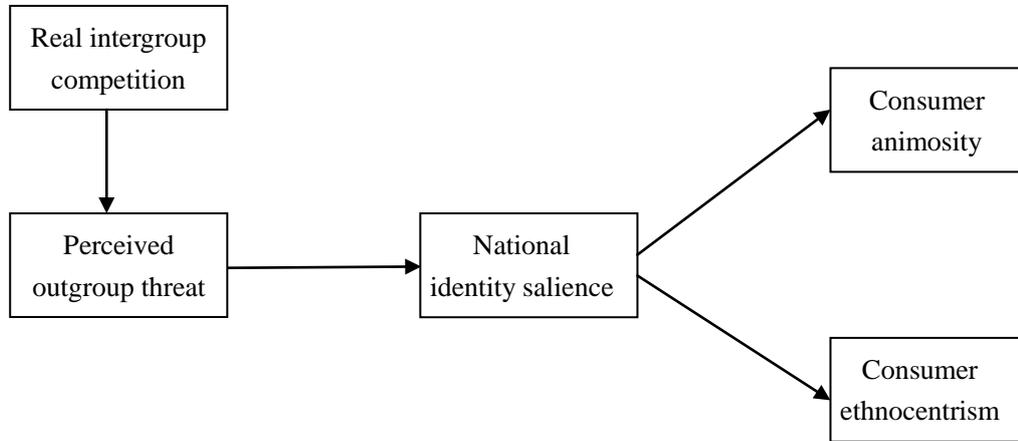
Realistic group conflict theory has been applied to investigate the psychological outcomes of intergroup conflicts for interests. For instance, Jackson’s (1993) study revealed

the causal relation between intergroup competition and ingroup favoritism as well as outgroup hostility. In particular, social groups such as ethnic groups claim demand for scarce goods or stick to contradictory or incongruous beliefs and values, and as a result they have inconsistent interests and consider other groups to be a threat. Under this context, intergroup threat or competition may be perceived as realistic, which in turn sparked unfavorable attitudes and hostility toward the competitive outgroups.

However, perceptions of threat do not necessarily have to be realistic for typical intergroup conflicts (Sherif, 1966). In other words, the ethnic threat or competition may be more of a contortion than being real. According to Blalock (1967), conflict, prejudice and discrimination with others are partially influenced by the magnitude of perceived threat, which in turn is caused by actual intergroup competition. The actual intergroup competition refers to the contest at the macro-level socioeconomic conditions such as the availability of limited resources. The perceived threat concerns the subjectively experienced degree of social-economic threat or competition on the outgroup, which in turn may consolidate the ingroup and elicit dislike or animosity towards the outgroup. Therefore, the intergroup competition does not only involve objective conditions of competition but also the subjective perception of threat.

Following discussion of the aforementioned theoretical notions regarding national identity and the root of intergroup conflict, the researcher characterized the social origin of animosity as a causal process, displayed in Figure 2. With this causal sequence of actual competition and perceived threat, one can suggest that actual intergroup competition leads to perceived threat which in turn is the cause of increased salience of national identity which in turn becomes the direct cause of increased specific animosity and ethnocentrism in general.

Figure 2. Causal Sequence of Intergroup Competition and Consumer Animosity



## **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH HYPOTHESES**

### **4.1 Overview**

The main objective of this chapter is to formulate a series of research hypotheses on the mechanisms that support the effect of animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intentions. In order to do so, a theoretical model which is based on the insights provided by the literature review is developed (see Figure 3, page 57). This chapter first centers on the interaction of animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. As discussed, they should be positively correlated with each other. The subsequent sections develop testable hypotheses for the effect of animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on evaluations of product quality. Finally, two important variables of product judgment and boycott motivations are delineated as significant mediators in the model.

### **4.2 Relationships between the Predictors**

#### *Relationships between Animosities and Ethnocentrism*

Researchers have investigated the relationships between animosity and consumer ethnocentrism as shown in Figure 3. Nijssen and Douglas (2004) identified a positive correlation between animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. They based their research on earlier animosity studies, which demonstrated that animosity is a distinct construct from consumer ethnocentrism because of their different roles in influencing purchasing behavior (Klein et al., 1998). Usually, consumers who refuse to purchase products from specific

country due to animosity may be willing to buy other foreign products. According to LeVine and Campbell (1972), however, an outgroup's military and opposed behavior will lead to negative attitudes against that group, which in turn may enhance their uncertainty and mistrust regarding general foreign products. Shankarmahesh (2006) argued that it is likely that consumers can generalize animosity towards a few foreign countries to all foreign countries. Consequently, animosity will increase consumer ethnocentrism. Likewise, when consumer animosity toward a specific country is sparked by situational event, information with respect to the event might be processed in a biased manner due to stable animosity against that country. For example, the anti-French protests that spread throughout China in April 2008 over Western media's biased coverage of the recent Tibet riots and over the disruption of the Beijing Olympic torch relay in Paris are a presentation of negative historical memory toward the West that dominates the national consciousness of contemporary China. The Chinese deep-seated anti-West feelings may play a role in the call for boycott of French products and for avoidance of travel to France. Hence, the researcher proposed the following three hypotheses:

**H1a:** Stable animosity will be positively associated with situational animosity.

**H1b:** Stable animosity will be positively associated with consumer ethnocentrism.

**H1c:** Situational animosity will be positively associated with consumer ethnocentrism.

#### *Relationships between Subjective Norm and Animosities-Ethnocentrism*

Subjective norm relates to consumers' motivation to perform the behavior, which is developed to incorporate the expectations of the approval or disapproval of others important to the consumer (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). In other words, subjective norm is the degree of social pressure felt by

the person regarding the behavior. As Chinese have a Confucian cultural background, which reflects a group-oriented culture, people in this culture are more motivated toward conforming to the norms of the group than people in an individualistic culture (Hofstede, 1980; Yau, 1986). Given that animosity and consumer ethnocentrism in essence are constructs of the feelings and attitudes that are reliably influenced by informal coercion and social pressure (Oliver and Bearden, 1985), one may suggest that the subjective norm is associated with both the feeling of animosity toward foreign countries and the trait of consumer ethnocentrism about his or her home country. The following hypotheses were advanced:

**H2a:** Subjective norm will be positively associated with stable animosity.

**H2b:** Subjective norm will be positively associated with situational animosity.

**H2c:** Subjective norm will be positively associated with consumer ethnocentrism.

### **4.3 Direct Effects on the Outcomes**

#### *Direct Effects of Animosities and Ethnocentrism on Product Judgment*

In the context of an international marketplace, many researchers have shown that consumer ethnocentrism is associated with adverse judgments of foreign product quality (e.g. Klein et al., 1998; Shimp and Sharma, 1987). However, empirical evidence in the literature is mixed on the relationship between animosity and product judgments. On the one hand Klein et al. (1998) showed that animosity reduces consumers' willingness to buy products produced by a particular country independent of evaluations of the products. On the other hand, Shoham et al. (2006) found that, if studied in terms of product judgments, the effect of animosity does exist because it results in a lower product quality assessment. Tian and Pasadeos (2008) also reported that Chinese consumers who harbor war animosity toward

Japan underrated Japanese product. Klein et al.'s (2002) study on boycotts provided indirect support for this finding by showing that boycott participation have led to product denigration. According to Osgood and Tannenbaum's (1955) congruity theory of attitude change, individuals strive to maintain consistency or equilibrium among their cognitions and beliefs. When there is incongruity in their cognitive system, attitude or behavior change tends to occur and it always happens "in the direction of increased congruity with the prevailing frame of reference" (p. 43). In other words, people who are experiencing an unpleasant state of contradicting cognitions are more likely to change their attitude or behavior toward the object or person who they are dissimilar in some respects. For example, a consumer may underrate French product quality and thus avoid buying French products if he/she harbors negative feelings toward France. Thus the following were hypothesized:

**H3a:** Consumers who have higher stable animosity will tend to have lower judgment of foreign products than those who have lower stable animosity.

**H3b:** Consumers who have higher situational animosity will tend to have lower judgment of foreign products than those who have lower situational animosity.

**H3c:** Consumers who have higher ethnocentric tendencies will tend to have lower judgment of foreign products than those who have lower ethnocentric tendencies.

#### *Direct Effects of Animosities and Ethnocentrism on Boycott Motivations*

The consumer boycott is described as a method by one or more groups to achieve a specific objective by withholding to buy certain products or services (Friedman, 1999).

Although boycotts occur increasingly, little attention has been paid to the underlying motivations of boycotts in the context of consumer animosity. Prior research on boycotts

provided insight into the reason why antagonistic consumers will want to boycott particular foreign brands. According to Kozinets and Handelman (1998), boycott participation represents a complex affective expression of individuality and a means for moral self-realization. Essentially, consumer boycotts are a prosocial behavior similar to helping and the reasons for boycotts resulted from an individual's desire for outrage expression, for moral obligation, for self-esteem maintenance, or self-enhancement (Klein, Smith and John, 2004; Blasi and Oresick, 1985). Ettenson and Klein (2005) argued that consumers' negative feelings such as anger and animosity toward an institution and even more a country could be directly expressed in the form of boycott participation. Nowadays, consumer boycotts have increasingly being used as a tool for socio-political protests that are not based on beliefs about the product quality. Thus, when consumers feel angry toward a country triggered by certain controversial issues, it is likely that they will participate in a boycott to manifest their feelings of discontent and resentment.

Consumers' ethnocentrism could be another important variable in understanding their motivations for boycotts of foreign products. For example, in their national sample of Korea, Shimp and Sharma (1987) found that consumer ethnocentrism results from a perceived concern for one's own country. From the ethnocentric consumer's perspective, the boycott of foreign products is an ethical and patriotic behavior and will bring beneficial effects to oneself and domestic economy. Previous studies demonstrated that degree of consumer ethnocentrism is positively related to patriotism and nationalism and is negatively related to world-mindedness (Balabanis et al., 2001; Rawwas et al., 1996). Olsen et al. (1993) also found that consumers' perceived responsibility is positively associated with consumer

ethnocentrism. Responsibility is defined as the acceptance of an obligation to help the in-group alleviate a distressful situation such as unfair trade deficit. Therefore, ethnocentric consumers may feel a moral obligation to help themselves and countrymen with boycott participation. Ettenson and Klein (2005) provided initial evidence that consumer ethnocentrism has an indirect impact on participation in the boycott triggered by international controversies. It is conceivable that all the negative feelings against foreign countries and responsibility to help the in-group are accumulated and increase the level of motivations for boycott participation. Therefore, the following hypotheses were presented:

**H4a:** Consumers who have higher stable animosity will tend to have higher motivations for boycott participation than those who have lower stable animosity.

**H4b:** Consumers who have higher situational animosity will tend to have higher motivations for boycott participation than those who have lower situational animosity.

**H4c:** Consumers who have higher ethnocentric tendencies will tend to have higher motivations for boycott participation than those who have lower ethnocentric tendencies.

#### *Direct Effects of Animosities and Ethnocentrism on Purchase Intentions*

A consumer's purchase intention is defined as the degree to which the consumer claims to buy the product (Dodds and Monroe, 1985). It is often used as a substitute for actual purchase behavior (Shin, 2001). Existing literature on animosity and consumer ethnocentrism suggested that both concepts act as predictors of the willingness to buy foreign goods. For instance, Shoham et al. (2006) found that Jewish Israelis' animosity is associated with their buying intention and actual purchase behavior for products and services produced or marketed by Israeli Arabs. Klein and Ettenson (1999) noted that the profile of ethnocentrism

should be examined as a separate construct when analyzing the effect of animosity on consumer purchasing behavior because ethnocentric consumers tend to avoid the purchase of any foreign products in general. For example, Shimp and Sharma (1987) found that American consumers who are ethnocentric are likely to refuse buy imported automobiles. Subsequent studies with Chinese and Korean consumers also provided strong statistical support for the direct negative link between consumer ethnocentrism and willingness to buy foreign products (Klein et al., 1998; Shin, 2001). Recent research found that consumer ethnocentrism negatively influences the support for foreign retail outlets (Zarkada-Fraser and Fraser, 2002). All these studies implied that both animosity and consumer ethnocentrism have a direct, negative influence on buying intentions toward foreign products. This led us to the next three hypotheses:

**H5a:** Consumers who have higher stable animosity will tend to have lower purchase intentions than those who have lower stable animosity.

**H5b:** Consumers who have higher situational animosity will tend to have lower purchase intentions than those who have lower situational animosity.

**H5c:** Consumers who have higher ethnocentric tendencies will tend to have lower purchase intentions than those who have lower ethnocentric tendencies.

#### *Direct Effects of Subjective Norm on Product Judgment, Boycott Motivations, and Purchase Intentions*

Prior research utilized the theory of reasoned action to investigate the impact of opinions from significant others on a consumer's attitude toward behavioral outcomes (e.g., Summers et al., 2006; Smith, 2002; Shimp and Kavas, 1984; Bredahl, 2001; Mahon et al., 2006; Lee,

1990; and Eves, 2007). The results indicated that a consumer's behavioral intention depends on his or her attitude about the behavior and subjective norms. Stitt (2004) further revealed that people who feel more social pressure from significant others tend to adapt themselves to the opposed relations of things. Thus, it is believed that increases in social pressure would be associated with decreases in product evaluations and increases in the motivations for boycott participation. In recent years, a norm to refuse purchasing products from a dislike country such as Japan seems to be formed in China. People buying Japanese products would suffer the pressure from the norm around them. Likewise, as anti-French sentiment represents a norm pressure in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis, individuals who are low antagonistic and ethnocentric may feel obliged to comply with that norm and to avoid buying French products. Therefore, it is hypothesized that if consumers believe that those people important to them think boycott of foreign products is good, then they will have higher reluctance of buying foreign goods. Contrarily, if consumers believe that those people important to them think boycott of foreign products is bad, then they will have lower reluctance of purchasing foreign goods. Therefore, the researcher posited that:

**H6a:** Subjective norm will negatively influence consumer product judgment.

**H6b:** Subjective norm will positively influence consumer motivations for boycott participation.

**H6c:** Subjective norm will negatively influence consumer purchase intentions.

#### *Direct Effects of Boycott Motivations on Purchase Intentions*

Consumer boycotts are an attempt to achieve certain moral or political goals by abstaining from making selected purchases in the marketplace (Friedman, 1985). In addition

to a corporate policy and action, consumer boycotts are often triggered by political, economic, religious, ethnic or even historical tensions such as a controversial international issue (Ettenson and Klein, 2005). While consumer motivations for boycott participation may differ across countries, it is virtually universal that these motivations can be sources of reasons for negative actions (Klein et al., 2002). For instance, Australian consumers who demonstrated strong motives of boycott indicated that they have avoided buying French products over time due to French nuclear tests in the South Pacific (Ettenson and Klein, 2005). Therefore, one can anticipate that antagonistic consumers tend to use boycotts to express their anger or hostility against a country, which in turn inversely influence their purchase intentions toward particular brands produced by that country.

**H7:** Consumer motivations for boycott will negatively influence purchase intentions.

#### **4.4 Mediated Effects on the Outcome**

##### *Product judgment as a mediator*

Defined as a variable that explains the relation between an independent variable and a dependent variable, a mediator is the generative mechanism through which a predictor influences an outcome variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). The model is fully mediated if the direct and significant correlation between the independent and dependent variables becomes insignificant via a mediator variable. By contrast, the model is partially mediated if the independent variable remained significant after adding the mediator. In this study, the researcher proposed that product judgment will mediate the relationships between all the four predictors and the outcome variable. Although previous studies (e.g., Ettenson et al., 1998; Shoham et al., 2006; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008) have shown that consumer animosity predicts

product judgment which in turn influences the willingness to buy imported products, their model did not test for the mediated relationship discussed. Expanding on the extant literature, the researcher hypothesized that product judgment will mediate the relationships between four predictors and purchase intentions:

**H8a:** Product judgment will mediate the effect of stable animosity on purchase intentions.

**H8b:** Product judgment will mediate the effect of situational animosity on purchase intentions.

**H8c:** Product judgment will mediate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intentions.

**H8d:** Product judgment will mediate the effect of subjective norm on purchase intentions.

#### *Boycott motivations as a mediator*

Within the animosity literature, many researchers have shown that previous or present conflicts may foster out-group hostility which in turn may lead to refusal of buying products from an offending country. However, few studies were located investigating motivations for boycott participation as mediator in the effect of animosity on the intention of purchase. In this study, the researcher argued that consumer motivations for boycott mediate the relationship between animosity and buying intentions. Consumers who are highly resentful toward a foreign country would have a greater level of inducement to express their anger and to give punishment against that country. Consequently, consumers' level of boycott motivations would in turn affect the degree to which they look to certain foreign products. In

conformity to the similar mechanism on consumer ethnocentrism, the researcher hypothesized that the motivations for boycotts should have the similar mediating effect on the relationship of consumer ethnocentrism and buying intentions. In other words, the expected effects of both animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on the intention of purchase should be larger when the impact of boycott motivations is higher. Following the arguments, the hypotheses are forwarded as states:

**H9a:** Boycott motivations will mediate the effect of stable animosity on purchase intentions.

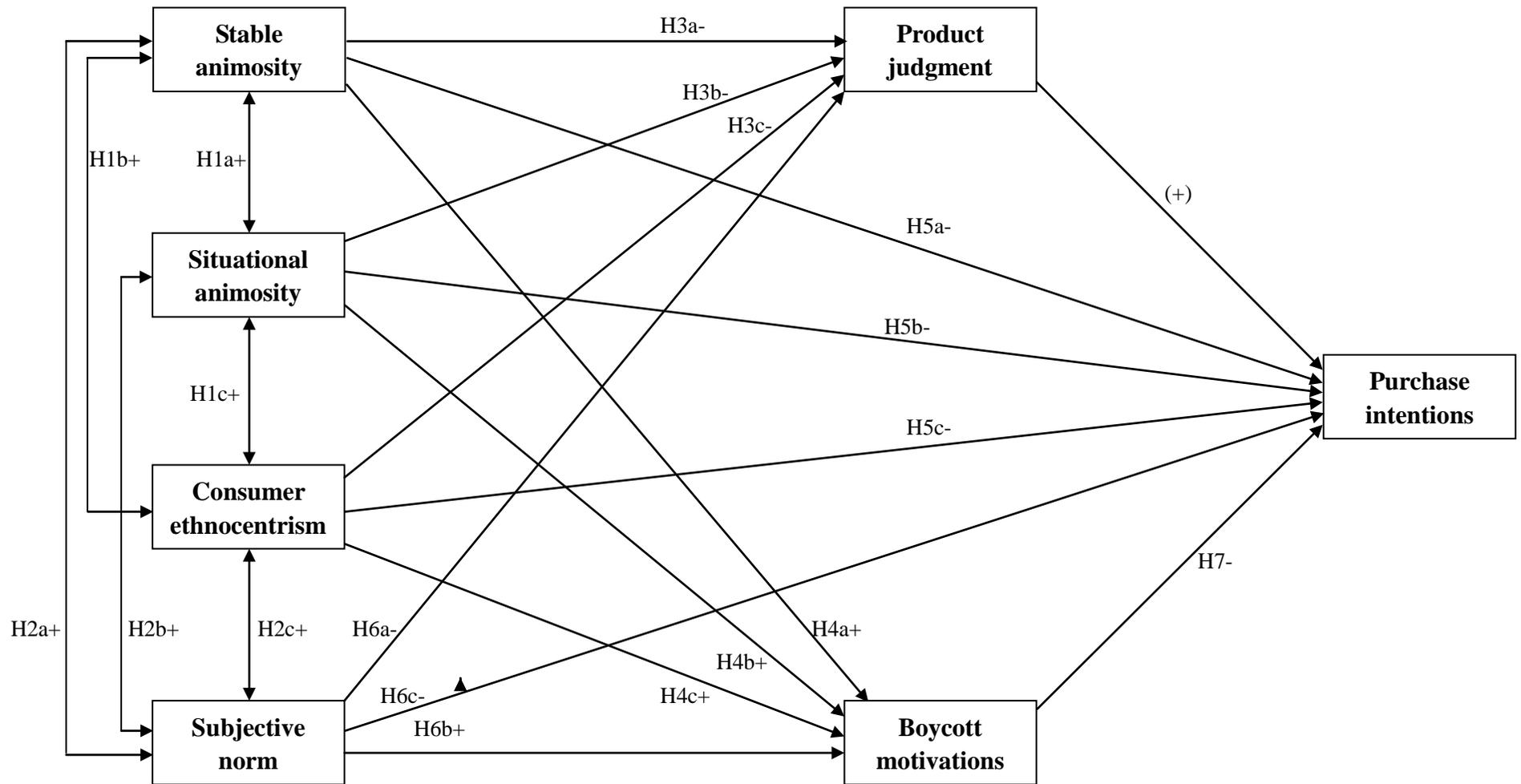
**H9b:** Boycott motivations will mediate the effect of situational animosity on purchase intentions.

