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Why consumer animosity reduces product quality perceptions: The role of extreme emotions in international crises

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Why consumer animosity reduces product quality perceptions: The role of extreme emotions in international crises

ABSTRACT

International crises often influence consumers to reject offerings associated with a hostile country. While research has shown that negative emotions mediate the influence of animosity beliefs on consumer behavior, scholars do not examine the specific influence of different discrete emotions. This study extends prior research by demonstrating that extreme negative emotions of contempt and disgust play a key role in explaining the effects of animosity beliefs on behavior. The strength of these emotions results in a degraded image of the target country that is associated with social exclusion and intergroup hatred. In such circumstances, animosity also reduces product quality perceptions and is extremely difficult to manage. The best strategy is to eliminate any connection between the country of origin and the relevant offering. The findings of this study suggest that rather than assessing negative emotions in general, managers should consider the specific emotional reactions elicited by the country under examination.

1. Introduction

Brands associated with a particular country of origin can be damaged by international incidents that spark animosity. In this context, animosity refers to "remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events" (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998, p. 90). For example, in 2012, the dispute between Japan and China over the status of the Senkaku/Diaoyu Islands (*The Economist*, 2013) led to a 35% decrease in Japanese cars sales in China (Bradsher, 2012). Consumer animosity based on country of origin has attracted considerable attention over the last 20 years (e.g., De Nisco, Mainolfi, Marino, & Napolitano, 2016; Fong, Lee, & Du, 2014; Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015) because of its impact on the acceptance of foreign products (e.g., Rugman and Oh, 2013). Despite clear evidence that animosity reduces willingness to buy (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007), there is inconsistent evidence as to whether animosity also influences product quality judgments. Klein and colleagues' seminal work (Klein, 2002; Klein et al., 1998) suggests that the negative effect of animosity on willingness to buy is independent of product quality evaluations. Recently, however, scholars have demonstrated that animosity can also reduce the perceived quality of products originating from the target country and that this effect contributes to a further reduction in the purchase of foreign goods (Gineikiene & Diamantopoulos, 2017; Harmeling et al., 2015). Notwithstanding the contributions of past research, these inconsistent findings prompt the need for further research to better understand the underlying mechanisms that account for animosity's effects on consumer behavior.

Applying a social-functionalist approach to the study of emotions (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011; Rozin, Lowery, Imada, & Haidt, 1999), we examine the unique role of different discrete emotions in explaining animosity. The social-functionalist approach suggests that, rather than considering positive and negative emotions as broad classes (Russell, 2003), scholars should study specific discrete emotions because each emotion has a unique social function

(Hutcherson & Gross, 2011). Negative evaluations of events or social targets can simultaneously activate a range of discrete emotions with unique meanings and influences on behavior (Kuppens, Van Mechelen, Smits, & De Boeck, 2003; Russell & Barrett, 1999; Russell & Fehr, 1994). While these multiple negative emotions will share the same valence and will be correlated, the social-functionalist approach posits that discrete feelings have unique social roles or "functions" (e.g., Hutcherson & Gross, 2011; Rozin et al., 1999).

However, extant research on consumer animosity only examines very few emotions. Typically these emotions are conceptualized as potential mediators of the effects of animosity beliefs on consumer outcomes such as avoidance of foreign products or negative word of mouth (e.g., Ang, Jung, Kau, Leong, Pornpitakpan, & Tan, 2004; Harmeling et al., 2015; Jung, Ang, Leong, Tan, Pornpitakpan, & Kau, 2002). Anger is the emotion examined more frequently (e.g., Abosag & Farah, 2014; Maher, Clark, & Maher, 2010). Occasionally, scholars have considered contempt (Maher & Mady, 2010), anxiety (Ang et al., 2004), and fear (Harmeling et al., 2015); however, they have failed to compare the effects of different emotions on consumer behavior. The limited extent to which the extant research has examined the role of affective processes in consumers' perceptions of foreign brands has been highlighted in recent studies, which have called for explicit research on how emotions influence consumer behavior in an international context (Davvetas & Diamantopoulos, 2018; Gürhan-Canli, Sarıal-Abi, & Hayran, 2018). In an effort to address both this call for further research and the limitations of our current understanding of animosity, this study builds on a social-functionalist approach (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011; Molho, Tybur, Güler, Balliet, & Hofmann, 2017) and aims to compare and contrast the unique effects of different discrete emotions on consumer behavior. This study is the first to advance a research model that differentiates between the specific functions of different discrete emotions in an animosity context.