**H9c:** Boycott motivations will mediate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intentions.

**H9d:** Boycott motivations will mediate the effect of subjective norm on purchase intentions.

By simultaneously testing the explanatory power of two separate mediators, as seen in the hypotheses above, this research will extend the understanding of consumer behaviors about animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, boycott and buying intentions. To this point, the entire research model has been developed based on the extensive literature review. As a summary, Figure 3 below shows the model incorporating all the direct effects in the model (Hypotheses 1a to 7).

**Figure 3. Hypothesized Model for Consumer Animosity**



## **CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY**

### **5.1 Overview**

In this Chapter, the methodology used to test the hypotheses identified in Chapter 4 is discussed. The intent of the chapter is to guide the reader through the methodological procedures used in the study to test the model identified in Figure 3. The chapter is presented in the following three sections. First, in the research design section, the target population and sample as well as questionnaire development are discussed. Next, a detailed description of data collection procedures is offered. Third, an explanation of statistical techniques for data analysis is presented.

### **5.2 Research Design**

The primary objectives of the current research are (1) to put forward a model of consumer animosity, (2) to determine the influence of key variables on purchase intentions, and (3) to investigate the effect of mediators on the relationship between animosity and purchase intentions of foreign products. Twenty-seven hypotheses have been proposed based on the underlying theories and the results of previous empirical studies. Survey research is an effective approach to understand the characteristics and perceptions of a population (Babbie, 1994). Therefore, this study utilizes a cross-sectional design with non-probability sampling to investigate consumers' emotions, attitudes, and behavioral intentions toward a particular offending country and its products. The survey was a national,

internet-based questionnaire, which ran between July and August, 2009. The researcher selected an internet-based survey for this study because this type of survey is an attractive alternative to expensive mail or telephone types. The main advantages of using electronic surveys include low costs, short response times, global reach, fast and easy data processing, and the possibility of allowing the participants viewing the survey results immediately (Babbie, 1994). Due to the nature of this research described aforementioned, a self-administered internet survey is considered to be a suitable method to test the research model.

### **5.2.1 Population and Sample**

The target population for the present research was consumers 19 years of age or older who access the internet. The sample was collected from online consumer panels that were formed by a research agent in China. In this study, the researcher made efforts to obtain the relatively large absolute numbers of respondents and attempted to carefully match the sample to online population demographic characteristics. China has the world's largest internet population with nearly 300 million users by the end of 2008. According to Fang and Yen (2006), Chinese internet users tend to be young, unmarried, wealthy, and educated middle class people. More particularly, they found that 80 percent of Chinese internet users are 35-year old or below; more than half of the total online user population are male; 60 percent are unmarried; about 30 percent have a college degree or higher; and most users' monthly income is still relatively low, that is, under RMB 2000.

### **5.2.2 Questionnaire Development**

Using a self-administered questionnaire, the survey was programmed to be accessible for

standard Web browsers and participants were asked to answer the questionnaire online. Among the questions asked were scales for stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, subjective norm, product judgment, boycott motivations, purchase intentions, and demographics. All of the constructs proposed in the model were measured using preexisting scales drawn from prior studies. The use of established scales from the extant literature leads to a higher level of confidence in the reliability and validity of the measurements in this study. The initial questionnaire were translated into Chinese and then back-translated into English to ensure the correct meaning and cross-cultural equivalence of the measures. The revised Chinese version of the questionnaire was pre-tested on consumers and items were further refined.

The internet-based survey contained seven component parts. The first part of the questionnaire covered consumers' perceptions of French product quality. Once respondents started filling out the questionnaire, they would automatically be directed through the Web site according to their answers to the questions. The second part concerned consumers' expectation of their purchase intentions of French products. The third part included three questions measuring the effect of subjective norms. The fourth part focused specifically on respondents' motivations for boycott participation. The fifth part asked participants to indicate the extent to which they feel angry toward France. The sixth part consisted of six questions designed to explore the participants' ethnocentric tendencies. The last part requested demographic information such as gender, age, highest earned degree, marital status, and monthly income. A 7-point rating scale was used in the questionnaire with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. The entire questionnaire is in Appendix D and Appendix E. The measurement of each of the eight variables is considered individually below.

#### *Stable and situational animosities*

Stable animosity is defined as a person's negative feelings arising from general historical background such as military, political, and/or economic conflicts. Using the scale by Ang et al. (2002), stable animosity against France was measured by six statements such as "I feel angry toward the French" and "France is not reliable." These items assess perceptions of how well France had behaved toward their country over years. Similarly, situational animosity is conceptualized as the negative feelings arising from a specific and current irritation. It was assessed on a six-item scale adapted from Ang et al. (2004) to measure the extent to which respondents' animosity toward Japan and the U.S. regarding Asian financial crisis. The present study, however, utilized the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis triggered by the Tibet event as the context for situational animosity. Items include things like "It is disappointing that the French are doing so little to help my country host the Olympic games" and "I find it hard to forgive the French for the way they covered the March 14 riots in Tibet."

Ang et al.'s (2002) study has evaluated the reliability of the scales of stable and situational animosities. Both constructs demonstrated adequate composite reliability, around .70 or higher for both the United States and Japan evaluation samples. The discriminant validity of the two scales was examined by performing chi-square difference tests on the estimated correlations. All chi-square difference tests with a restricted model were significant at the  $p < .05$  level, providing some evidence of discriminant validity.

#### *Consumer ethnocentrism*

Defined as a person's beliefs about moral appropriateness of purchasing France-made products, consumer ethnocentrism was measured using the CETSCALE (Shimp & Sharma,

1987). This scale was developed and validated in the United States and was further tested in China, Russia, France, Japan, and other countries. The adapted CETSCALE consists of six items. Sample items include, “Chinese products, first, last, and foremost,” and “It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Chinese out of jobs.” Klein et al. (1998) reported composite scale reliability of .83, indicating good reliabilities of these items.

#### *Subjective norm*

This construct is conceptualized as a person’s perceptions of normal pressure to or not to purchase French products. Three items used in the research of Buchan (2005) to measure this construct were adapted specifically for the present study. Respondents were asked the following: “Most people who are important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) think I should avoid purchasing French products”; “Most people who are important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) will look down on me if I buy French products”; “No one who is important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) thinks it is OK to purchase French products.” Reliability for this scale was .84 (Buchan, 2005).

#### *Boycott motivations*

Boycott motivations are operationalized as the reason why a person desires to participate in the boycott of French products. It was examined on a six-item scale developed by Klein et al.’s (2002). The scale they used was established from a series of studies for consumer motivations for boycott. Respondents were asked to indicate possible reasons for boycott participation. Sample items include, “I want to express my anger at France by avoid purchasing French products” and “I want to punish France, and that is why I do not buy their products.”

### *Product judgment*

Product judgment is defined as a consumer's subjective evaluation of the quality of French products. To assess this concept, measures were culled from the Klein et al. (1998) study including the following attributes: workmanship, technological advancement, quality, reliability, design, and value for the money. Respondents were asked how much they agreed or disagreed with six statements such as "Products made in France are carefully produced and have fine workmanship" and "Products made in France are usually a good value for the money." Klein et al. (1998) reported construct reliability of .73 for the six items.

### *Purchase intentions*

This concept is operationalized as a person's intention to purchase French products. It was measured using four items that ask respondents to indicate their attitudes of the purchase of French products. Sample items included "Whenever possible, I avoid buying French products" and "If two products were equal in quality, but one was from France and one was from China, I would pay 10% more for the product from China". These items were adapted from the work of Klein et al. (1998) who reported composite scale reliability for these items of .79.

### *Demographics*

Standard demographic measures (gender, age, education, income, marital status, etc.) were included in the questionnaire in order to profile participants involved in the present study. As existing literature indicated the miscellaneous results with respect to demographics' predictive role of consumer animosity, no hypothesis related to correlation between demographics and consumer animosity is posed in the present study and no

measure of possible correlations was taken place. Demographic measures included in the present study were used only for description of participants involved in this research.

### **5.3 Data Collection**

This study employs a cross-sectional design to investigate the direct and indirect effects of consumer animosity on purchase intentions. An internet-based survey was conducted to collect data for this research. Some research firms have developed consumer panels comprising of a cross-section of consumers who are willing to share information about their attitudes or buying habits on a regular basis. This makes it possible for the study to draw samples from online consumer panels in China. Consequently, the researcher pre-recruited an online consumer panel through Data100, a professional market research agent in the country. The consumer panelists were asked to complete a questionnaire in an internet survey hosted by Data100, which provided the raw data for analysis.

An online consumer panel has been chosen for data collection for several reasons. First, an online consumer panel offers the ability to measure individuals' behavioral changes and their associated characteristics. Second, as the largest online population in the world, China has 300 million internet users. For consumer marketing research, a large internet population makes it possible to use an online consumer panel as an effective research method to efficiently tap customer attitude and behavior patterns. Second, using an online consumer panel is timeliness and relatively inexpensive means of data collection. Lastly, the nature of an online consumer panel may lead to a high response rate, which minimizes potential for selectivity and non-response bias.

Typically, an online consumer panel is a non-probability sample. However, a national

sample of internet consumer panelists represents the online population of the country. Data100, a Chinese survey agent indicates that samples of consumers are drawn from nationwide panels that are selected to represent the population of China. With accessible subscribers 2,300,000 and panel members over 600,000, Data100 extracts information from multiple databases and uses that data to select suitable respondents for a particular study. Hence, using established online consumer panels as a source of marketing information is likely to generate a sample that is representative of the online population in China.

#### **5.4 Data Analysis**

To test the hypotheses, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed using the computer software program AMOS 7 with maximum likelihood (ML) method of estimation. SEM, also known as a combination of factor analysis and path analysis, is a multivariate analytical technique that has been extensively used to estimate “a series of separate, but interdependent, multiple regression equations simultaneously by specifying the structural model used by the statistical program” (Hair et al. 1998: 584). According to Byrne (2001), SEM has several advantages over other traditional methods of multivariate procedures. Byrne (2001) argued that the principal advantage of SEM is the ability to model constructs as latent variables without the presence of measurement error. In addition to the error corrections of SEM, it also allows for simultaneous analysis to be performed for nearly any system of regression equations, which means that direct and mediated effects and interactive processes among the exogenous and endogenous variables can be directly specified and examined (Kline, 2005). Given the nature of the hypotheses to be tested, the researcher found SEM to be the most adequate statistical technique for use in this study.

The analysis of SEM consisted of two basic components: the measurement model and the structural model (Hair et al., 2006). The first step is testing the measurement model with all indicators by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). This step is essential in identifying the validity of the concepts included in the model (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Through confirmatory factor analysis the researcher can identify the best measures of a particular latent variable. Once the measurement model was properly specified, the structural model was used to determine the hypothesized relationships involving direct and mediated effects among latent or unobserved variables.

#### *Model Fit Criteria*

There are a variety of statistics that can be used to describe a model's fit to the data. In SEM, model fit has been widely assessed using the following goodness of fit criteria: the chi-square,  $\chi^2/df$  ratio, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and comparative fit index (CFI). In the analysis of structural equation modeling, a statistically significant chi-square indicates that the model is not properly specified. However, because chi-square values are sample-size dependent especially if the observations are greater than 200, it is unsuitable to be used as a measure of goodness-of-fit (Hatcher, 1994). Due to these limitations, other fit indices were developed as alternatives to the chi-square.

Normed chi-square ( $\chi^2/df$ ) is the ratio of chi-square to the degree of freedom. It adjusts the chi-square test to control for the sample size, and the value less than 3.0 as a measure of minimum sample discrepancy suggests a good fitting model (Kline, 2005). The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is a measure of the closeness of fit, with values of .08 or lower indicating good model fit (Hair et al., 2006). The Goodness-of Fit Index (GFI) is a measure of the difference

ranging from 0-1 between predicted and observed covariances (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989). A goodness of fit index (GFI) greater than .90 is representative of strong fit. The Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), also called the Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index (NNFI), is an incremental fit measure that corrects for model size and complexity (McDonald and Ho, 2002; Tucker and Lewis, 1973). TLI values greater than .90 are considered acceptable and values greater than .95 are considered good. The Comparative Fit Index (CFI) is a measure of how well the hypothesized model fits compared to an independence model. A good model fit is indicated by a CFI value of 0.90 or greater (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

## **CHAPTER 6: RESULTS**

### **6.1 Overview**

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the quantitative analysis of the data. In the first section of this chapter, the pre-testing analysis for all constructs is reported. This is followed by two sections of sample characteristics and data screening. The fourth section of the chapter presents a discussion of reliability and validity of the measurement scales, along with an examination of the effects of demographic profiles on the model variables. This is followed by a presentation of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for the measurement model. Finally, the results of the structural equation model with the hypothesis testing are presented.

### **6.2 Pretesting**

Pretesting is a necessary step to ensure face and content validity of the instrument in the process of developing a questionnaire. It is especially useful when researchers in a cross-cultural survey environment need to identify problems in the translated scales or other concepts that may be associated with the target population. In April 2009, a total of 41 pretest surveys were collected from a non-probability sample of Chinese consumers through a data collection agent. The questionnaire was hosted at data100.com.cn, a user-friendly service providing online surveys in China. The questionnaire was composed of a total of 42 questions about information in eight areas: stable animosity, situational animosity, ethnocentrism,

subjective norm, product judgment, boycott motivations, purchase intentions, and demographic profiles. It took approximately 15 minutes to complete and included opportunities to discuss if they had any difficulties understanding and answering the questions. They were also asked to provide concrete suggestions to modify and improve the questionnaire.

As a result of the pretest, some adjustments were made to the questionnaire: The wording of the items was revised to reflect the context of this study; five positive item wordings were turned into negative ones; and survey instructions were modified in order to reduce the ambiguity. Cronbach's alpha was also analyzed for each scale, and 3 items contributing to low reliability were dropped. This procedure resulted in a total of 38 individual items for the study (5 for stable animosity, 4 for situational animosity, 6 for ethnocentrism, 3 for subjective norm, 6 for product judgment, 5 for boycott motivations, 4 for purchase intentions, and 5 for demographic profiles). The final validated survey questionnaires are presented as Appendix D and Appendix E.

### **6.3 Sample Characteristics**

The original dataset consisted of sending surveys to a consumer panel of 500 consumers through the internet, with a goal of obtaining at least 60 percent full participation rate based on previous surveys with the agent. A total of 404 consumers responded to the online survey through data100.com.cn. After eliminating 17 incomplete questionnaires, this study was able to include 387 (77.4 percent) participants for the actual data analysis.

#### **6.3.1 Characteristics of Demographic Variables**

A summary of characteristics for demographic variables is presented in Table 2. The respondents were all 19 years of age or older. The age range for the cohort was 19-66 years old. Approximately two-thirds of the respondents (n = 255) were under 30 years of age, 23 percent (n = 89) in the range of 31 to 40 years, 9 percent (n = 35) from 41 to 50, and only 2.1 percent (n = 8) over 51. The average age of the respondents was 29.91 years old. The standard deviation of age was 8 years old.

Of the 387 individuals who provided gender information, males (52.2 percent, n = 202) were in almost equal proportion to females (47.8 percent, n = 185) in this study. The majority of study respondents (57.6 percent, n = 223) were single, while 38.8 percent (n = 150) of the respondents were married, and 3.6 percent (n = 14) were separated, divorced, or widowed. The majority of women respondents (61.6 percent, n=114) and the majority of men (54 percent, n=109) were single.

More than two-thirds of the respondents have completed some college or higher education (n = 262), while approximately one-fourth have graduated from high school (n = 99). A small proportion of study respondents (6.7 percent, n = 26) were below the high school level. Overall, the level of education was distributed almost equally for male and female respondents: 69.7 percent (n= 129) of the females and 65.9 percent (n=133) of males had at least some college education.

The majority of study subjects (74.6 percent, n = 289) reported a personal monthly income of less than 3,000 RMB, while 17.4 percent (n = 67) received income in a month between 3001-5000 RMB and only 8 percent (n = 31) indicated that they earned 5000 RMB or higher per month. As a whole, this sample consisted of generally young, single,

well-educated Chinese consumers with a medium level of income. These characteristics are representative of Chinese internet users with a younger age as well as higher education and income levels compared to the general population (CNNIC, 2007; Fang and Yen, 2006).

**Table 2**  
**Demographic Profile of Respondents**

<i>Characteristics</i>	<i>Frequency (n = 387)</i>	<i>Percent</i>
<i>Age</i>		
20 and lower	21	5.4
21-30	234	60.5
31-40	89	23.0
41-50	35	9.0
51 and above	8	2.1
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	202	52.2
Female	185	47.8
<i>Marital status</i>		
Married	150	38.8
Single	223	57.6
Divorced/Separated	12	3.1
Widowed	2	0.5
<i>Education</i>		
Less than high school	26	6.7
High school	99	25.6
Some college	102	26.4
College degree	131	33.9
Postgraduate	29	7.5
<i>Income (per month, RMB)</i>		
1000 and lower	59	15.2
1001-2000	98	25.3
2001-3000	132	34.1
3001-4000	42	10.9
4001-5000	25	6.5
5001-10000	18	4.6
More than 10000	13	3.4

*Note: During data collection, US\$1.00 = RMB ¥6.87*

### 6.3.2 Descriptive Statistics of the Observed Variables

Thirty-three observed variables that were adapted and chosen based on previous studies were included in the questionnaire: six items each for the dimensions of ethnocentrism and

product judgment, five items each for two separate scales measuring stable animosity and boycott motivations, four items each for the situational animosity and purchase intentions variables, and three items for measuring subjective norm. A seven-point Likert scale was used to assess each of these items, and SPSS 14.0 was used to analyze these observed factors. Descriptive statistics for these observed variables in the structural equation model are shown in Table 3.

The results were generally consistent with previous research findings for Asian consumers in the two dimensions of stable animosity and situational animosity, which reflect a slightly high level of animosity toward a particular foreign country during the survey period. The reversed item, “France is a friend of my country anytime,” yielded the lowest rating in the construct of stable animosity ( $M = 2.87$ ,  $SD = 1.70$ ). This implies that most of the respondents did not consider France as a reliable friend even though China had built a very friendly relationship with France during the past decade. Overall, the sample of this research has moderate high scores of stable animosity, with the majority of the respondents (about 65%) having scores higher than the mean. The indicator that showed the highest mean score for the construct of situational animosity was the response to mistakes in French news coverage of Tibet unrest in March 2008 ( $M = 5.23$ ,  $SD = 1.62$ ). This indicates that participating consumers still felt angry toward France and were unwilling to tolerate the way the French media covered the Tibet event.

Among the indicators of consumer ethnocentrism, the mean score of the item “Chinese products, first, last, and foremost” ( $M = 4.85$ ,  $SD = 1.47$ ) is higher than those of the items “Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Chinese” ( $M = 4.44$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ), “It is not right to

purchase foreign products, because it puts Chinese out of jobs” ( $M = 4.49$ ,  $SD = 1.44$ ), “We should purchase products manufactured in China instead of letting other countries get rich off of us” ( $M = 4.73$ ,  $SD = 1.50$ ), “We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country” ( $M = 4.46$ ,  $SD = 1.49$ ), and “Chinese consumers who purchase products made in other countries are not responsible for putting their fellow Chinese out of work” (reversed  $M = 3.57$ ,  $SD = 1.52$ ). On average, approximately 65 percent of the respondents tended to agree or strongly agree these statements indicating that ethnocentrism is truthfully developed among the Chinese.

Subjective norm is measured by asking study subjects about their perceived social pressure from people who are important to them (e.g., family, friends, and significant others) concerning whether they should boycott French brands. The mean scores of three indicators, ranging from 3.18 ( $SD = 1.74$ ) to 4.66 ( $SD = 2.18$ ), suggested that subjects’ perceived social pressure varies with the purchase of French products. Approximately 58 percent to a degree perceived that their referents thought they should avoid buying French brands. By contrast, only 37.5 percent believed that they were likely to be looked down if they buy anything that is made by France. Overall, the subjects agree or strongly agree that there were moderate social pressure from family, friends, and significant others with respect to purchasing French products.

Six indicators were used in the analysis of respondents’ perceptions of product quality. As can be seen from the table, French brands in the use of color and design received the highest mean score ( $M = 5.03$ ,  $SD = 1.48$ ) while the value for the money was least (reversed  $M = 4.76$ ,  $SD = 1.53$ ). These imply that French brands have enjoyed a good reputation

especially for the use of color and design with a lesser degree for the value for the money in the eyes of participating consumers. Overall, the mean scores indicated that the entire sample rated French brands relatively high, with over half of the respondents agree or strongly agree with these statements.

The boycott motivations construct is measured by five items that evaluate the extent of individuals' self-reported motivation associated with their boycott participation. For the five indicators of boycott motivations, the participants reported the highest values for punishment ( $M = 4.91$ ,  $SD = 1.85$ ), anger ( $M = 4.66$ ,  $SD = 1.74$ ), pressure (reversed  $M = 4.42$ ,  $SD = 1.91$ ), voice of opinion (reversed  $M = 4.37$ ,  $SD = 1.75$ ), and the lowest value for guilty ( $M = 4.29$ ,  $SD = 1.78$ ) among the sample studied. In other words, when the data analysis is limited to descriptive statistics of boycott motivations, participating consumers believed that they were most likely to participate in a boycott of French products when they feel angry and seek to punish France.

Finally, for the indicator variables of the latent variable, purchase intentions, descriptive statistics indicates that the sample respondents tended to have a shilly-shally attitude concerning the purchase of French-made products: avoiding the purchase ( $M = 4.58$ ,  $SD = 2.07$ ), liking the owning idea ( $M = 3.18$ ,  $SD = 1.93$ ), preference to buy ( $M = 3.43$ ,  $SD = 2.04$ ), and paying more for domestic products ( $M = 4.48$ ,  $SD = 2.09$ ). Overall, the values below the mid-point for purchase intentions suggest that the respondents slightly tended to shun French brands and pay more for Chinese products. This pattern in the indicator variables of purchase intentions is somewhat inconsistent with the patterns of buying Japanese products among the Chinese (Klein, Ettensen, and Morris, 1998; Tian and Pasadeos, 2008), suggesting that

purchase intentions of angry consumers may vary towards foreign products made by different countries.

**Table 3**  
**Descriptive Statistics of the Observed Variables**

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Stable animosity</i>		
ST1. France is not reliable.	4.97	1.48
ST2. France has always been fair to my country.	3.11	1.55
ST3. France is a friend of my country anytime.	2.87	1.70
ST4. I like the French.	3.69	1.50
ST5. I feel angry towards the French.	5.06	1.42
<i>Situational animosity</i>		
SI1. It is disappointing that the French did so little to help my country host the Olympic games.	5.16	1.58
SI2. The French support my country's reunification.	3.10	1.62
SI3. France wants to gain more control over my country from the Olympic crisis.	4.87	1.61
SI4. I find it hard to forgive the French for the way they covered the Tibet story.	5.23	1.62
<i>Ethnocentrism</i>		
EC1. Chinese products, first, last, and foremost.	4.85	1.47
EC2. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Chinese.	4.44	1.54
EC3. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Chinese out of jobs.	4.49	1.44
EC4. We should purchase products manufactured in China instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.	4.73	1.50
EC5. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.	4.46	1.49
EC6. Chinese consumers who purchase products made in other countries are not responsible for putting their fellow Chinese out of work.	3.57	1.52
<i>Subjective norm</i>		
SN1. Most people who are important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) think I should not avoid purchasing French products.	3.18	1.74
SN2. Most people who are important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) will look down on me if I buy French products.	3.95	1.50
SN3. No one who is important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) thinks it is OK to purchase French	4.66	2.18

*(continued)*

**Table 3 (continued)**  
**Descriptive Statistics of the Observed Variables**

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Product judgment</i>		
PJ1. Products made in France are carefully produced and have fine workmanship.	4.93	1.57
PJ2. Products made in France are generally of a lower quality than similar products available from other countries.	3.24	1.44
PJ3. Products made in France show a very high degree of technological advancement.	4.91	1.42
PJ4. Products made in France usually show a very clever use of color and design.	5.03	1.48
PJ5. Products made in France are usually quite unreliable and seem not to last the desired length of time.	3.15	1.45
PJ6. Products made in France are usually not a good value for the money.	3.24	1.53
<i>Boycott motivations</i>		
BM1. I want to express my anger at France by avoid purchasing French products.	4.66	1.74
BM2. Boycott will not put pressure on France to change its policies.	3.58	1.91
BM3. I do not think that I should use my boycott decisions to voice my opinion toward France.	3.63	1.75
BM4. I want to punish France, and that is why I do not buy their products.	4.91	1.85
BM5. I would feel guilty if I bought a French product.	4.29	1.78
<i>Purchase intentions</i>		
PI1. Whenever possible, I avoid buying French products.	4.58	2.07
PI2. I do like the idea of owning French products.	3.18	1.93
PI3. Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in France.	3.43	2.04
PI4. If two products were equal in quality, but one was from France and one was from China, I would pay 10% more for the product from China.	4.48	2.09

## 6.4 Data Screening

SEM procedures began with a data screening and preliminary data preparation to assure it was suitable for further analysis. This process is crucial for SEM techniques as it provides a

basic understanding of the data and can serve as the foundation for subsequent analysis which relies on the accuracy of the data. Followed the directions suggested by Hair, et al. (1998), the study conducted several parametric tests to evaluate statistical assumptions for SEM. These included detailed examinations and analyses of sample size, missing data, non-response bias, outliers, and normality.

#### **6.4.1 Sample Size**

Sample size is a very important factor in meaningful descriptive statistics of consumer research data related to specific business issues. The sample size recommended for factor analysis should be at least five cases for each of the observed variables (Hatcher, 1994). For the present research, the minimum requirement of cases should be 190, which is the product of 5 cases and 38 observed variables. Similarly, structural equation modeling also requires a large sample size which is critical in the stability of goodness of fit. Hair et al. (1998) suggests that a good rule of thumb for sample size in SEM analysis is to have at least 200 but not exceeding 500 cases. Therefore, a sample of 387 respondents met the criteria for an adequate sample size for factor analysis and path analysis of SEM.

#### **6.4.2 Missing data**

Missing data is a pervasive problem in social science data. The presence of missing data can cause seriously problems with both the analysis and interpretation of the data (Hair et al., 1998). Important information can be lost if the amount of incomplete or missing data is substantial. Because SEM does not tolerate missing data, actions had to be taken be to handle missing data (Hair et al. 1998). According to Allison (2003), problems with missing data can be tackled using a mean score from the sample group to replace a case's missing value. If

there is a minimal (less than 5 percent) missing data, one might consider ignoring the missed cases (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). For the present research, the missing data comprises 4.2 percent of all cases and is considered insignificant. Therefore, it is decided to exclude 17 missing cases from the analysis. There were no other systematic missing values encountered in this study.

### **6.4.3 Non-Response Bias**

Prior research has shown that response bias might influence the validity and generalization of the survey results to a perceptible degree (Churchill, 1991). Because the survey questionnaires were distributed electronically to several nationwide consumer panels, direct assessment of non-response bias in this survey research is rarely possible. However, it is still appropriate to utilize extrapolating methods to investigate the likelihood of non-response bias (Compeau and Higgins, 1995). In order to assess non-response bias, the researcher employed *t*-tests to compare construct scores for all model variables from early respondents to those from late respondents. Following the suggestion of Compeau and Higgins (1995), the survey data was split into two sets based on the dates the responses were received. The early group contained 266 responses and the late group was comprised of 121 responses. *T*-tests were then conducted to compare the difference between these two groups for the model variables namely, stable animosity, situational animosity, ethnocentrism, subjective norm, product judgment, boycott motivations, and purchase intentions. As seen from Table 4, none of the study variables were found to be significantly different between the early and late respondents. Moreover, chi-square tests were also conducted to compare the demographic variables age, gender, marriage, education, and income between these two

groups. No significant differences were observed in demographic variables. Therefore, it can be assumed that response bias may not be problematic for this study.

**Table 4**  
**T-test Results for Non-Response Bias**

<i>Variables</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>T-value</i>	<i>P</i>
<i>Stable animosity</i>					
Early responses	266	4.91	1.21	.83	.407
Late responses	121	4.80	1.18		
<i>Situational animosity</i>					
Early responses	266	5.06	1.33	.28	.784
Late responses	121	5.02	1.20		
<i>Ethnocentrism</i>					
Early responses	266	4.53	1.17	-1.02	.308
Late responses	121	4.66	1.07		
<i>Subjective norm</i>					
Early responses	266	4.44	1.51	-.76	.448
Late responses	121	4.56	1.57		
<i>Product judgment</i>					
Early responses	266	4.91	1.11	.87	.383
Late responses	121	4.80	1.13		
<i>Boycott motivations</i>					
Early responses	266	4.47	1.55	-1.12	.263
Late responses	121	4.66	1.46		
<i>Purchase intentions</i>					
Early responses	266	3.41	1.67	.34	.736
Late responses	121	3.35	1.68		

#### 6.4.4 Outliers

Outliers refer to the cases with atypical or extreme values at one or both ends of a sample distribution (Kline, 2005). The presence of outliers can seriously distort the model identification and estimation steps. In this study, multivariate outliers were identified by Mahalanobis distance (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). Mahalanobis distance is the distance of a case from the centroid of a distribution where the centroid is established by the means of all the variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). For multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis distance is assessed as a chi-square probability distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the

number of variables in the analysis. One possible criterion of detecting outliers is a value of probability for Mahalanobis distance which is significant at  $p < .001$  (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1996). In the present study, four cases out of 387 were identified as multivariate outliers with a probability value of Mahalanobis distance less than .001. Descriptive and exploratory analyses were employed without the four outliers to investigate whether the deletion of outliers affect the distribution in terms of assumptions. The results were not significantly different between one with the outlying cases included and the other after the cases have been deleted. Therefore, it was concluded that the four cases with unusual values are legitimate and should remain in the sample for further analysis.

#### **6.4.5 Normality**

Data normality is generally focused on the premise that data samples originate from one or more normally distributed populations. Since SEM procedures require normal distribution of data (Hatcher, 1994), the skewness and kurtosis tests were performed using SPSS 14 for Windows to scrutinize univariate normality for each of the variables in the model. Skewness refers to asymmetry of the distribution while kurtosis measures the peakedness or flatness of the distribution (Hopkins and Weeks, 1990). A skewness and kurtosis of zero is indicative of a normal distribution. DeCarlo (1997) suggests that a sample's skewness and Kurtosis values should be within the range of -2 and 2. By applying the above criteria to the skewness and kurtosis coefficients for each of the observed variables given in Table 5, it is apparent that all the variables measured, without any exception, were within the +2 to -2 range for skewness and Kurtosis. Hence, these results provide clear evidence that scales data for the study are normally distributed with no outlying observations.

**Table 5**  
**Skewness and Kurtosis for the Observed Variables (N = 387)**

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
<i>Stable animosity</i>		
ST1	-.71	.13
ST2	.58	-.27
ST3	.59	-.78
ST4	.35	-.89
ST5	-.64	-.39
<i>Situational animosity</i>		
SI1	-.75	-.40
SI2	.57	-.63
SI3	-.45	-.75
SI4	-.99	.01
<i>Ethnocentrism</i>		
EC1	-.49	-.55
EC2	-.38	-.15
EC3	-.35	-.25
EC4	-.30	-.64
EC5	-.50	-.33
EC6	.20	-.47
<i>Subjective norm</i>		
SN1	.03	-.53
SN2	.49	-.75
SN3	-.67	-1.12
<i>Product judgment</i>		
PJ1	-.40	-.74
PJ2	.18	-.62
PJ3	-.32	-.52
PJ4	.18	-.79
PJ5	-.28	-.83
PJ6	.22	-.33
<i>Boycott motivations</i>		
BM1	-.16	-1.27
BM2	-.60	-.88
BM3	.63	-.64
BM4	-.76	-.94
BM5	.30	-1.17
<i>Purchase intentions</i>		
PI1	-.52	-1.08
PI2	.54	-1.05
PI3	.45	-1.16
PI4	-.48	-1.16

## **6.5 Reliability and Validity Analyses**

One advantage of using latent variables analysis in SEM is that one can assess the reliability and validity of the scales employed in research (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). In the current study, confirmatory procedures were employed to assess the measurement qualities of the underlying constructs prior to testing the structural models (Kline, 2005). In general, reliability refers to the consistency or repeatability of measurement while validity represents the extent to which the test measures and only measures what it is supposed to measure (Forza, 2002). This study assessed the reliability of construction of latent variables using Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE). The validity of measures was confirmed by the analysis of convergent validity and discriminant validity (Campbell and Fiske, 1959).

### **6.5.1 Reliability Analysis**

*Cronbach's alpha.* To estimate internal consistency reliability Cronbach's alpha analysis was conducted for each of the constructs. Hair et al. (1998) suggested that a Cronbach's alpha of .70 or greater is considered acceptable for research. The results for Cronbach's alpha analyses on the seven subscales are presented in Table 6. As seen from the table, the constructs that produced the highest Cronbach's alpha were boycott motivations (.89) and ethnocentrism (.86). The scale reliabilities in this study were all above the recommended cut-off of .7, indicating that all the constructs possessed adequate reliabilities.

**Table 6**  
**Cronbach's Alpha of Constructs**

<i>Constructs</i>	<i># of items</i>	<i>Cronbach' s Alpha</i>
<i>Stable animosity</i>	5	.84
<i>Situational animosity</i>	4	.83
<i>Ethnocentrism</i>	6	.86
<i>Subjective norm</i>	3	.78
<i>Product judgment</i>	6	.85
<i>Boycott motivations</i>	5	.89
<i>Purchase intentions</i>	4	.84

*Composite reliability.* Although Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all latent variables in this study indicated acceptable internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha might not be the most efficient approach of reliability because of its built-in assumption of unidimensionality of the constructs (Hattie, 1985). Unidimensionality has been identified when the indicators of construct have acceptable fit on a single-factor model (Hair et al. 1998). In that situation, Cronbach's alpha might misestimate true reliability. For this reason, composite reliability is now preferred and should be considered for this study. Composite reliability is analogous to coefficient alpha in measuring the overall reliability of a scale. Unlike alphas, composite reliability relies on actual loadings directly from CFA to assess construct reliability (Straub, 1989). This study calculated composite reliability using formula suggested by Chin (1998):

$$\text{Composite reliability} = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum (1 - \lambda_i^2)}$$

Where  $\lambda_i$  is the loading of each item to a latent construct and  $\Sigma$  denotes a sum (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The value of 0.7 or greater is recommended for composite reliability to be considered adequate (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). In this study, the composite reliability coefficients ranged from .796 to .911, indicating a reliable construct measurement (see Table

7).