We argue that when appraising international crises, it is important to differentiate emotions predominantly focused on threat from extreme negative emotions that imply a negative evaluation of the character of the target (Bar-Tal, 2013; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014; Horberg, Oveis, Keltner, & Cohen, 2009). These two types of emotions have different social functions (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011) and therefore should be considered as specific mediators of the effects of animosity beliefs on consumer behavior. The function of threat emotions, in an international crisis, is to highlight the potential dangers posed by the target country that is perceived as being threatening to the interests of the in-group (Cottrell & Neuberg, 2005). This is consistent with the conceptualization used in previous animosity research, whereby negative feelings mostly stem from the recognition of a rivalry between two nations (Klein et al., 1998). Intergroup conflict, however, can also generate more damaging emotions that carry deeper negative connotations about the character of the out-group. Extreme emotions of disgust and contempt have the function of damaging the perception of the character of the out-group; leading to a view of the other country as immoral and tainted (Bar-Tal, 2013; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014; Horberg et al., 2009). Once negative character evaluations are established, reconciliation is extremely difficult (Bar-Tal, 2013; Haslam & Loughnan, 2014). Consistent with a social-functionalist approach, this study aims to disentangle the mediating effects of these different emotions because different feelings will have different effects on behavior. While anger leaves the door open to reconciliation, evidence shows that more extreme emotions such as contempt and disgust poison social relationships and lead to entrenched conflict and exclusion (Bar-Tal, 2013; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014; Romani et al., 2013). For marketers, this means that extreme feelings of contempt and disgust represent a much more serious hurdle to overcome than animosity based on emotions such as anger, fear, and anxiety (Romani et al., 2013).

This study offers three key contributions to the literature on consumer animosity. First, we show that animosity beliefs lead to the emergence of different emotions and compare and contrast the mediating role of distinct negative emotions. We extend prior research by demonstrating that animosity beliefs lead to feelings of disgust and contempt, thus providing support for evidence that suggests a connection between consumer animosity and features of intergroup hatred (e.g., Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014). Second, our findings reveal that contempt and disgust, which imply a strong negative view of the source of animosity, play a critical role in explaining negative quality perceptions of products from a target country. This evidence can help explain the inconsistent findings regarding the impact of animosity on product quality judgments. International crises are not always sufficiently intense to trigger such extreme negative emotional reactions (Ashenfelter, Ciccarella, & Shatz, 2007; Gineikiene & Diamantopoulos, 2017). Third, we extend current knowledge by demonstrating that, contrary to evidence from past research (Harmeling et al., 2015; Klein et al., 1998), anger and fear are not always the best emotions to explain the consequences of animosity. In our research context, we examine Chinese consumers' evaluations of Japan and find that once extreme emotions such as disgust and contempt are taken into consideration, they drive all the effects detected on product quality, negative word of mouth, and product avoidance.

2. Conceptual development

2.1. Consumer animosity

Table 1 offers a summary of the literature on animosity, focusing on a representative sample of studies that focus on the psychological processes underpinning animosity. All studies appeared in leading international publications that have high impact factors and/or are included in the 2018 edition of the Academic Journal Guide (former ABS). A rich and diverse body of evidence has accumulated over the years, testifying to the pervasive negative effects of

animosity. Importantly, animosity can have negative repercussions even at low levels of anger or dislike for the target country (De Nisco et al., 2016; Klein, 20002).

Despite the significant merits of this body of research, two important limitations are apparent. First, there is some inconsistency in the findings regarding the influence of animosity on product quality perceptions. While several studies show no correlation between animosity and product quality perceptions (Abosag & Farah, 2014; Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Heinberg, 2017; Klein et al., 1998; Maher & Mady, 2010), others show that the dislike of a foreign country also reduces appreciation for the quality of its products (Harmeling et al., 2015; Huang, Phau, & Lin, 2010).