*Average variance extracted (AVE)*. The level of variance extracted is another measure of reliability. Average variance extracted (AVE), as discussed by Fornell and Larcker (1981), reflects the overall amount of variance due to measurement error in the indicators accounted for by the latent variable. For instance, the variance estimate for stable animosity was .532, meaning that 53.2 percent of the variance is explained by the stable animosity construct, and 46.8 percent is due to random measurement error. Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that the variance extracted value for a construct should exceed .50. However, this test is more conservative than other tests because variance extracted scores are very often below .50, even when reliabilities are acceptable (Hatcher, 1994).

The formula used to calculate AVE is:

$$AVE = \frac{\sum (\lambda_i^2)}{\sum (\lambda_i^2) + \sum (1 - \lambda_i^2)}$$

Where  $\lambda_i$  is the loading of each item to a latent construct and  $\Sigma$  denotes a sum (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The variance extracted estimates for each construct in the hypothesized model are shown in Table 7. Only product judgment fell below .50 at .488.

**Table 7**  
**Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted of Constructs**

<i>Constructs</i>	<i>Composite reliability</i>	<i>Average variance extracted</i>
<i>Stable animosity</i>	.848	.532
<i>Situational animosity</i>	.895	.565
<i>Ethnocentrism</i>	.911	.502
<i>Subjective norm</i>	.796	.567
<i>Product judgment</i>	.850	.488
<i>Boycott motivations</i>	.899	.644
<i>Purchase intentions</i>	.845	.578

### 6.5.2 Validity Analysis

Construct validity of the latent variables is comprised of both convergent and discriminant validities (Churchill, 1979). Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two or more indicators designed to measure the same underlying construct are correlated. A strong correlation indicates that both indicators are measuring what they are intended to measure (Hatcher, 1994). In contrast, discriminant validity refers to the extent to which one theoretical construct differs from another (Campbell and Fiske, 1959).

*Convergent validity.* Convergent validity was assessed on the basis of the *t*-tests for the factor loadings (Thong et al., 1996). If each indicator's loading on its own construct is larger than twice its standard errors, the scale demonstrated convergent validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The results of a confirmatory factor analysis of the theoretical model showed that all the factor loadings for the indicators met the above criteria and the *t*-values for all thirty-three indicators ranging from 10.67 to 19.02 were significant at least at  $p < .01$  (see subsequent page for Table 11). Consequently, it is suggested that all indicators were effectively measuring the designated construct.

*Discriminant validity.* A couple of tests were performed to assess the discriminant validity of the constructs. First, the omnibus test of discriminant validity was done for the overall measurement model. This test requires the comparison of the free model and the fixed model. The free model contained all the items loading on their respective factors and all the latent variables were freely correlated without any constrain. The fixed model also contained all the items loading on their respective factors but all the latent variables in this model were perfectly correlated by constraining all the inter-construct relationships to one. A significant difference in chi-square values for the free and fixed models indicates discriminant validity of the constructs. As shown in Table 8, the chi-square value of the free model was 721.50 ( $df = 474$ ), which was significantly better than the fixed model with a chi-square value of 1707.60 ( $df = 495$ ) as the difference in the chi-square values between the two models was 986.1 ( $\Delta df = 21$ ) ( $p < .001$ ). In addition, other fit indices also indicated a better model fit for the free model. Thus, this test supports the discriminant validity among the constructs in the hypothesized model.

**Table 8**  
**Omnibus Test of Discriminant Validity**

<i>Model</i>	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2 (\Delta df)$	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>
Free model	721.50	474	986.1* (21)	.961	.037
Fixed model	1707.60	495		.811	.080

Note: \*  $p < .001$ .

Second, average variance extracted (AVE) tests were conducted to assess discriminant validity of the model constructs as recommended by Fornell and Larker (1981). If the square root of AVE for each latent construct is larger than all the inter-construct correlations between this construct and every other construct, the discriminant validity is

supported (Staples et al., 1999). The result of this test for the measurement model is presented in Table 9. The diagonal entries, which should be greater than all other entries in the same row and column, represent the square root of the AVE for each construct, whereas the off-diagonal entries report the correlation between each pair of latent constructs. As seen in the table, the discriminant validity is supported for all latent constructs without exception. For example, stable animosity exhibited good discriminant validity from all other constructs. The AVE for stable animosity was .53 while the shared variance between stable animosity and other constructs ranged from .35 to .64. Because the square root of AVE (.73) for stable animosity is greater than any correlation between that construct and the other constructs, the test provides evidence of discriminant validity.

**Table 9**  
**Correlations and Square Roots of Average Variance Extracted**

<i>Scale</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Stable animosity	.73						
2. Situational animosity	.55	.75					
3. Ethnocentrism	.35	.35	.71				
4. Subjective norm	.46	.47	.29	.75			
5. Product judgment	-.36	-.36	-.23	-.45	.70		
6. Boycott motivations	.64	.70	.48	.61	-.58	.80	
7. Purchase intentions	-.56	-.57	-.46	-.60	.62	-.74	.76

*Square roots of AVE are on the diagonal; correlations are off-diagonal.*

### 6.6 Effects of Demographic Variables

Although the observed demographic characteristics are not of primary interest to the present research, it is important to determine whether demographic variables were necessary

to be included for further analysis. The researcher conducted a Pearson correlation analysis using SPSS 14.0 to examine if there are any important demographic profiles such as gender, age, marriage, education, and income that are strongly associated with the model variables (i.e., stable animosity, situational animosity, ethnocentrism, subjective norm, product judgment, boycott motivations, and purchase intentions). The results suggested that age, education and income level had no significant association with the model variables (correlations ranging from  $-.061$  to  $.074$ , all  $p$  values  $> .05$ ). Spearman's rank correlations were also performed to further investigate the degree to which they vary together. As shown in Table 10, none of three aforementioned demographic files was significantly related with the model variables ( $p > .05$ ). In order to assess whether the rest of demographic data had an effect on the model variables, t-tests and ANOVA tests were completed. The results indicated that marital status was not a significant predictor (all ANOVA F values  $< 1.85$ ,  $p > .05$ ); however, the effect of gender differences on situational animosity levels in sampled respondents was confirmed by a two-group t-test. Of the 387 respondents, 202 were male and 185 female. The average situational animosity score of males was 5.17; and 4.91 for females. The mean difference was statically significant ( $t = 2$ ,  $p < .05$ ). For the most part, demographic variables have limited explanatory power in predicting consumer perception and attitude change in the context of this work. Consequently, this study did not include demographic variables in subsequent analysis.

**Table 10**  
**Spearman Correlations Between Age, Education, and Income and the Model Variables**

	<i>STA</i>	<i>SIA</i>	<i>EC</i>	<i>SN</i>	<i>PJ</i>	<i>BM</i>	<i>PI</i>
<i>Age</i>	.015	-.065	-.021	.058	.001	-.004	-.022
<i>Education</i>	.033	-.057	-.020	.012	.017	-.004	.052
<i>Income</i>	.034	.028	.049	.041	.028	.021	.010

## 6.7 Structural Equation Modeling Analyses

To test the hypotheses, structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed using AMOS 7.0 software in this study. According to Steenkamp et al. (2000), SEM is especially useful for analyzing constructs that are not scientific such as attitudes, intention, and market orientation which cannot be directly observed. Therefore, SEM is an appropriate method for this study to investigate consumer attitude and purchase intentions. The analysis of SEM consists of two basic parts: the measurement model and the structural model. The measurement model examines how well the unobserved variables are measured by the observed indicators. After determining the measurement models are in general reliable enough for further analyses, the structural model was conducted using path analysis with latent variables. Standardized coefficients discussed earlier were used to interpret the relationships among constructs in the research model.

### 6.7.1 Measurement Model

The measurement model describes the relationship of the measured variables and the latent variables. Following the recommendation of Joreskog (1993), each of the single-constructed measurement models reflecting its corresponding latent construct was analyzed, followed by an overall measurement model of all individual measurement models. Confirmatory factor analysis

(CFA) was conducted to test the measurement model for all latent variables with their associated observed variables.

More particularly, the researcher first analyzed seven individual constructs in the model using CFA separately and examined the fit of the indicators to each construct. In addition to fit indices, Bollen (1989) suggested that structural elements of the model such as standardized factor loadings, t-values, and squared multiple correlations ( $R^2$ ) for the observed variables should be used for measurement model testing. The factor loading estimates carry the information about how a given indicator is able to measure the latent variable. The squared multiple correlations ( $R^2$ ) generated by the AMOS 7 are used to assess the proportion of the variance of each item explained by the factor structure (Kline, 2005). The squared multiple correlation estimates can range from .00 to 1.00, and represent the indicator reliability (Bollen, 1989). For example, the values of squared multiple correlation range from .45 to .87 for individual items, suggesting that the construct had adequate indicator reliability as between 45% and 87% of the variance on individual items can be accounted for by the assigned common factor. Table 11 and Table 12 report CFA results separately for standardized factor loadings of each question item and fit indices for all the single-constructed measurement models. CFA results for each of the individual measurement models are discussed in detail in the following subsections of this chapter.

**Table 11**  
**Standardized Factor Loadings of Constructs**

<i>Dimensions</i>	<i>Factor loadings</i>	<i>R<sup>2</sup></i>	<i>S.E. *</i>	<i>T-value **</i>
<i>Stable animosity</i>				
ST1	.84	.71	—	—
ST2	.56	.31	.062	11.08
ST3	.77	.59	.064	16.36
ST4	.63	.40	.059	12.86
ST5	.81	.65	.053	17.25
<i>Situational animosity</i>				
SI1	.73	.54	—	—
SI2	.76	.58	.076	14.03
SI3	.59	.35	.071	10.87
SI4	.89	.79	.083	15.17
<i>Ethnocentrism</i>				
EC1	.66	.43	—	—
EC2	.76	.58	.090	12.40
EC3	.72	.52	.092	11.84
EC4	.63	.40	.093	10.67
EC5	.80	.63	.093	12.79
EC6	.67	.45	.092	11.22
<i>Subjective norm</i>				
SN1	.65	.43	—	—
SN2	.82	.66	.127	11.35
SN3	.78	.61	.153	12.23
<i>Product judgment</i>				
		.27		
PJ1	.79	.63	—	—
PJ2	.70	.49	.060	13.52
PJ3	.67	.45	.059	12.99
PJ4	.60	.36	.064	11.46
PJ5	.72	.52	.061	13.98
PJ6	.69	.48	.060	13.42
<i>Boycott motivations</i>				
		.69		
BM1	.77	.60	—	—
BM2	.90	.82	.060	19.02
BM3	.77	.60	.062	15.96
BM4	.84	.70	.064	17.50
BM5	.71	.50	.068	14.35
<i>Purchase intentions</i>				
		.65		
PI1	.73	.53	—	—
PI2	.88	.77	.074	15.16
PI3	.66	.44	.074	12.19
PI4	.76	.57	.076	13.84

\* Errors are the residual component of each item to its construct.

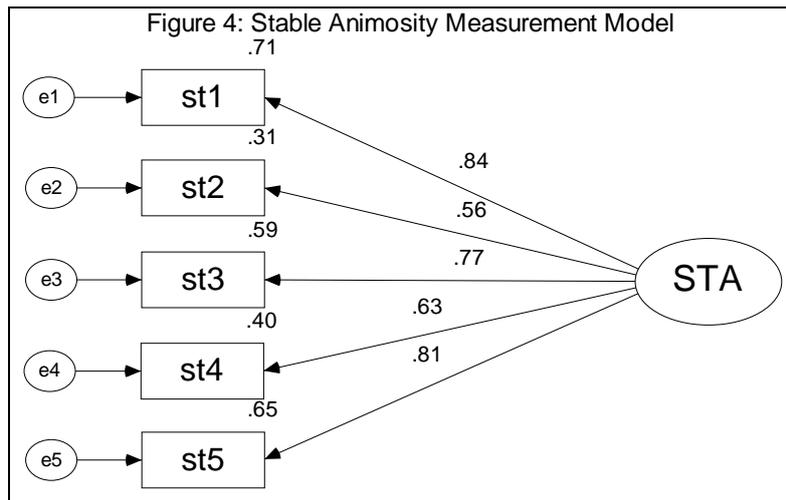
\*\* All factor loadings are significant at least at  $p=0.01$ .

**Table 12**  
**Fit Indices for Single-Constructed Measurement Models**

<i>Scale</i>	<i>#Items</i>	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\chi^2/df$	<i>p-level</i>	<i>GFI</i>	<i>TLI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>
Stable animosity	5	9.01	5	1.80	.11	.990	.990	.995	.046
Situational animosity	4	1.40	2	.70	.50	.998	1.003	1.000	.000
Ethnocentrism	6	23.80	9	2.64	.01	.980	.972	.983	.065
Subjective norm	3	.00	3	.00	1.00	1.000	1.000	1.000	.000
Product judgment	6	19.09	9	2.12	.02	.983	.980	.988	.054
Boycott motivations	5	11.46	5	2.29	.04	.988	.989	.994	.058
Purchase intentions	4	2.58	2	1.29	.28	.997	.997	.999	.027

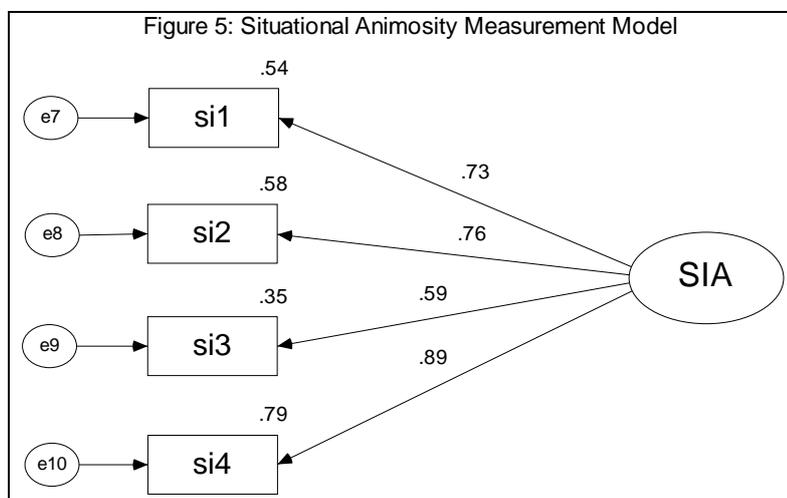
### 6.7.1.1 CFA for Stable Animosity

The measurement model for stable animosity was a single factor model with five manifest variables. Standardized factor loadings for the model were all above .55 ( $p < .01$ ), indicating that these variables are appropriate indicators of the latent construct (see Table 11). The analysis of the squared multiple correlations showed that four of the five indicators concerned with consumers' stable animosity met the recommended criteria of .40 (Taylor and Todd, 1995). The fit indices of the stable animosity measurement model ( $\chi^2 = 9.01$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.80$ ,  $p > .05$ ,  $GFI = .990$ ,  $TLI = .990$ ,  $CFI = .995$ ,  $RMSEA = .046$ ) demonstrated that the hypothesized individual model fits the sample data well (see Table 12). Figure 4 displays standardized parameter estimates for confirmatory factor analysis of the latent construct of stable animosity.



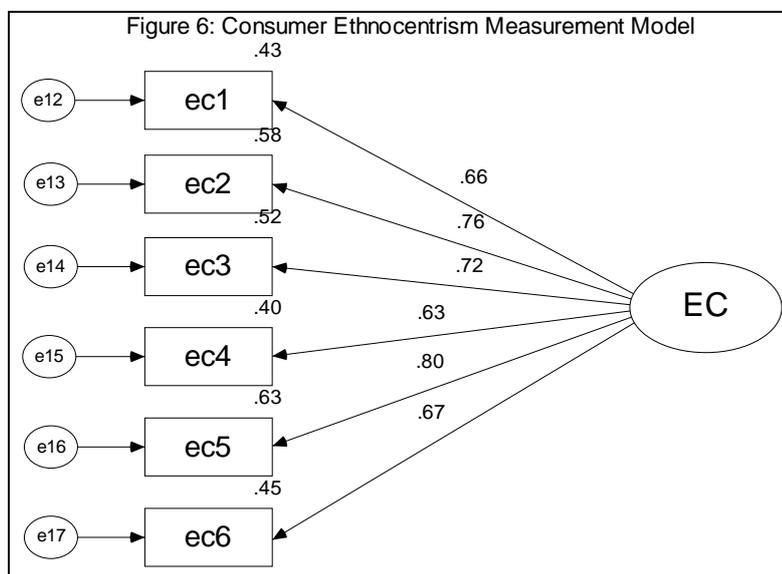
### 6.7.1.2 CFA for Situational Animosity

The situational animosity model was a single-factor model that has four scales. Standardized loading estimates ranged from .59 to .89, and all were significant at the  $p < .005$  level. The squared multiple correlations are adequate except for one item about consumers' insecure feeling toward French (see Table 11). The overall measurement fit of the situational animosity construct was tested using a confirmatory factor analysis. According to fit indices, the factor representing situational animosity provided an excellent fit to the data:  $\chi^2 = 1.40$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $\chi^2/df = .70$ ,  $p > .05$ , GFI = .998, TLI = 1.003, CFI = 1.000, RMSEA = .000 (see Table 12). Figure 5 shows standardized parameter estimates for confirmatory factor analysis of the situational animosity construct.



### 6.7.1.3 CFA for Consumer Ethnocentrism

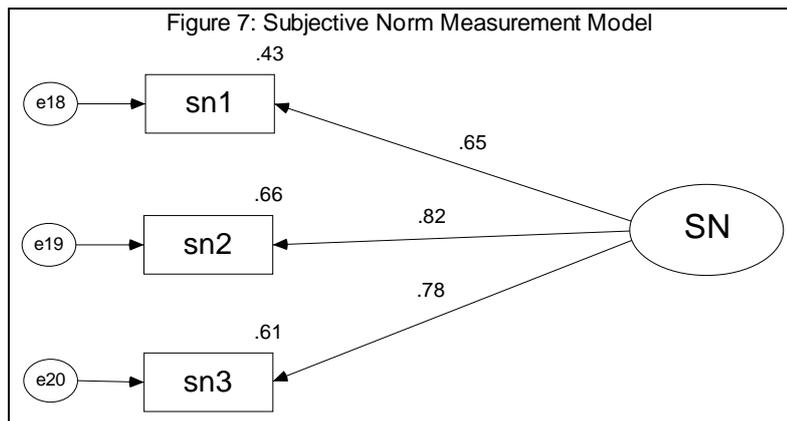
The measurement model for ethnocentrism was a single-factor model with six indicators. Standardized loading estimates ranged from .63 to .80, with all t-values significant at the  $p < .005$  level. All the squared multiple correlations were greater than or equal to .40, indicating a moderate level of reliability. As shown in Table 11 and Table 12, the ethnocentrism construct had excellent fit indices except for the chi-square value ( $\chi^2 = 23.80$ ,  $df = 9$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.64$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $GFI = .998$ ,  $TLI = 1.003$ ,  $CFI = 1.000$ ,  $RMSEA = .000$ ). As discussed aforementioned, the chi-square fit index is sensitive to its sample size and the number of observed variables. For these reason, the ratio of  $\chi^2$  to its degree of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ) was used for model assessment. The  $\chi^2/df$  value for the ethnocentrism measurement model was lower than 3, indicating an adequate fit between the individual model and the sample data. Figure 6 demonstrates standardized parameter estimates for confirmatory factor analysis of the latent variable of ethnocentrism.



### 6.7.1.4 CFA for Subjective Norm

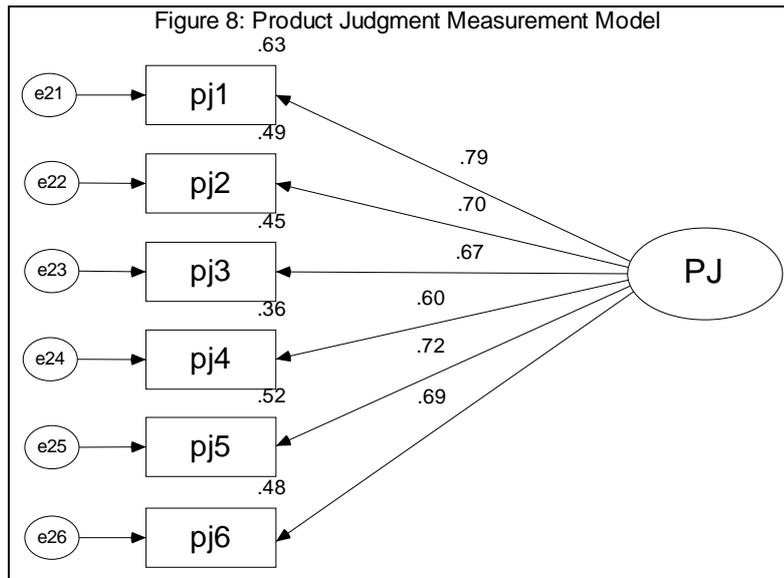
The subjective norm construct was measured by a three-item scale, which made it impossible to calculate the fit indices. However, three indicators per latent variable were ideal for a measurement

model. The factor loadings of items for this scale ranged between .65 and .82 ( $p < .005$ ), indicating that all items are reliable estimates to measure subjective norm construct (see Table 11). The observed squared multiple correlations for the variable ranged from .43 to .66. Figure 7 displays standardized parameter estimates for confirmatory factor analysis of the construct.



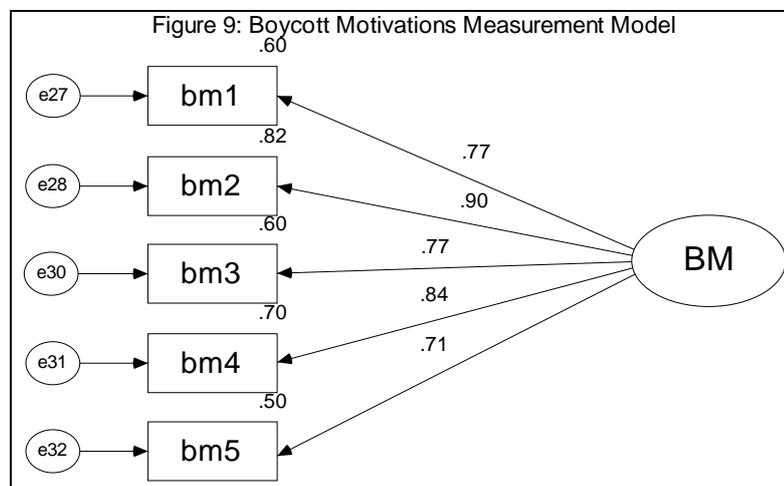
### 6.7.1.5 CFA for Product Judgment

The measurement model for product judgment is a single factor model comprised of six observable variables. The magnitudes of the standardized loading estimates ranged from .60 to .79, and all t-values were significant at the  $p < .005$  level. An examination of the squared multiple correlations, ranging from .36 to .52, revealed that the model did a reasonable job of explaining consumers' perceptions of product quality. Table 11 and Table 12 present the results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the product judgment construct, including standardized loadings, t-value, and fit indices. Although the chi-square test was significant ( $\chi^2 = 19.09$ ,  $df = 9$ ,  $p < .05$ ), other fit indices indicated that the proposed model did provide a good fit for the data ( $\chi^2/df = 2.12$ , GFI = .983, TLI = .980, CFI = .988, RMSEA = .054). Figure 8 presents standardized parameter estimates for confirmatory factor analysis of the product judgment construct.



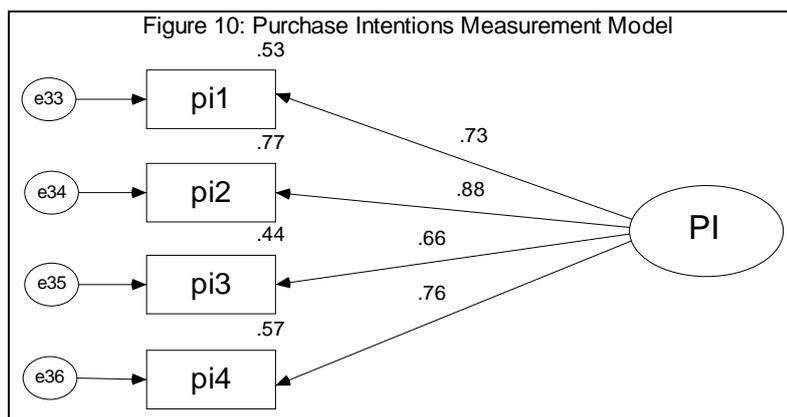
### 6.7.1.6 CFA for Boycott Motivations

The construct of boycott motivations was measured with five items. All the factor loading estimates were quite satisfactory, ranging from .71 to .90 ( $p < .005$ ). Each of the squared multiple correlations of the five items was greater than or equal to .50 (see Table 11), indicating that the measure is moderately strong (Kline, 2005). The fit indices of the boycott motivations measurement model ( $\chi^2 = 11.46$ ,  $df = 5$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 2.29$ ,  $p < .05$ , GFI = .988, TLI = .989, CFI = .994, RMSEA = .058, see Table 12) indicated that the hypothesized individual model fit the sample data well. Figure 9 displays standardized parameter estimates for confirmatory factor analysis of the underlying construct of boycott motivations.



### 6.7.1.7 CFA for Purchase Intentions

The purchase intentions measurement model is a single factor model comprised of four indicators. Within this one factor structure, the standardized loadings ranged from .66 to .88, and all were statistically significant at the  $p < .005$  level (see Table 11). The squared multiple correlations ranged between .44 and .77 for the purchase intentions subscale. The fit indices of the latent construct ( $\chi^2 = 2.58$ ,  $df = 2$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.29$ ,  $p > .05$ , GFI = .997, TLI = .997, CFI = .999, RMSEA = .027, see Table 12) indicated that the measurement model did provide an excellent fit to the data. Figure 10 shows standardized parameter estimates for confirmatory factor analysis of the purchase intentions variable.

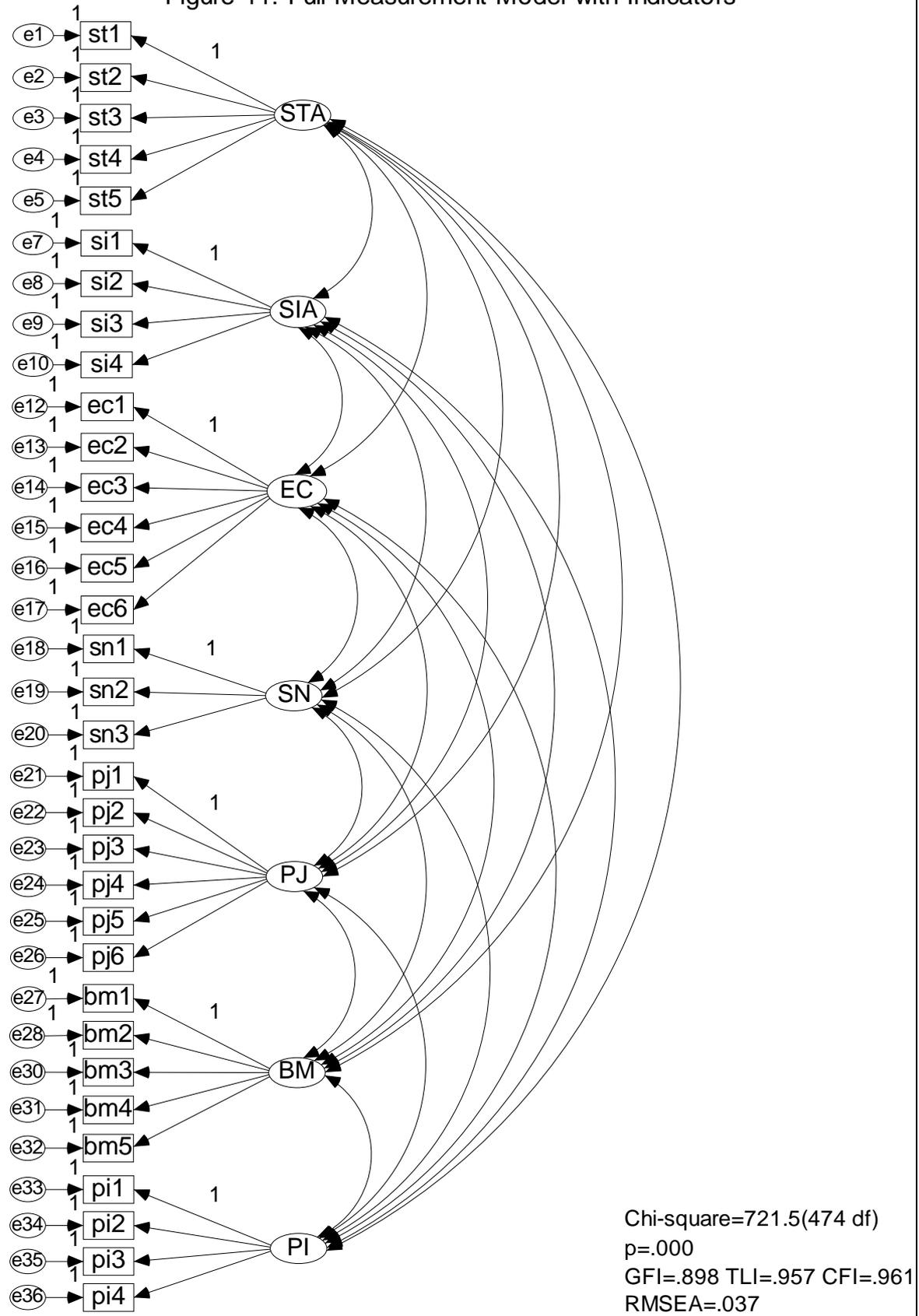


### 6.7.1.8 Full Measurement Model Fit

After confirmatory factor analysis for each of individual latent variables, the full measurement model was analyzed in AMOS to further assess the overall model fit (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1996). According to Kline (2005), the measurement model allows all latent constructs to correlate with each other freely and ignores causal relationships between variables. In the full measurement model, each indicator variable is predicted to load on one factor and the error term is specified to be uncorrelated. In this study, the full measurement model consists of seven latent variables or constructs and 33 observable indicators. Figure 11 depicts the full measurement model with covariances for each latent

variable and all indicator variables. The resulting fit indices indicated that the full measurement model had a good fit with  $\chi^2 = 721.5$ ,  $df = 474$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.52$ , GFI = .898, TLI = .957, CFI = .961, RMSEA = .037. All factor correlations ranging from .23 to .74 are presented in Table 9. Boycott motivations was correlated most strongly with purchase intentions.

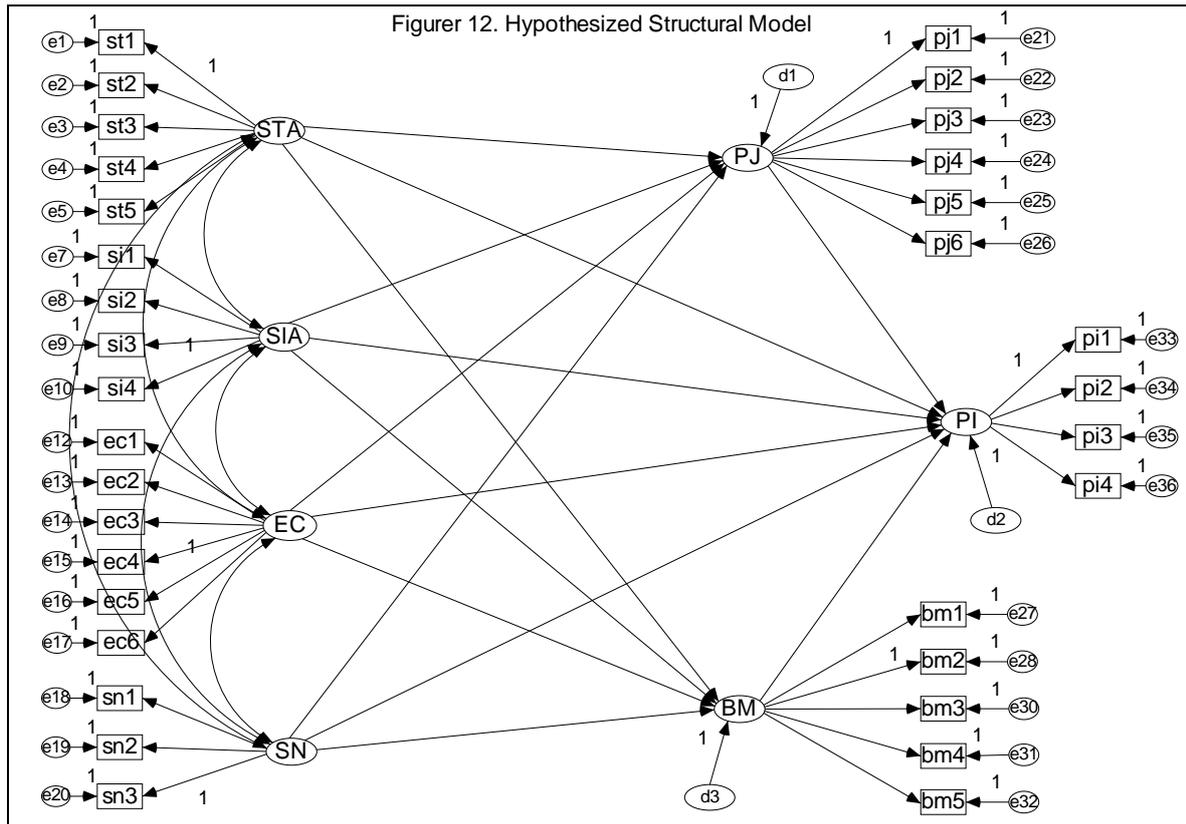
Figure 11: Full Measurement Model with Indicators



### **6.7.2 Structural Model**

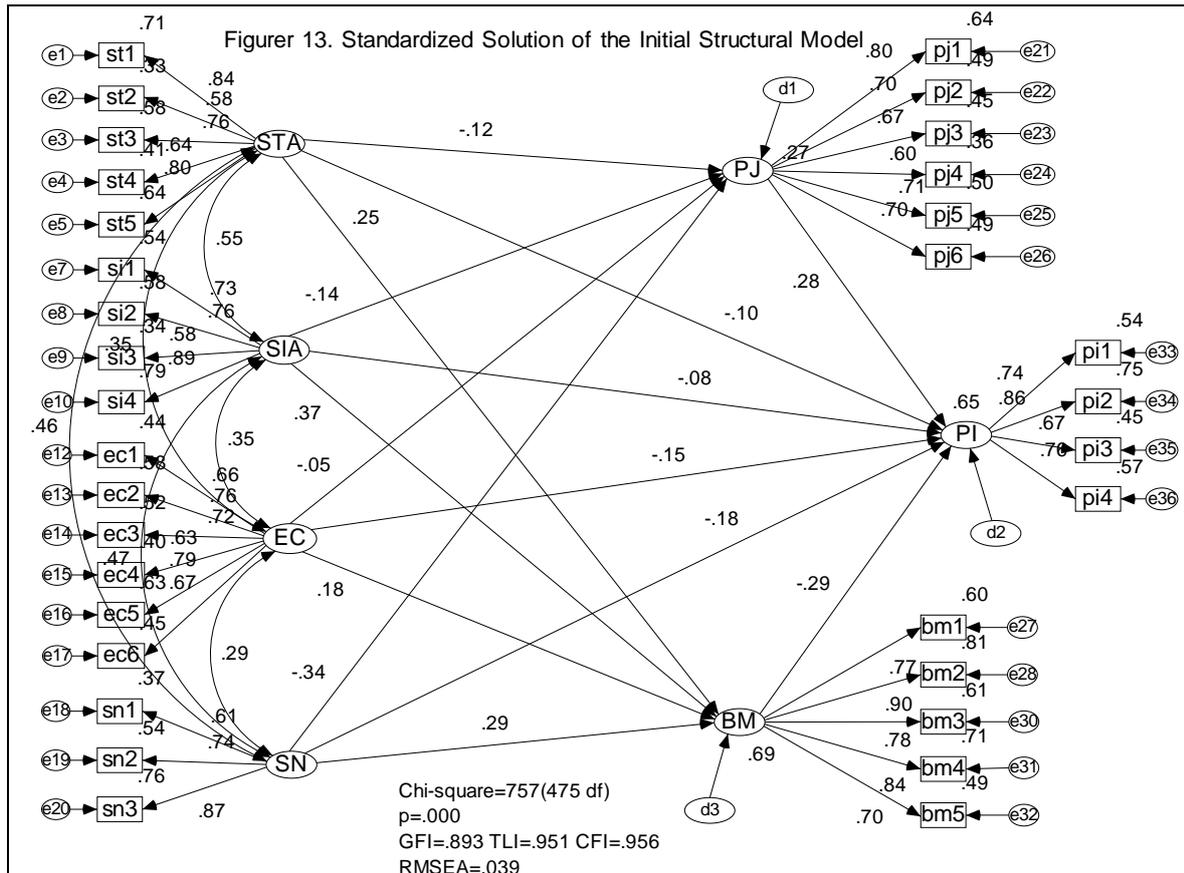
The major focus of this study is to examine the direct and indirect effects of consumer animosity on the purchase intentions toward foreign-made products. More specifically, the intention is to examine (1) the relationships of consumer animosities, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm, (2) the direct effects of the aforementioned factors on consumers' perception of product quality, motivation for boycott participation, and intention of purchase, and (3) the mediating effects of consumer animosity on the willingness to buy imported products.