Second, the treatment of emotions in the extant literature has been inconsistent. Some studies do not consider emotions at all (De Nisco et al., 2016; Heinberg, 2017). In line with Klein et al. (1998), most studies consider animosity as general hostility and include one or two items that measure anger. This approach, however, conflates cognitions and emotions within the same variable (Harmeling et al., 2015). Furthermore, anger is a highly complex emotion whose meaning varies greatly depending on context (Antonetti, 2016; Russell & Fehr, 1994), and it is but one of many unpleasant emotions associated with aggressive behavior aimed at harming or damaging a perceived wrongdoer (e.g. Bar-Tal, 2013; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014; Rozin et al., 1999). Some scholars have considered other emotions in their analysis, such as contempt (Maher & Mady, 2010), anxiety, insecurity (Ang et al., 2004; Jung et al., 2002), and resentment (Jung et al., 2002). In these studies, however, the emotions are also conflated with cognitive items that measure an economic or military threat associated with the target country (Harmeling et al., 2015). As a recent review on consumer behavior in international marketing notes (Gürhan-Canli et al., 2018, p. 108), "relatively limited research has focused on affective processes used in evaluating local and global brands. Amid rising geopolitical tensions, […] the topic of affective processes that underlie consumer responses to

local and global brands warrants further investigation." This study contributes to this research call by specifically focusing on the analysis of the potential effects of extreme negative emotions on consumer behavior (see Gürhan-Canli et al., 2018, p. 108).

We suggest that considering the specific role of different discrete emotions can enhance our ability to predict when animosity beliefs toward a nation also affect product quality judgments. Harmeling et al. (2015) clarify that cognitive beliefs caused by a crisis should be considered separately from the emotions that they cause (see also Nes, Yelkur, & Silkoset, 2012). In this sense, emotions mediate the influence of animosity beliefs on consumer outcomes such as product quality perceptions, product avoidance and negative word of mouth (Harmeling et al., 2015). Their analysis however examines only fear and anger as potential mediators of the effect of animosity beliefs on consumer behavior. In this study, we extend the analysis to contempt and disgust; these are extreme negative emotions that we expect to play a different social function.

<center>INSERT TABLE 1 HERE</center>

2.2. A social-functionalist approach to the study of emotions

Despite decades of research, disagreements persist about the nature of the differences between discrete emotions (e.g., Haidt, 2003; Russell, 2003). Some argue that it is not possible to differentiate between specific emotions (Russell, 2003). The majority of scholars, however, believe in some form of differentiation between emotions, even though the extent to which this is possible is debated (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011). Given the conflicting evidence, the level of differentiation might depend on the social context examined (Antonetti, 2016; Hutcherson & Gross, 2011). In essence, a social-functionalist approach advocates distinguishing between emotions based on their differing social function. Scholars argue that "emotions are adaptive solutions comprising a coordinated set of appraisals, communicative gestures, physiological responses, and action tendencies tailored to respond to crucial problems faced by our species"

(Hutcherson & Gross, 2011, p. 720). This perspective suggests that different emotions predict unique behaviors that have a certain social function (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Rozin et al., 1999). Consequently, organizational responses should be tailored to the specific negative emotion that is being confronted (Romani et al., 2012).

Along these lines, Harmeling et al. (2015) differentiate between agonistic emotions (e.g., anger), which are likely to trigger direct action against the hostile country, and retreat emotions (e.g., fear), which are more likely to send negative signals about product quality and trigger a desire to shun offerings from the target country (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994). This approach has the advantage of clarifying the emotional processes that lead to specific outcomes. According to this reasoning, product quality perceptions and product avoidance are explained by retreat emotions, which imply a dislike of the foreign country and a motivation to distance oneself from stimuli associated with it (Horberg et al., 2009). Conversely, negative word of mouth is explained by agonistic emotions that imply a desire to seek revenge and attack, albeit indirectly, the target country (Carver & Harmon-Jones, 2009).

Considering only the specific function of anger and fear, however, leaves out two important negative emotions: disgust and contempt (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Rozin et al., 1999). Extending previous accounts, this study develops a model that includes these latter emotions as well and differentiates them from anger and fear on the basis of the different relational implications they have (Antonetti, 2016; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014). Contempt and disgust carry an extreme negative appraisal of the wrongdoer and thus are much more damaging to social relations than other negative emotions (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014; Romani et al., 2013; Schriber et al., 2017). On the contrary, anger leaves the door open to potential reconciliation (Antonetti, 2016; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Romani et al., 2013). For marketers interested in buffering their brands from the negative effects of

animosity, it is therefore important to understand the level of condemnation associated with the emotional reactions triggered by animosity beliefs.