Previous chapters analyzed and discussed the logic and rationale behind the model and hypotheses guiding the present study. The reliability and validity of measurement instruments were established, and the details of each construct and overall measurement model were presented earlier. In this section, the hypothesized structural model for the direct and indirect effects of consumer animosity is assessed. Figure 12 displays the hypothesized structural model of this study. A close examination of the figure shows the structural properties of the model has seven latent variables and four of them are the exogenous variables and the other three are endogenous variables. As shown in the figure, the exogenous measurement model contains five observed instruments for stable animosity, four instruments for situational animosity construct, six instruments for ethnocentrism construct, and three instruments for subjective norm construct along with their related measurement error terms. The endogenous variables were product judgment, boycott motivations, and purchase intentions constructs. The endogenous measurement model consists of 15 observed instruments accompanied by their related error terms.



### 6.7.2.1 Initial Structural Model Testing

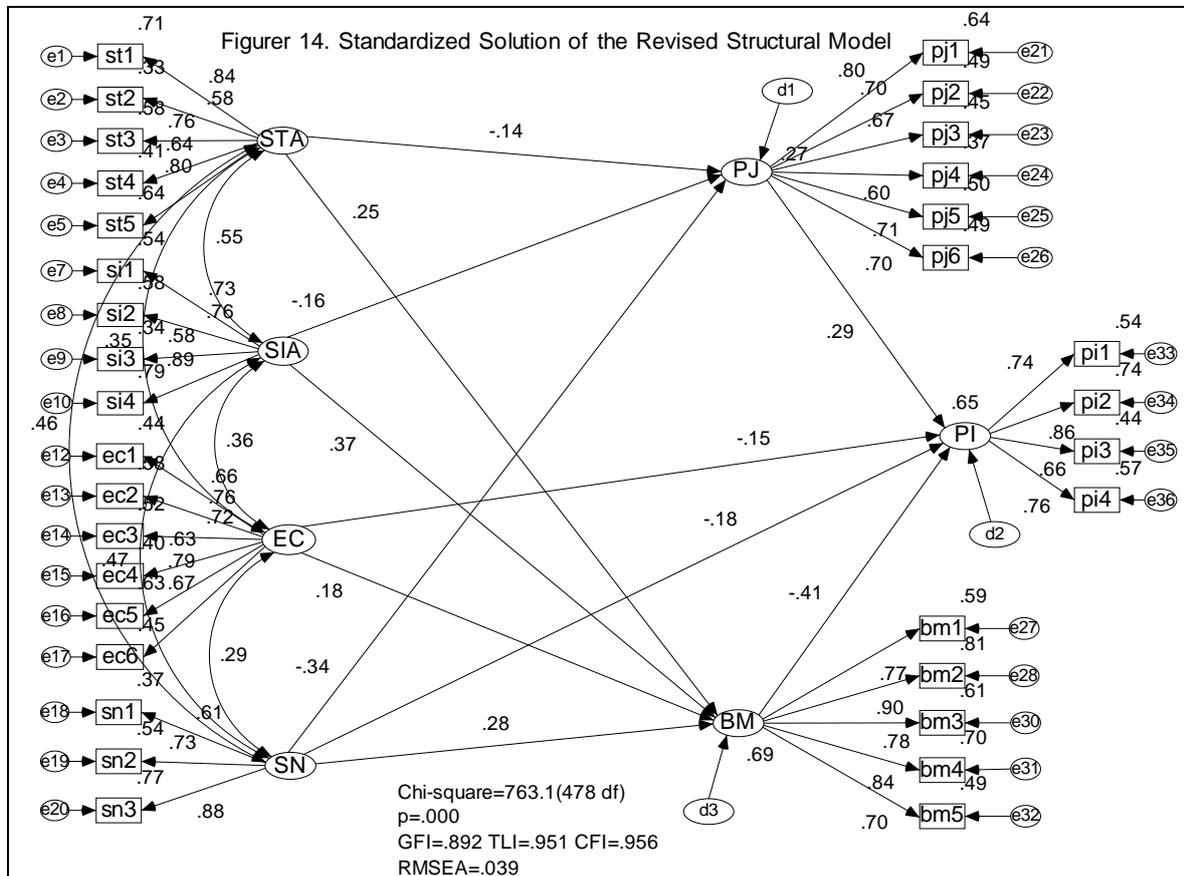
The initial structural model comprises the unobservable constructs and the theoretical relationships among them. Testing this includes estimating the path coefficients, which indicate the strength and direction of the relationships among variables. In the present study, a test of the initial structural model yielded a chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value of 757.0 with 475 degrees of freedom (*df*) and a probability of .000, indicating the model did not fit the data perfectly. However, the normed chi-square ( $\chi^2/df$ ) value is 1.59 and therefore below the critical value of 3, which indicated a good fit. The other fit indices also showed that the hypothesized model is a good explanation of the sample data (GFI = .893, TLI = .951, CFI = .956, RMSEA = .039). Figure 13 displays the results of initial structural model of this study.



### 6.7.2.2 Revised Structural Model Testing

In order to simplify this general model and obtain a more parsimonious model, four non-significant paths were removed in a subsequent process of model trimming, including (a) the path from stable animosity to product judgment, (b) the path from ethnocentrism to product judgment, (c) the path from stable animosity to purchase intentions, and (d) the path from situational animosity to purchase intentions. When the non-significant paths were dropped from the research model, there was statistically significant difference in the fit of the model based on the chi-square difference test ( $\chi^2$  difference = 9.8,  $df = 4$ ,  $p < .05$ ), indicating that the revised structural model had worse fit than the original structural model. However, the chi-square difference was no longer significant ( $\chi^2$  difference = 6.1, 3  $df$ ,  $p < .05$ ) when the path from stable animosity to product judgment was added back to the modified model.

This result therefore demonstrated an adequate fit between the modified model and the sample data ( $\chi^2 = 763.1$ ,  $df = 478$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.60$ , GFI = .892, TLI = .951, CFI = .956, RMSEA = .039). Furthermore, the direct effect of stable animosity on product judgment in the modified model was found to become stronger and statistically significant at the  $p < .05$  level. As shown in Figure 14, the modified model had path coefficients that were all statistically significant and theoretically sound. The results are discussed further in the subsequent sections of this dissertation.



The estimated squared multiple correlations ( $R^2$ ) of the three endogenous latent variables in the structural model are shown in Figure 14. In the structural model, the squared multiple correlations indicate the proportion of variance of an endogenous latent variable that is explained by its exogenous latent variables. For example, 27 percent of the total variance in

the product judgment variable is explained by its three predictors: stable animosity, situational animosity, and subjective norm. The results of path coefficients indicated that the predicting factor subjective norm explained more of the variance of product judgment than did the other two predictors stable and situational animosities. Likewise, 69 percent of the total variance in boycott motivation factor is explained by its four predicting factors: stable animosity, situational animosity, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm. Moreover, because ethnocentrism, subjective norm, product judgment, and boycott motivations were the only four significant predictors for the latent variable purchase intentions in the model, they explained 65 percent of the variance on consumer intentions to purchase.

## **6.8 Hypotheses Testing**

The proposed hypotheses of the study were tested using structural equation modeling software AMOS 7. Among them, 6 referred to the relationships between consumer animosities, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm, 13 hypotheses addressed the direct effects of the aforementioned factors on product judgment, boycott motivations, and purchase intentions, and 8 hypotheses concerned about the mediating effects of consumers' evaluations of product quality and their motivations for boycott participation on the intention of purchase. The results of hypotheses testing indicate that 21 of the 27 proposed hypotheses were supported. This section of the chapter provides a detailed discussion and explanation of the hypotheses.

### *Relationships between the Predictors*

Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c predicted that stable animosity, situational animosity, and ethnocentrism would positively interact with each other. This hypothesis was tested by

examining the bivariate relationships among stable animosity, situational animosity, and ethnocentrism variables. As shown in Table 13, the standardized path coefficients of .35, .36, and .55 were all significant ( $p < .001$ ), thus the hypotheses were strongly supported by the data. This suggests that increased feelings of stable and situational animosities were associated with increased level of consumer ethnocentrism.

Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c proposed that subjective norm was positively related to the variables of stable animosity, situational animosity, and consumer ethnocentrism. As shown in Table 13, the standardized path coefficients of .46, .47, and .29 were all significant ( $p < .001$ ). Thus, the hypotheses were supported.

**Table 13**  
**Correlations for Predictor Variables in the Structural Model**

<i>Structural paths</i>	<i>Correlations</i>	<i>p-level</i>	<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Result</i>
STA↔SIA	.55	.001	H1a	Supported
STA↔EC	.35	.001	H1b	Supported
SIA↔EC	.36	.001	H1c	Supported
SN↔STA	.46	.001	H2a	Supported
SN↔SIA	.47	.001	H2b	Supported
SN↔EC	.29	.001	H2c	Supported

*Direct Effects on the Outcomes*

Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c postulated that consumer animosity and ethnocentrism were likely to decrease the perceived quality of the product. As shown in Table 14, significantly negative paths were found to product judgment from stable animosity ( $\beta = -.14, p < .001$ ) and situational animosity ( $\beta = -.16, p < .001$ ). This suggests that increased feelings of animosity will reduce consumers' perceptions of product quality. Thus, both Hypotheses 3a and 3b were

supported.

However, a negative relationship was found to be weaker and insignificant between consumer ethnocentrism and product judgment ( $\beta = -.05, p > .05$ , see Table 14). Hence, Hypothesis 3c was not supported, indicating that consumer ethnocentrism is a less significant predictor of product judgment than both animosities.

Hypotheses 4a, 4b, and 4c proposed that consumer animosity and ethnocentrism can lead to strong motivations for boycott participation. The proposed relationships were supported by the results: stable animosity ( $\beta = .25, p < .001$ ), situational animosity ( $\beta = .37, p < .001$ ), and consumer ethnocentrism ( $\beta = .18, p < .001$ ) positive affect consumers' boycott motivations (see Table 14). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a, 4b, and 4c were supported. This suggests that high levels of animosities and ethnocentrism will increase consumers' motivations for boycott participation.

Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c predicted that consumers' animosities and ethnocentrism would negatively affect their intention of purchase. While the standardized path coefficients of stable animosity and situational animosity .10 and .08 were insignificant ( $p > .05$ ), the negative and significant effect exercised by consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intentions was observed ( $\beta = -.15, p < .005$ ). Thus, hypothesis 5a and 5b were not supported whereas hypothesis 5c was supported, suggesting that consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism exercised distinct direct effects on purchase intentions in the hypothesized mediating model.

Hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6c posited that subjective norm was likely to decrease consumers' evaluations of product quality, to increase their motivations for boycott participation, and

therefore to decrease their intention of purchase. The proposed relationships were supported by the results: product judgment ( $\beta = -.34, p < .001$ ), boycott motivations ( $\beta = .28, p < .001$ ) and purchase intentions ( $\beta = -.18, p < .005$ ) were influenced by subjective norm (see Table 14). That is, the subjective norm can decrease consumers' evaluations of product quality, increase motivations for boycott participation, and as a result decrease their intention of purchase towards particular foreign brands. Thus, Hypothesis 6a, 6b, and 6c were supported.

Hypothesis 7 postulated a negative relationship between the mediator variable of boycott motivations and the outcome variable of purchase intentions. As shown in Table 14, the standardized path coefficient of  $-.41$  was significant ( $p < .001$ ), and thus the hypothesis was strongly supported. This suggests that increased motivations for boycott participation will reduce consumers' intention of purchase.

**Table 14**  
**Standardized Direct Effects of the Structural Model**

<i>Structural paths</i>	$\beta$	<i>S.E.</i>	<i>C.R.</i>	<i>p-level</i>	<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Result</i>
STA→PJ	-.14	.070	-1.968	.049	H3a	Supported
SIA→PJ	-.16	.060	-2.229	.026	H3b	Supported
EC→PJ	-.05	.063	-.789	.430	H3c	Not Supported
STA→BM	.25	.056	4.975	.001	H4a	Supported
SIA→BM	.37	.051	6.974	.001	H4b	Supported
EC→BM	.18	.050	4.163	.001	H4c	Supported
STA→PI	.10	.070	-1.655	.098	H5a	Not Supported
SIA→PI	.08	.066	-1.345	.179	H5b	Not Supported
EC→PI	.15	.063	-3.031	.002	H5c	Supported
SN→PJ	-.34	.045	-4.905	.001	H6a	Supported
SN→BM	.28	.036	5.715	.001	H6b	Supported
SN→PI	-.18	.049	-2.953	.003	H6c	Supported
BM→PI	-.41	.073	-6.225	.001	H7	Supported

*Mediated Effects on the Outcome*

Hypotheses 8a-8d and 9a-9d tested the mediating effects of product judgment and boycott motivations. The mediating effects, also called the indirect effects, are the effects mediated by each of the variables that intervene between the independent and the dependent variables. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), full mediation is established when a significant correlation between the independent variable and the dependent variable becomes insignificant through a third mediating variable. Partial mediation is indicated when the correlation between two variables is reduced but does not become insignificant. The Sobel test has been frequently used to test whether full or partial mediation effects have occurred or

not (Kline, 2005).

The Sobel test equation is as follows:

$$z\text{-value} = a \times b / \sqrt{(b^2 \times S_a^2 + a^2 \times S_b^2)}$$

where  $a$  is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator,  $b$  is the unstandardized regression coefficient for the relationship between the mediator variable and the dependent variable,  $\times$  represents multiplication, and  $S_a$  and  $S_b$  are the standard errors associated with  $a$  and  $b$  paths. Significant Sobel tests indicate that the indirect effect from the independent variable to the dependent variable through the mediator variable is significantly different from zero. The results of the Sobel test for the study are presented in the Table 15.

Overall, five of the eight indirect effects relating to the hypotheses are supported at  $p < .01$  level. Specifically, hypotheses 8a through 8d predicted that the negative relationships between stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm and purchase intentions would be mediated by consumers' perceptions of product quality. Because the direct standardized path coefficient for the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and product judgment was not significant (Table 15), product judgment would not mediate the indirect effect between consumer ethnocentrism and buying intentions. As indicated by the significance of the indirect effects, the relationships of both animosities and consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intentions were not mediated through product quality judgment (stable animosity  $\rightarrow$  product judgment  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions:  $Z = -1.636, p > .05$ , indirect effect =  $-.04$ ; situational animosity  $\rightarrow$  product judgment  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions:  $Z = -1.873, p > .05$ , indirect effect =  $-.04$ ; ethnocentrism  $\rightarrow$  product judgment  $\rightarrow$

purchase intentions:  $Z = -.831, p > .05$ , indirect effect =  $-.02$ ). However, there was an indirect effect for subjective norm and purchase intentions through consumers' perceptions of product quality (subjective norm  $\rightarrow$  product judgment  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions:  $Z = -3.634, p < .001$ , indirect effect =  $-.08$ ). Thus, hypothesis 8a, 8b, and 8c were not supported while hypothesis 8d was supported.

Hypotheses 9a through 9d proposed that the negative relationships between levels of stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm and consumers' purchase intentions would be mediated by their motivations for boycott participation. As indicated by the significance of the specific indirect effect, consumers' motivation to boycott did mediate the relationships between stable animosity, situational animosity, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm and their intentions of purchase (stable animosity  $\rightarrow$  boycott motivations  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions:  $Z = -2.842, p < .005$ , indirect effect =  $-.09$ ; situational animosity  $\rightarrow$  boycott motivations  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions:  $Z = -3.128, p < .005$ , indirect effect =  $-.11$ ; consumer ethnocentrism  $\rightarrow$  boycott motivations  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions:  $Z = -2.716, p < .01$ , indirect effect =  $-.07$ ; subjective norm  $\rightarrow$  boycott motivations  $\rightarrow$  purchase intentions:  $Z = -3.012, p < .005$ , indirect effect =  $-.07$ ). Therefore, hypotheses 9a through 9d were supported.

To sum up, product judgment did not mediate the relationships of both animosities and consumer ethnocentrism on purchase intentions. However, the indirect effect of subjective norm was negative and significant through product judgment. Consumers' motivations for boycott participation fully mediated animosities and partially mediated consumer ethnocentrism and subjective norm to purchase intentions. These results strongly suggest that

boycott motivations are a more powerful mediator than is product judgment in the hypothesized model.

**Table 15**  
**Standardized Indirect Effects Through Product Judgment and Boycott Motivations**

<i>Structural paths</i>	<i>Indirect Effects</i> □	<i>S.E.</i>	<i>Z</i>	<i>p-level</i>	<i>Hypothesis</i>	<i>Result</i>
STA→PJ→PI	-.04	.026	-1.636	.102	H8a	Not Supported
SIA→PJ→PI	-.04	.022	-1.873	.061	H8b	Not Supported
EC→PJ→PI	-.02	.022	-.831	.406	H8c	Not Supported
SN→PJ→PI	-.08	.021	-3.634	.000	H8d	Supported
STA→BM→PI	-.09	.031	-2.842	.004	H9a	Supported
SIA→BM→PI	-.11	.036	-3.128	.002	H9b	Supported
EC→BM→PI	-.07	.026	-2.716	.007	H9c	Supported
SN→BM→PI	-.07	.022	-3.012	.003	H9d	Supported

## **CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION**

### **7.1 Overview**

This study applied the theories of social identity and realistic group conflict to the setting of consumer values and attitudes, explored the factors directly or indirectly affecting consumers' purchase intentions toward the merchandise that is produced by a particular offending country. This chapter first presents a summary of this study, followed by several discussions of the main results of the study, implications of the major findings for international marketing practitioners, and implications for future research and the limitations of the study. The discussion of survey results includes topics relating to the relationships of concepts as well as their direct and indirect effects on the intention of purchase towards a particular hostile country and its products.

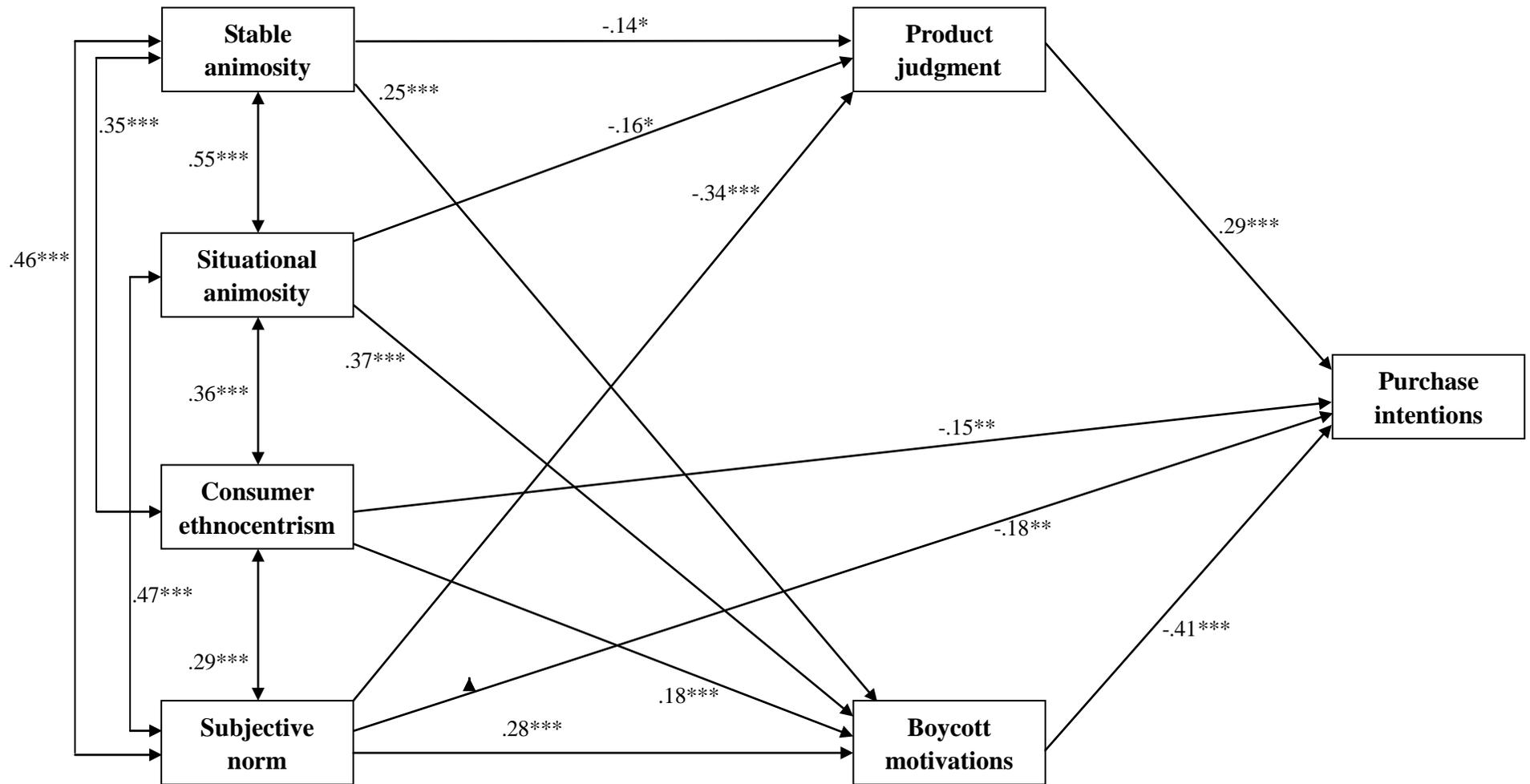
### **7.2 Summary of the Study**

The aim of this research was to empirically test a hypothesized model of relationships between consumers' emotions and attitudes on buying intentions towards foreign made products in the context of an international incident. This research set out several hypotheses attempting to understand the association of stable animosity, situational animosity, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm on willingness to buy. Product judgment and boycott motivations were proposed as the variables that fully or partially mediated the relationships between those factors including consumer animosities, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm

on the intention of purchase. A causal model was therefore developed and presented for these factors.

Sampled consumers completed a survey designed to measure a range of factors that influence their values and attitudes toward France and its products. The data-evaluation process resulted in the final sample size of 387. A two-stage approach to structural equation modeling suggested by Bagozzi and Silk (1983) was used to estimate the interrelationships among the factors and the effect of each factor on purchase intentions. During the first stage the measurement model was assessed separately from the structural model using confirmatory factor analysis. This procedure was applied to all of the constructs to see if the indicators adequately measure the intended constructs. As the second stage of the analysis, a structural model was tested with directional paths and the hypothesized mediating effects. The estimation of the structural model yielded an acceptable fit but only partially supported the proposed model (see Figure 15). The following sections will discuss the major findings based on the SEM analysis.

Figure 15. Final Conceptual Model



### **7.3 Discussion of Research Findings**

#### *Relationships between the predictors*

Hypotheses 1a-1c and hypothesis 2a-2c were designed to investigate the bivariate relationships of four independent variables in the hypothesized model, including stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm. Specifically, it was proposed that all these factors would be positively associated with each other. For instance, people with higher scores on a measure of stable animosity would be more ethnocentric than those with lower scores. The results from the survey research show that the four factors in the model were positively correlated among participating consumers and the correlation was statistically significant at  $p < .001$ .

The largest association was between stable animosity and situational animosity. Therefore, individuals who hold strong persisting negative attitudes towards a particular offending country tended to develop more situational negative attitudes in a specific context. Leong et al. (2008) found similar results with stable and situational animosity in other Asian consumers. Specifically, the stable animosity a consumer felt towards a country increased the situational animosity towards that country. These findings support the claim by Jung et al. (2004) that stable-situational dichotomy is efficient and generalizable across a wide range of sources of animosity. Since animosity can be situationally driven and sparked by a particular episode, the extent of hatred one may experience against a country may vary and can be cumulative over a series of events, leading to a long-lasting emotion (Jung et al., 2002).

While animosity toward a foreign country is related to choices between foreign products, consumer ethnocentrism is related to choices between domestic and foreign products (Klein,

2002). The researcher found that the stable and situational animosities were positively related to consumer ethnocentrism and all coefficients were significant. This suggests that in addition to influencing each other directly, stable and situational animosities also reinforce consumer ethnocentrism in general. Compared to Western consumers who were studied in prior ethnocentrism research (Javalgi et al., 2005), Chinese consumers tend to be somewhat more ethnocentric and demonstrate greater preference for domestic products. Those results are consistent with Zhang (1996) who found that Chinese consumers are particularly sensitive to country-of-origin. Ang et al. (2004) confirmed that the effect of animosity on ethnocentrism may vary among different populations because of historical concerns and circumstances. Since Chinese people are very proud of their country because of its history and culture and tend to be quite patriotic and nationalistic (Chen, 2005), they are ready to buy domestic goods, but will also be likely to buy certain imported goods because of the effects of reputation or the lack of availability of domestic alternatives.

Finally, the analysis examining the relationships with subjective norm suggested that individuals' perceived social pressure is also positively associated with their negative attitudes toward foreign countries and with their ethnocentric feelings about their own country. This suggests that consumers who feel more social pressure tend to adapt themselves psychologically to the objective relations of things such as boycott participation. Further, the results showed that subjective norm displays significantly stronger relationships with both animosities than with ethnocentrism, and the researcher interprets this as possible evidence for subjective norm and both animosities which play a stronger role than ethnocentrism in participating boycott efforts in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis. The

relationships between the four factors have been supported; in the next section the researcher will examine the direct effects of the factors on product quality assessment, motivation behind boycott activity, and purchase intentions.

#### *Direct effects on the outcomes*

Hypotheses 3a-3c, 4a-4c, 5a-5c, 6a-6c, and 7 investigated the impact of aforementioned predictors on three variables: product judgment, boycott motivations, and purchase intentions. Specifically, the researcher proposed that consumers' animosities, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm would decrease their perceived quality of the product and increase the motivations for boycott participation, and thus decrease the intentions to purchase foreign-made products and brands.

The results from the survey research supported 10 of the 13 hypotheses of observing direct effects for all study variables. More in detail, the researcher first found that both animosities resulted in a slightly lower product quality assessment. This is inconsistent with the findings of the initial Nanjing study of consumer animosity by Klein et al. (1998), which indicate that animosity was unrelated to evaluation of product quality. However, this is not a surprising finding given that many studies reported mixed results with respect to the relationship between animosity and product judgment. Several theoretical and empirical factors may be used to interpret the results concerning the relationship of animosity and product judgment. First, according to Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory, people are inclined to seek consistency in their attitudes and beliefs in any situation where certain cognitions are incongruous, even if that may lead to irrational kinds of actions. Therefore, the tendency to harmony and consistency among those who harbor strong animosity toward

France could result in French product denigration and hence reluctance to buy. Second, the quality advantages of French products may have decreased in the Chinese market due to the entrance of well recognized global brands and fast-rising Chinese brands over the past decade. Therefore the animosity and evaluations of product quality may come to affect one another more easily. Other alternative interpretations for this impact may also exist.

The relationship between ethnocentrism and product judgment examined by hypothesis 3c was found to be not statistically significant. It is clearly reflected that there is no consensus concerning the nature of this relationship, and previous studies yielded mixed results. Shimp and Sharma (1987) argued that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively correlated with evaluations of foreign product quality. Klein (2002) conducted a study showing that ethnocentrism does make a significant and inverse contribution to judgments of foreign goods. The study involved a U.S. sample that 78 percent were female. On the other hand, Kim and Pysarchik (2000) and Suh and Kwon (2002) investigated the same issue using the Korea and U.S. samples. The results revealed that there is a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and perceived product quality only for the Korean sample and not significant for the U.S. sample. It appears that the consumer ethnocentrism plays a somewhat varying role from country to country in evaluating the perceived quality of foreign products. In the case of China, a decrease only in consumer ethnocentrism might not be an effective way to improve the perceived quality of foreign products. It appears that the denigration of French brands cannot be accounted for by the mere increase in the levels of consumer ethnocentrism. To make it even clearer, consumer ethnocentrism is a less potent predictor of product judgment than stable and situational animosities in the context of an international crisis.

As anticipated, Chinese consumers' animosity and ethnocentrism positively predict the motivations for boycott participation. This confirms that the two types of animosity and the ethnocentric orientation a consumer adopted towards a specific offending country are important factors to consider with regard to boycotting products produced by the country. As Figure 14 shows, animosities, ethnocentrism and subjective norm explained 69 percent of the variance in the motivations for boycotting French products. Indeed, most situations would not be driven purely by animosity, ethnocentrism, or subjective norm, but by some combination of such. To glean some insight as to how these sources interact, the researcher looked at a situation where neither animosity nor ethnocentrism dominated and found that all the factors influenced motivation. While the composite effects of the factors are seen in the hypothesized model, the findings suggest that animosities tended to exert a greater influence on boycott participation than consumer ethnocentrism in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis. The differing effects of hostility on consumers' attitudes toward foreign products were also observed in aforementioned relationships of animosities and product judgment. This may reflect the fact that the contentious issues (e.g., disagreements over Tibet and French president Nicolas Sarkozy's meeting with the Dalai Lama) leading to increased animosity still exist during the survey year. By contrast, consumer ethnocentric tendencies may be appraised as a lesser but significant contributing factor in the process of boycott decision making.

Findings of the present study indicated that animosity and consumer ethnocentrism exhibited distinct effects on the intention of purchase. Specifically, ethnocentrism may lower consumers' purchase intentions of French products. However, increases in both animosities

do not have significantly direct effects upon consumers' buying decision. This finding is surprising initially as it is partially contrary to what is reported in the literature (e.g., Javalgi et al., 2005; Klein et al., 1998; Leong et al., 2008; Suh and Kwon, 2002), which showed that both animosities and ethnocentrism were significant adverse predictors of purchase intentions for a foreign-made product. After examining the theoretical rationale for the hypotheses and all paths in the hypothesized model, the researcher has found that such different influences are conceivably associated with the intervening effects of product judgment and boycott motivations. The primary purpose in the study was to investigate mediating effects of product judgment and boycott motivations, which is different from prior research that considered only direct effects of animosity on purchase intentions (e.g., Klein et al., 1998; Shin, 2001). In the hypotheses, product judgment is a conscious perception of product quality whereas boycott motivations are about why consumers should do that. When two hypothetically related paths are estimated in the model, their causal relationship may be partially or fully mediated through other factors. The initial analysis of predictors in the study revealed that the direct effects of both animosities on purchase intentions are negative and significant, which provides a reasonable basis to explore mediating effects in understanding the relationship between animosities and buying decision. The researcher discusses this in more detail in the subsequent section of indirect effects.

While the previously mentioned speculations pertain to the question of how the subjective norm factor has interacted with consumer animosity and ethnocentrism, the researcher also examined and tested hypotheses on the effect that subjective norm has on the consumer's attitudes and behavioral intention. The researcher proposed that the subjective

norm factor has triple capabilities to inversely influence product quality assessment, positively affect boycott motivations, and therefore negatively predict buying decision. All three hypotheses were supported; the examination of these hypotheses revealed the strength and direction of the relationships among these factors. In this study, the subjective norm has proven to be significant predictor of product quality judgment and boycott motivations. This is an interesting finding as the relationship of subjective norm with consumer attitudes and behavioral motivation towards offending countries has not been carefully examined and quantified. This indicates that perceived social pressure from significant others may play an important role in developing motivation and behavioral intention, especially when the behavior is a patriotic movement (e.g., boycott) and produces moral responsibility. While both animosities did not directly influence consumers' buying intention in the revised model, the study provides evidence that the subjective norm acted as a significant negative predictor of buying French products. This finding is consistent with previous reports of purchase intentions both in the United States and across the globe (e.g., Bredahl, 2001; Mahon et al., 2006; Shimp and Kavas, 1984; Summers et al., 2006). Rationalization for the effects of subjective norm observed in the survey sample may be that Chinese consumers may avoid buying French products for the sole reason of social pressure received, even though they do not underestimate its product quality or consider this an expression of anger and a punishment to the target country.

Like other studies, this research found a negative relationship between boycott motivations and purchase intentions. As previous studies have reported, consumer motives to boycott decrease the intention to purchase foreign-made products. The results of this study

confirmed the hypothesized adverse relationship occurs in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis. The respondents who expressed the likelihood to boycott French products tended to exhibit a low propensity to purchase. This finding is not surprising given that buying intentions are apparently driven by a mixture of practical considerations such as value, emotion, and satisfaction after attitude is formed (Wee, Ta, and Cheok, 1995). What is more interesting is the data show that, among several possible predictors examined, motives for consumer boycotts was the strongest and most consistent predictor of purchase intentions ( $\beta = .41$ ), indicating that boycott motivations perhaps act as a mediator of the effects animosities, ethnocentrism, and subjective norm have on the intentions of buying French products. The following section will discuss indirect effects through mediating factors of product judgment and boycott motivations.

#### *Mediated effects on the outcome*

Hypotheses 8a-8d and 9a-9d were proposed to test the mediation effects of product judgment and boycott motivations on the relationship between multiple predictors and purchase intentions. As noted previously, very limited studies on consumer animosity have included mediating factors to investigate the buying and decision-making behaviors. These empirical gaps hamper the efforts to advance consumer animosity theoretically as it is still unclear of the mechanisms governing animosity effects on the decision making process. This research assessed the proposed mediating effects by examining not just one mediator separately but multiple mediators simultaneously. The findings of this research, therefore, are of interest not only to understand how multiple predictors influence buying intentions, but

also to account for which participating mediator would be more effective and conducive, significantly enhancing the understanding of animosity effects.

Hypotheses 8a-8d predicted that the relationships between multiple predictors and the outcome would be mediated by product judgment. The results of this research show that the relationship between subjective norm and purchase intentions is partially mediated by product judgment. However, the indirect path of both animosities and ethnocentrism through product judgment was not significant; thus, product judgment does not mediate the relationships of both animosities and ethnocentrism on purchase intentions. The differential mediated effect through product judgment cannot be explained by mere quantitative differences in the strength of four predictors, indicating that there is some qualitative difference between multiple predictors and product quality assessment. For instance, French brands have been associated with luxury and high price for a long time, which makes it a bit unaffordable to have for certain sampled consumers. This could lead to more contingent and fragmented views concerning French product quality as a result of limited direct brand experience. Therefore product judgment may be more related to social influence factors such as the response from significant others. However, this does not mean that product judgment is not related to other predictors such as both animosities. Rather, it just means that product judgment would explain more variance in buying intentions resulting from subjective norm than from either animosities or consumer ethnocentrism if these four predictors were to be included in the same model.

Hypotheses 9a-9d proposed that the relationships between multiple predictors and the outcome would be mediated by boycott motivations. In effect, these hypotheses postulated

that individuals who have antagonistic attitudes and ethnocentric tendencies or feel social pressure to make purchases would develop strong motivations for boycott participation, therefore decreasing their willingness to buy. The results of this study confirm that the effects of animosities were completely mediated and the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and subjective norm were partially mediated on buying intentions through boycott motivations. Hence, these findings provide support for the mediation nature of individual motivation in the relationship between consumers' affective reactions and purchase intentions of foreign-made products. These results cannot be compared with those of previous studies, as this research is the initial development of a framework for understanding the mediation mechanisms of boycott motivations on the relationship between the unique effects of consumer animosity and intention of purchase.

Based on these findings, the researcher used the multiple mediator model to further compare the mediating power of product judgment with boycott motivations. The results of Z statistics for the two mediators using the Sobel test were shown in Table 15. Clearly, boycott motivations are a more powerful mediator of the relationship between consumer animosity and buying intentions. These results suggest that consumers' animosities are integrated into their motives of boycott rather than into their perceptions of product quality when the outcome is related to reluctance to buy. The same analysis applies to the construct of consumer ethnocentrism. However, consumers' perceived social pressure from significant others is integrated into both the evaluation of product quality and the motivation for boycott participation when they were asked to indicate their intentions of purchasing French products. By comparing the differential expression of mediators in the model, this research provides

empirical evidence on a number of issues that are important for consumer resistance and contribute to a better understanding of the mechanisms and process, which affect consumers' decision-making process.

### *Summary of the Discussion*

Overall, the findings of this study indicate that all the four exogenous variables, i.e. stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm were positively correlated with each other. It appears that perceived social pressure from important others displays significantly stronger relationships with both animosities than with ethnocentrism. In terms of the direct effects, the stable and situational animosities resulted in a slightly lower product quality assessment while consumer ethnocentrism did not affect the evaluation of product quality, indicating that consumer ethnocentrism is a less significant predictor of product judgment than both animosities in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis; both animosities and ethnocentrism positively predict the motives for boycott participation while consumers' ethnocentric tendencies and boycott motivations may lower their purchase intentions of foreign goods. In addition, perceived social pressure from significant others has triple capabilities to significantly influence product quality assessment, boycott motivations, and buying intentions. Findings also suggest that product judgment only partially mediated the relationship between subjective norm and purchase intentions whereas boycott motivations partially or fully mediated all the relationships of four predictors on the intention of purchase, which indicate that boycott motivations is a more forceful mediator than product judgment in the study.