2.3. Threat emotions and animosity

The perception of others as a threat or, more generally, as an obstacle to achieving important goals can trigger a range of negative emotions (Kuppens et al., 2003). Despite significant variability in how people use emotion-related words to describe different contexts (Russell & Fehr, 1994), there is evidence that discrete emotions are reliably linked to specific appraisals (Han, Lerner, & Keltner, 2007). In this respect, threat emotions are feelings predominantly caused by and focused on the perception of the target country as an adversary that might negatively affect the in-group's ability to achieve important collective outcomes.

The existing evidence we review in Table 1 posits that threat emotions often mediate the influence of animosity beliefs on consumer behavior (see also Hoffmann et al., 2011). Viewing a target country as threatening causes feelings of anger (Klein et al., 1998; Harmeling et al., 2015), fear (Harmeling et al., 2015; Jung et al., 2002), and anxiety (Jung et al., 2002; Leong et al., 2008). These emotions in turn have a negative influence on consumer behavior, leading to the rejection of products linked with the foreign country (Harmeling et al., 2015).

In cases of economic animosity, the threat is caused by expected damage to national prosperity (De Nisco et al., 2016), while in cases of war animosity, the threat is related to the possibility of armed conflict erupting between two countries (Klein et al., 1998). Importantly, seeing a foreign country as a threat should not in itself affect perceptions of the quality of products from that country. On the contrary, a threatening country might be viewed as competent and therefore able to produce high-quality offerings (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008). This perspective suggests that threat perceptions are largely independent of product quality perceptions and therefore is consistent with the original conceptualization of animosity (Klein et al., 1998).

In this study, we specifically examine anger and fear as threat emotions. We focus on these two emotions because they have been studied in previous research, and therefore their inclusion can help us test the usefulness of differentiating between threat emotions and more extreme emotions. In other words, we want to compare how these two threat emotions explain the behavioral consequences of animosity beliefs when we control for the potential impact of more damaging extreme emotions.

2.4. Extreme emotions and animosity

International crises differ significantly across contexts (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). While animosity has negative impacts even at relatively low levels of hostility (Klein, 2002), crises are qualitatively different in their severity (Brubaker & Laitin, 1998; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). In extreme cases of intergroup conflict, often linked to prolonged and institutionalized military confrontations, hostility is associated with extreme negative emotions, such as hatred, contempt, and disgust (Bar-Tal, 2013; Halperin, 2014). In such contexts, perceptions of the target country as a threat remain, but these perceptions are also accompanied by more damaging feelings that imply negative evaluations of the very character of the country.

In this study, we focus on contempt and disgust as two extreme emotions. Both emotions imply strong negative inferences about the character of the perceived wrongdoer (Fiske, 2010; Horberg et al., 2009; Schriber et al., 2017). Three features characterize contempt (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Romani et al., 2013). First, this emotion implies a negative status evaluation. When people feel contempt toward someone, they tend to feel morally superior to that person (Fiske, 2010; Schriber et al., 2017). Second, feelings of contempt lead people to socially exclude others, thus creating conditions for a more permanent separation (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). Third, while anger leads people to criticize or attack another person as a means to find a solution, contempt drives a type of retaliation motivated by a desire to harm and permanently exclude the other (see Romani et al., 2013). Contempt is

therefore a dimension of intergroup hatred (Halperin, 2014), which is much more damaging than anger in an animosity context. While anger suggests the possibility of reconciliation, contempt excludes reconciliation (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Fiske et al., 2002; Romani et al., 2013).

Disgust originated as a self-protection mechanism against the ingestion of contaminated or dangerous substances (Chapman & Anderson, 2013). From this evolutionary origin, the related emotion has acquired moral implications and is also elicited by behaviors considered unethical (Hutcherson & Gross, 2011), impure (Horberg et al., 2009), and/or inappropriate (Haidt, 2001). In both its physical and moral form, an element of strong offense is implicit in disgust (Chapman & Anderson, 2013). Feelings of disgust toward a country imply a damning moral evaluation, with serious relational consequences (Rozin, 1999). Strongly disliked out-groups are considered disgusting, and the emotion is responsible for harmful avoidance behaviors, such as failing to offer support when these groups are the target of discrimination (Fiske et al., 2002; Harris & Fiske, 2006). Therefore, similar to contempt, disgust implies an extreme rejection, leading to long-term social exclusion (Fiske et al., 2002).

In summary, extreme emotions are different from threat emotions in two important ways. First, they lead to a desire for long-term social exclusion and render the possibility of reconciliation very difficult. Second, they confer a diminished status and therefore are likely to pollute anything associated with the target country (see Morales & Fitzsimons, 2007; Schriber et al., 2017). For marketers, this means that if animosity leads to extreme (rather than threat) emotions, this bias is more likely to be (1) very difficult to overcome over time and (2) highly likely to contaminate product quality perceptions.

In line with the preceding discussion, we hypothesize that animosity beliefs can trigger extreme emotions, which are different from the threat emotions discussed in the current animosity literature. Formally,

H1: Animosity beliefs can elicit extreme emotions such as feelings of contempt for and disgust toward a target country.

2.5. Consequences of animosity emotions

Consistent with previous research, we examine three outcomes of animosity: product quality perceptions, the decision to avoid products from the target country, and the decision to spread negative word of mouth about products from the target country (e.g., Harmeling et al., 2015; Klein et al., 1998). Product quality judgments might change during an international crisis because consumers may update their perception of the characteristics of offerings originating from the target country (Harmeling et al., 2015). This could happen directly, as a consequence of an intense dislike that leads to a general rejection of everything linked to the country (Bar-Tal, 2013), or indirectly, because consumers interpret their decision to stop buying products from a certain country as a sign that their quality is inferior (Ettenson & Klein, 2005). As we have discussed, there is disagreement in the literature about whether animosity influences perceptions of product quality. Nonetheless, this variable remains important because it is an antecedent of the other two behavioral outcomes examined (Harmeling et al., 2015). Negative word of mouth implies a desire to punish the target country by actively engaging in a damaging behavior (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003), while product avoidance encapsulates consumers' rejection of products from the source country. Product avoidance does not measure the desire to actively harm the foreign country but rather the decision to avoid products from the target country (Fiske et al., 2002). Harmeling et al. (2015, p. 5) describe it "as a passive process that involves an individual's adjustment to his or her personal behavior without the effort to influence others." This behavior is an important outcome of animosity because it measures a private sense of hostility and rejection that does not require campaigning publicly (Klein et al., 1998).

While prior research has predominantly focused on threat emotions as mediators of the effect of animosity beliefs on consumer behavior, in this study we argue that extreme emotions are also important. Extreme emotions are elicited by intense hostility, which goes beyond the mere perception that the target country is dangerous and/or responsible for a wrong action. The much more extreme negative evaluations associated with feelings of contempt and disgust will lead to a strong motivation to harm the target country through product avoidance and negative word of mouth (Halperin, 2014; Romani et al., 2013). At the same time, as we have noted, contempt and disgust carry a devaluation of the target that is likely to negatively influence perceptions of quality above and beyond any effect of threat-related emotions (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Horberg et al., 2009). In other words, extreme emotions will mediate negative behavioral effects through their ability to influence product quality perceptions. Accordingly, we hypothesize the following:

H2: Extreme emotions toward a target country increase consumers' intentions to engage in negative word of mouth against products associated with the source of animosity.

H3: Extreme emotions toward a target country reduce consumers' perceptions of product quality for goods associated with the source of animosity.

H4: Extreme emotions toward a target country increase consumers' intentions to avoid products associated with the source of animosity.

Fig. 1 summarizes our hypotheses. The model implies that, at least in some international crises, extreme emotions partly explain the consequences of animosity.

INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE

14

3. Methodology

3.1. Country selection

We assessed our hypotheses by examining war-related animosity beliefs in China toward Japan (Harmeling et al., 2015). The context is appropriate because it elicits a reasonable level of animosity, as has been widely documented in previous research (Harmeling et al., 2015; Klein et al., 1998). This specific case of animosity is also suitable for our analysis because even though the two countries are not currently engaged in an armed conflict, they share a complex history with relationships often marred by serious disputes and a long-standing geopolitical rivalry (Bar-Tal, 2013; Christensen, 1999), thus offering a good opportunity to examine the role of extreme emotions in animosity. Data collection took place in March 2016, and no major tension surfaced between these countries at the time.

3.2. Procedures and participants

We designed an online survey, which was scripted in Qualtrics, and hired a commercial panel firm (Survey Sampling International) for the data collection. To maximize participants' engagement, we used an adapted version of the instrumental manipulation check at the beginning of the survey (see Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009). We also used an attention-check question toward the end of the questionnaire (Meade & Craig, 2012), excluding participants who failed this question. The panel firm administered the survey to a nationally representative sample by inviting registered participants in the panel, by e-mail, to access the relevant link on the Qualtrics platform. Of the 887 panel members that started the survey, 522 completed it, and of those, 476 passed the attention check.[1] There were no incomplete data for the 476 participants that comprised the final sample for this study. Table 2 provides the sample details.

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[1] The results do not change with the inclusion of participants who failed the attention check.

We first developed the questionnaire in English using established scales from prior literature (see Table 3). Animosity beliefs, anger, fear, negative word of mouth, product avoidance, product quality and consumer ethnocentrism were all measured based on Harmeling et al. (2015). Contempt was measured based on Romani et al. (2013) and disgust based on van Overveld, De Jong, and Peters (2006). All items were measured on a seven-point scale. We then had it translated into Chinese and back-translated into English. We included consumer ethnocentrism, gender, and age as control variables, following common practice in extant research (e.g., Harmeling et al., 2015).

INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

3.2. Measurement model, reliability, and validity checks

We performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using MPlus to assess the reliability and validity of the constructs. The CFA model shows a theoretically and statistically acceptable overall fit (χ^2 = 777.58, df = 377, p < .01; root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .04; comparative fit index [CFI] = .97; Tucker–Lewis index [TLI] = .97). The chi-square value was significant due to its sensitivity to sample size (N = 476), but the normed chi-square (χ^2/df), which is less sensitive to sample size, equaled 2.06, thus meeting the accepted threshold of a value less than 5 (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The CFI and TLI scores well exceeded .93 (Byrne, 1994) and .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1995), respectively, and the RMSEA did not exceed .08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1992; Hu & Bentler, 1995). The same measurement model including the control variable of consumer ethnocentrism also showed an acceptable overall fit (χ^2 = 1387.28, df = 524, p < .01; RMSEA = .05; CFI = .95; TLI = .95).

Table 3 reports all standardized loadings. Multi-item constructs had acceptable composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) scores. As Table 4 shows, correlations between all items of all constructs were less than or equal to .71, and the data also had acceptable values with respect to Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion [AVE > $(r)^2$] for all

multi-item scales, thus confirming discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is also supported by the analysis of the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT), with a highest score of .78 (Henseler et al., 2015; Voorhees et al. 2016). In addition, we used two statistics to further assess multicollinearity: variance inflation factors (VIFs) and tolerance.[2] None of the VIFs exceeded 5, and no tolerance values were below .20 for any of the constructs, further indicating no concerns with respect to multicollinearity (O'Brien, 2007). Thus, we can use the measures to test our research hypotheses.

INSERT TABLE 3 HERE

INSERT TABLE 4 HERE

3.3. Common method bias

To reduce common method bias (CMB), we randomized all scales, we reassured participants about the confidentiality of their answers, we stressed the importance of participants' answers to increase motivation, we used simple questions that were easy to understand and answer, we clearly separated the different constructs in unique screens, and we used simple and straightforward language throughout (Mackenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). To explore the potential impact of CMB on our data further, we used a CFA to assess the model fit of a one-factor solution (see Craighead, Ketchen, Dunn, & Hult, 2011) and compared it with the eight-factor solution depicted in Fig. 1. The one-factor solution model showed significantly worse fit than the eight-factor solution model (CFI = .51, TLI = .47, RMSEA = .20). Furthermore, we added a marker variable (i.e.,