## **7.4 Implications of the Study**

### **7.4.1 Theoretical Implications**

This research makes several contributions to the literature on consumer behavior. To the researcher's best knowledge, none of the research works published in the literature investigates the mediated effects of consumer animosity on purchase intentions. The analysis in the study includes a deeper exploration of the relationship between animosity and consumer ethnocentrism that were introduced in the studies by Klein, et al. (1998). The incorporation of subjective norm and boycott motivations into consumer animosity has never been attempted in the literature. The present study confirms Yau's (1986) findings that individuals in a group-oriented culture tend to be motivated toward conforming to the norms of the group, and extends these findings to consumers' behavioral intentions of boycott. In exploring the direct effect of animosity in the model, this study confirms Shoham et al.'s (2006) finding that consumer animosity resulted in a slight denigration of product quality. Finally, this research extends current theorization of consumer animosity by revealing the underlying mechanism for mediating the effects of the stable and situational animosities on purchase intentions. Significantly, boycott motivations completely mediated the animosity effects and partially mediated the effects of consumer ethnocentrism and subjective norm. By contrast, product judgment was a less effective mediator and only partially mediated the effect of subjective norm. In short, the current research provides a useful theoretical framework to understand the underlying mechanism of why consumer animosity prevents consumers from purchasing imported products otherwise perfectly matched to their wants and goals. The cross-cultural nature of the study

offers a unique opportunity to synthesize the extant literature on the subject and extend prior theory and empirics on the consumer behavior in background of animosity.

#### **7.4.2 Managerial Implications**

Results of this research have several important managerial implications. First, managers should realize that the proposed predictors in the model – stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm – may be ultimately correlated with reluctance to buy an offending country's products. By understanding those predictors, international marketing managers need to recognize that they cannot keep out of controversial subjects and issues such as geopolitical, religious, ethnic, or even historical tensions in the global community from consumers' market behavior. Moreover, the finding that animosity and consumer ethnocentrism had differing impact on product judgment contributes to practical management by encouraging managers to make special efforts in crisis management and quality management. The identification of important variables that distinguish between animosity and consumer ethnocentrism allows managers to develop the most effective solution for target high-animosity consumers. This is especially true in an emerging market where controversial issues really matter between consumers' and manufacturers' home countries such as China and France.

Further, understanding the differences between high and low antagonistic consumers allows marketers to fully customize and develop multi-focused manufacturing and marketing strategies. Beyond helping managers evaluate market entry strategies for the manufacture and distribution of products, the findings of this study can help managers in dissecting and forging effective communications programs to reach high and low

antagonistic consumers. For instance, they can provide convincing evidence that their products are domestically produced to mitigate the motivation for high antagonistic consumers to boycott while simultaneously accentuating the high quality of foreign goods to entice low antagonistic consumers.

Subjective norm proved to have significant relationships with product quality assessment, boycott motivations, and buying intentions. The opinions of significant others may be very important among Chinese consumers against foreign manufacturers and brands associated with luxury and high prices. If significant others appreciate and share the experience of using certain foreign brands in their community, other potential consumers in the circle may feel that their significant others would also encourage the purchase of the product and may eventually be convinced to buy it. In addition, the support and concern of significant others during the information sharing and evaluation process may enhance the feeling among the consumers that the product is desirable and in need and therefore would receive their encouragement. Understanding and realizing the importance of significant others in the process of consumer decision-making, managers may encourage customers to share their positive experience and branded messages with peers by offering reward incentives or by creating entertaining and appealing content.

The boycott by Chinese consumers had a negative impact on the perception of French brands and services, and had also impacted French corporations' reputation. Therefore, understanding the core of consumers' resentment and protest motives is important for international market managers of corporations that are boycotted. Considering that consumers may want to manifest anger and punish the foreign government, manufacturer

organizations should consider those socially responsible corporate actions which are in sharp contrast to the actions of the government that initially caused the boycott. In the case of French companies, this may involve sponsorship arrangements that support the Beijing Olympics or endorsement of cooperation treaties between China and France. Consumer boycotts should also serve as an alert to retailers and local merchants when they source foreign goods in their selling activities. Retailers and local merchants could benefit from this precaution by measuring the extent of consumer animosity and minimizing their motivations for potential protests triggered by controversial subjects and issues.

### **7.5 Limitations and Future Research**

Although this study provides evidence of consumer animosity toward a specific country, several limitations should be noted to interpret the findings properly. First, this study did not examine product class of purchase intentions related to their antagonistic attitudes toward a particular country. A specific product category should use the findings of this research with caution. Moreover, certain situational factors not included in the study, such as perceived product necessity, price, and prior experience with a particular country or brand, may have influence on purchase intentions. A study of these factors that could interfere with the results should be considered in future research.

Another limitation in the research is that the study focuses on only individual consumers, associations between consumer animosity and other factors with buying intentions may differ among industrial buyers. Do industrial (B2B) buyers share the similar feelings as final consumers when they evaluate and purchase products and services?

Further empirical research is needed to examine whether, in the face of consumer protests,

buyers for industrial goods are more rational and reasonable in product evaluations and thus depend less on affective factors when sourcing products or services from hostile countries.

The results show that Chinese still have seen certain negative views of France during the survey time frame and consumer animosity remains under the surface influencing their feelings and decisions. In recent years boycotts triggered by national controversies remain a hot topic among the Chinese. An interesting question for further research is to examine the factors that cause emotions associated with consumer animosity. Why do present controversies tend to provoke persisting animosity, while the affections engendered by other controversies tend to cool down when the disagreement is settled? Additional research, particularly in a qualitative setting, will add valuable insight to these topics and deepen the understanding of the social roots and causes of animosity. Differences in the impact of animosity and consumer ethnocentrism found in this research might also be explored further.

Finally, there are issues of generalizability since the data is collected entirely from people who have access to the internet. Like other assessment techniques, internet surveys have special strengths and weaknesses. Despite their many advantages such as less expensive and faster speed of responses, online surveys may yield lower representativeness, especially for the poor and elderly, in comparison to telephone surveys. As the sample consists of persons with a younger age as well as higher education and income levels compared to the general population, caution should be taken when generalizing the findings of this research. In addition, although the data cover a large area, they are from a single

country. It is possible that consumer motivations for boycott participation might vary to a great extent based on the nature of the environmental change under investigation. For example, the trigger for the boycott of American beef would have caused different response in South Korea. Future research extending to other countries across cultures, religions and social classes would help to determine if the findings can be extrapolated in a more diverse population.

In summary, the purpose of this research was to investigate how consumer animosity directly and indirectly affects purchase intentions of foreign goods in the context of the 2008 Beijing Olympic torch relay crisis. Theories of social identity and realistic group conflicts served as a framework to examine consumers' intentions of buying foreign brands that are made by a particular offending country. The results indicate that stable animosity, situational animosity, consumer ethnocentrism, and subjective norm played a differential role in influencing purchase intentions of foreign products. The present study provides theoretical and empirical insights into direct and indirect effects of consumer animosity on purchase intentions, which may be beneficial for both manufacturers and retailers who suffer from the boycott of foreign merchandise.

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APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVAL

Office for Research  
Institutional Review Board for the  
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF  
**ALABAMA**  
R E S E A R C H

July 30, 2009

Song Tian  
College of Communication and Information Sciences  
Box 870172

Re: IRB #: EX-09-CM-052, "An Examination of Mediated Consumer  
Animosity Effects on Purchase Intentions"

Dear Song Tian:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for  
your proposed research.

Your application has been given exempt approval according to 45 CFR part  
46.101(b)(2) as outlined below:

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic,  
aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation  
of public behavior, unless:

(i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be  
identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any  
disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably  
place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the  
subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

This approval expires on 7/30/10. If the study continues beyond that date, you  
must complete the appropriate portion of the Continuing Review and Closure  
Form. If you modify the application, please complete the Modification of an  
Approved Protocol Form. Changes in this study cannot be initiated without IRB  
approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to  
participants. When the study closes, please complete the Continuing Review  
and Closure for closure.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this application,  
please include the assigned IRB application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,



Carpaneto T. Myles, MSM, CIM  
Director & Research Compliance Officer  
Office of Research Compliance  
The University of Alabama



152 Rose Administration Building  
Box 870117  
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0117  
(205) 348-5152  
FAX (205) 348-8882

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT

ENGLISH VERSION

## INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT

The purpose of this survey is to examine how mediated consumer animosity toward a particular country influences purchase intentions.

The participation is voluntary. Your agreement to participate or not participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits. There are neither direct benefits nor foreseeable risks to you. But your cost of time would be great helpful for this scientific research. To express my sincere appreciation for your help, you can have a free copy of the final analyses report at an aggregate level with your request.

Participants in this study need to be 19 years of age or older to meet university guidelines so by participating in the study you are verifying that you are 19 years or older. Your responses will be anonymous and data will be combined and analyzed as a whole unit. The estimated time needed to complete the survey is around 15 minutes. You can skip any item if you want.

Should you have any concerns or questions about this study, please feel free to contact Song Tian at [stain@bama.ua.edu](mailto:stain@bama.ua.edu), or my advisor Dr. Yorgo Pasadeos at [pasadeos@apr.ua.edu](mailto:pasadeos@apr.ua.edu). Your participation in this research project will be greatly appreciated. Thanks.

Please also feel free to contact Tanta Myles about research participants' rights. The contact information for Ms. Tanta Myles is [cmyles@fa.ua.edu](mailto:cmyles@fa.ua.edu), 205-348-5746, and mailing address is:

ATTN: Ms. Tanta Myles

University of Alabama Office for Research Participant Concern

Box 870104 Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0104

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB  
CONSENT FORM APPROVED: 7/30/09  
EXPIRATION DATE: 7/29/2010

APPENDIX C  
INFORMED CONSENT AGREEMENT  
CHINESE VERSION

## 研究同意书

本调查的目的是研究消费者对特定国之憎恶对购买其产品意愿的影响。

参与本次调查完全基于您的自愿。无论是否同意参加调查，您不会因此受到任何奖励或惩罚，调查本身也不会给你带来直接的好处或可预见的危险。非常感谢您抽出宝贵的时间参与我们的调查。如果需要，您可以免费获得这项研究计划的综合分析报告。

为遵守学校有关规定，本次调查的参与者必需年满19岁或以上。通过参加调查，您向我们证明您已满足这一条件。此调查问卷采用匿名方式，需要大约15分钟的时间完成，调查结果不会出现任何个人信息。

如果您对本次调查有任何疑问，请与调查者联系，电子邮件 [stian@bama.ua.edu](mailto:stian@bama.ua.edu)。或直接与调查者指导教师 Yorgo Pasadeos 博士联系，电子邮件 [pasadeos@apr.ua.edu](mailto:pasadeos@apr.ua.edu)。再次感谢您的积极参与。

关于参与者的权利，您还可以与 Tanta Myles 女士联系。联系方式是：电子邮件 [cmyles@fa.ua.edu](mailto:cmyles@fa.ua.edu)，电话 205-348-5746，地址 ATTN: Ms. Tanta Myles, University of Alabama Office for Research Participant Concern, Box 870104 Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0104

UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA IRB  
CONSENT FORM APPROVED 7/30/09  
EXPIRATION DATE: 7/29/2010

APPENDIX D

ONLINE SURVEY FOR ENGLISH EDITION

## ONLINE SURVEY FOR ENGLISH EDITION

Dear Participants,

This survey is designed to investigate consumers' attitudes toward France and purchase intentions for French branded products. The questionnaire will take about 15 minutes to complete, and your participation is absolutely voluntary. Your responses will be anonymous and data will be combined and analyzed as a whole unit. Participants in this study need to be 19 years of age or older to meet university guidelines so by participating in the study you are verifying that you are 19 years or older.

If you have any questions, please contact the researcher at 205-826-1806, stain@bama.ua.edu, or Dr. Yorgo Pasadeos who is the researcher's advisor at 205-348-8641, pasadeos@apr.ua.edu. Your participation in this research project will be greatly appreciated. Thanks.

**Part 1.** Please read each statement below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

1. Products made in France are carefully produced and have fine workmanship.

Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

2. Products made in France are generally of a lower quality than similar products available from other countries.

Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

3. Products made in France show a very high degree of technological advancement.

Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

4. Products made in France usually show a very clever use of color and design.

Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

5. Products made in France are usually quite unreliable and seem not to last the desired length of time.

Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

6. Products made in France are usually not a good value for the money.

Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

**Part 2.** Please read each statement below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

7. Whenever possible, I avoid buying French products.

Strongly Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Strongly Agree

8. I do not like the idea of owning French products.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

9. Whenever available, I would prefer to buy products made in France.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

10. If two products were equal in quality, but one was from France and one was from China, I would pay 10% more for the product from China.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

**Part 3.** Please read each statement below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

11. Most people who are important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) think I should not avoid purchasing French products.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

12. Most people who are important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) will look down on me if I buy French products.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

13. No one who is important to me (family, friends, and colleagues etc.) thinks it is OK to purchase French products.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

**Part 4.** Please read each statement below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

14. I want to express my anger at France by avoid purchasing French products.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

15. Boycott will not put pressure on France to change its policies.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

16. I do not think that I should use my boycott decisions to voice my opinion toward France.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

17. I want to punish France, and that is why I do not buy their products.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

18. I would feel guilty if I buy a French product.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

**Part 5.** Please read each statement below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

19. France is not reliable.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

20. France has always been fair to my country.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

21. France is a friend of my country anytime.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

22. I like the French.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

23. I feel angry towards the French.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

24. It is disappointing that the French did so little to help my country host the Olympic games.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

25. The French support my country's reunification.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

26. France wants to gain more control over my country from the Olympic crisis.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

27. I find it hard to forgive the French for the way they covered the March 14 riots in Tibet.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

**Part 6.** Please read each statement below and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

28. Chinese products, first, last, and foremost.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

29. Purchasing foreign-made products is un-Chinese.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

30. It is not right to purchase foreign products, because it puts Chinese out of jobs.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

31. We should purchase products manufactured in China instead of letting other countries get rich off of us.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

32. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

33. Chinese consumers who purchase products made in other countries are not responsible for putting their fellow Chinese out of work.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

**Part 7.** Please tell us some background information about yourself.

34. What is your gender? Female \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_

35. What is your marital status?

Married \_\_\_\_\_ Single \_\_\_\_\_ Divorced/Separated \_\_\_\_\_ Widowed \_\_\_\_\_

36. What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_

37. What is your highest level of formal education?

Less than high school \_\_\_\_\_ High school graduate \_\_\_\_\_

Some college \_\_\_\_\_ College Degree \_\_\_\_\_ Postgraduate \_\_\_\_\_

Others (Please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

38. What is your average monthly personal income?

¥1,000 or Less \_\_\_\_\_ ¥1,001 to ¥2,000 \_\_\_\_\_

¥3,001 to ¥4,000 \_\_\_\_\_ ¥4,001 to ¥5,000 \_\_\_\_\_

¥5,001 to ¥10,000 \_\_\_\_\_ ¥10,001 or Above \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX E

ONLINE SURVEY FOR CHINESE EDITION

## 消费者对法国产品的态度

您好！这份问卷调查的目的在于更好地了解中国消费者对法国产品的态度。此调查问卷采用匿名方式，需要大约 15 分钟的时间完成，调查结果不会出现任何个人信息。我们在此提前感谢您的积极参与。

请问您是否同意下列观点。回答无对错之分，1 至 7 表示您同意的程度，1 表示强烈不同意，7 表示强烈同意，数字越大，代表您越同意该说法。

第一部分：

1. 法国产品具有先进的生产工艺。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

2. 与其他国家同类产品相比，法国货质量较差。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

3. 法国产品体现出非常先进的科技水平。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

4. 在色彩和设计方面，法国产品很不错。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

5. 法国货通常都不可靠，也不经久耐用。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

6. 法国产品通常不值它的价格。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

第二部分：

7. 任何时候我都尽可能不买法国产品。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

8. 我喜欢拥有法国产品。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

9. 无论什么时候，我都倾向于买法国产品。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

10. 如果两个产品质量相同，一个法国制造，一个中国制造，我宁愿多花百分之十的钱买国产货。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

第三部分：

11. 我身边的人（家人、朋友、同事等）认为我不应该抵制法国货。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

12. 如果我买了法国产品，我身边的人（家人、朋友、同事等）会看不起我。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

13. 我身边的人（家人、朋友、同事等）都不支持买法国货。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

第四部分：

14. 我想通过不买法国货来表达愤怒。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

15. 抵制法国货不会对法国产生压力，从而促使其改变对华政策。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

16. 我认为不应该通过抵制行动来表达对法国的意见。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

17. 我希望惩罚法国，这就是我不准备买法国货的原因。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

18. 我会感到内疚如果我买了法国货。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

第五部分：

19. 法国靠不住。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

20. 法国总是公平地对待中国。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

21. 法国任何时候都是中国的朋友。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

22. 我喜欢法国人。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

23. 我对法国人感到愤怒。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

24. 令人失望的是，法国几乎没有帮助中国办奥运会。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

25. 法国人支持中国统一。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

26. 法国希望从奥运火炬传递危机中获得更多对中国的控制。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

27. 法国媒体关于拉萨3.14骚乱报道不可原谅。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

第六部分：

28. 任何时候中国货都优先。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

29. 买外国货是非中国人的表现。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

30. 买外国货是不对的，因为它造成了中国人失业。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

31. 我们应该买中国货，不让外国产品占领国内市场。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

32. 我们应只买那些中国自己还不能制造的外国产品。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

33. 购买外国货不会导致同胞失业。

强烈不同意	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	强烈同意
-------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	------

第七部分：

34. 您的性别 男\_\_\_\_\_ 女\_\_\_\_\_

35. 您的婚姻状况 未婚\_\_\_\_\_ 已婚\_\_\_\_\_ 离异/分居\_\_\_\_\_ 丧偶\_\_\_\_\_

36. 您的年龄 \_\_\_\_\_

37. 您的教育程度

初中\_\_\_\_\_ 高中/中专/技校\_\_\_\_\_ 大专\_\_\_\_\_ 本科\_\_\_\_\_ 硕士及以上\_\_\_\_\_ 其他（请注明）\_\_\_\_\_

38. 您的个人月收入

1,000 元及以下\_\_\_\_\_

1,001—2,000 元\_\_\_\_\_

2,001—3,000 \_\_\_\_\_

3,001—4,000 元\_\_\_\_\_

4,001—5,000 元\_\_\_\_\_

5,001—10,000 元\_\_\_\_\_

10,000 元以上\_\_\_\_\_

问卷到此已全部完成，再次感谢您的支持与合作！ 😊