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[2] *Model with "product avoidance" as the dependent variable*: war animosity beliefs (tolerance = .64, VIF = 1.55), anger (tolerance = .36, VIF = 2.77), contempt (tolerance = .31, VIF = 3.20), disgust (tolerance = .28, VIF = 3.51), fear (tolerance = .78, VIF = 1.29), ethnocentrism (tolerance = .66, VIF = 1.51), product quality (tolerance = .78, VIF = 1.28), and negative word of mouth (tolerance = .54, VIF = 1.85). *Model with "negative word of mouth" as the dependent variable*: war animosity beliefs (tolerance = .64, VIF = 1.56), anger (tolerance = .36, VIF = 2.79), contempt (tolerance = .32, VIF = 3.17), disgust (tolerance = .27, VIF = 3.65), fear (tolerance = .78, VIF = 1.28), ethnocentrism (tolerance = .57, VIF = 1.74), product quality (tolerance = .77, VIF = 1.30), and product avoidance (tolerance = .36, VIF = 2.78). *Model with "product quality" as the dependent variable:* war animosity beliefs (Tolerance = .64, VIF = 1.56), anger (tolerance = .36, VIF = 2.77), contempt (tolerance = .31, VIF = 3.20), disgust (tolerance = .27, VIF = 3.65), fear (tolerance = .80, VIF = 1.24), ethnocentrism (tolerance = .57, VIF = 1.74), product avoidance (tolerance = .33, VIF = 3.03), and negative word of mouth (tolerance = .48, VIF = 2.06).

"I prefer warm colors [i.e., containing yellow and red] over cold colors [i.e., containing blue]")
to the survey instrument to test for CMB (Bagozzi, 2011). None of the constructs were
correlated significantly with the marker variable, and the correlations between the constructs
of interest did not change in either sample once we introduced the marker variable as a control
running partial correlations. We report the partial correlations in Table 4. These analyses
suggest that CMB is not an issue of concern in the interpretation of the results.[3]

4. Findings

Our analytical strategy comprises two steps and follows common approaches in the extant
research (see Harmeling et al., 2015). First, we examine the structural model depicted in Fig.
1. Second, we assess the unique mediating effect of each emotion to determine which one is
more relevant for explaining our dependent variables (Hayes, 2013).

The model depicted in Fig. 1 shows acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 1018.79$, df $= 386$, $p < .01$; χ^2/df $=$
2.63; RMSEA $= .05$; CFI $= .96$; TLI $= .96$; SRMR $= .05$). As a robustness check, we estimated
the model again (in accordance with Fig. 1), this time including consumer ethnocentrism,
gender, and age as controls loading on the dependent variables ($\chi^2 = 1763.53$, df $= 601$, $p <$
$.01$; χ^2/df $= 2.93$; RMSEA $= .06$; CFI $= .94$; TLI $= .93$; SRMR $= .06$). The results did not change
after we added these control variables. Fig. 2 presents the structural estimates of the model
including the controls. War animosity beliefs trigger extreme emotions (contempt: $b = .87$, p
$< .01$; and disgust: $b = .89$, $p < .01$), in support of H1, while also triggering threat emotions
(anger: $b = .85$, $p < .01$; and fear: $b = .33$, $p < .01$). Contempt and disgust both positively
influence negative word of mouth ($b = .22$, $p < .01$ and $b = .25$, $p < .01$, respectively) and
product avoidance ($b = .14$, $p < .05$ and $b = .31$, $p < .01$, respectively). These findings support
H2 and H4, respectively. Anger and fear, however, have no influence on our dependent
variables ($p > .05$). With respect to product quality, only contempt influences this outcome

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[3] A Harman's single factor test shows that 43% of the variance is explained by only one factor. On the contrary, a model with eight factors explains 94% of the variance. This evidence further reinforces the finding that our data are not affected by CMB.

negatively ($b = -.24$, $p < .01$). Thus, the results only partially support H3. In addition, fear influences product quality positively ($b = .18$, $p < .01$), while anger has no influence on this outcome ($p > .05$). As we expected, product quality judgments influence significantly both negative word of mouth and product avoidance ($b = -.23$, $p < .05$ and $b = -.21$, $p < .01$, respectively). In general, threat emotions have weaker effects than extreme emotions. Furthermore, the estimate of the path between fear and product quality yields a positive effect, while the correlation coefficient between these variables is not statistically significant ($r = .04$, $p = .35$), as we show in Table 4. We can therefore conclude that extreme emotions are more important than threat emotions as mediators between consumer animosity beliefs and behavior.

INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE

Next, using an ordinary least squares regression approach to path analysis (Hayes, 2013), we examined the mediations postulated in our model (i.e., emotions as mediators between animosity beliefs and behavioral variables). Table 5 presents the indirect effects for the dependent variables, estimated using PROCESS and the calculation of 95% confidence intervals (CIs) using bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap and 10,000 resamples (Hayes, 2013). To assess the unique mediating effect of each emotion, we used the average of the items in our analysis and Model 4 (Hayes, 2013), running one model for each dependent variable and including all the emotions as potential mediators.

Consistent with our structural equation model analysis, contempt and disgust mediate the impact of animosity on negative word of mouth and product avoidance. Furthermore, fear and contempt mediate the effect of animosity beliefs on product quality. We also calculated the model again, including age, gender, and consumer ethnocentrism as covariates in the analysis. The inclusion of these controls does not affect the analysis or mediating effects identified. We also assessed the indirect effects through the mediation of perceived quality on the behavioral measures. We used Process, Model 6 (Hayes, 2013) and considered one emotion at a time,

while retaining the others as covariates. The findings show that contempt reduces negative word of mouth (β = .01; CI ranging from .01 to .02) and product avoidance (.01; CI ranging from .01 to .02) through the mediation of product quality.

INSERT TABLE 5 HERE

5. Discussion

This study applies a social-functionalist approach to argue that, when appraising international crises, extreme emotions play a different role from threat emotions in explaining consumers' reactions. Answering recent calls for further research on the roles of emotions in consumer behavior in international contexts (Davvetas & Diamantopoulos, 2018; Gürhan-Canli et al., 2018), the study explains how animosity beliefs trigger feelings of contempt and disgust and how these emotions influence the negative outcomes identified in past research. When extreme emotions and their function is considered, threat emotions do not explain the outcomes of interest. Aversion to products from a hostile country can be explained by a very deep-seated animosity, which will prove difficult to overcome for marketers. The results raise several conceptual and managerial implications.

5.1. Theoretical implications

The evidence we have presented suggests that animosity beliefs can sometimes be associated with very damaging emotions that imply a demeaned status of the target country. This perspective frames animosity as one further manifestation of intergroup hatred (Bar-Tal, 2013; Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014; Romani et al., 2013). However, it should be noted that, on average, the level of negative emotions recorded is not overly high (see Table 4), and in the case of contempt ($p < .01$) and fear ($p < .01$), it is below the scale's midpoint. Nonetheless, approximately 20% and 28% of the sample report levels of contempt and disgust,

respectively, above 5. What matters, however, is the differing impact that these extreme emotions have on consumer behaviors and their ability to carry particularly negative information about the company.

In addition, our findings demonstrate that extreme emotions best explain the effects of animosity beliefs on product quality and the behavioral variables examined. Thus, the current study explains why the effects of international crises can sometimes easily dissipate. In situations in which animosity is not particularly intense and sufficiently institutionalized (e.g., Ashenfelter et al., 2007; De Nisco et al., 2016; Gineikiene & Diamantopoulos, 2017) to elicit contempt and disgust (Halperin, 2014), the negative effects of country of origin will be milder and more easily offset by other positive paths. The centrality of contempt in predicting product quality might be responsible for the inconsistent findings identified in prior research. Because contempt shares a significant amount of variance with anger (in our study, $r = .71$), past studies might have, at times, found a connection between the latter and product quality while not controlling for the former (Gineikiene and Diamantopoulos, 2017; Harmeling et al., 2015). Equally, because no study has explicitly measured contempt and anger at the same time, it is reasonable that the results in terms of the relationship between animosity and product quality were inconsistent. Reconciling this inconsistent evidence, we suggest that the influence of animosity on product quality is explained by contempt and therefore is more likely to appear in contexts of strong rivalry that elicit extreme emotional reactions.

Our findings also show that, contrary to earlier accounts stressing the role of anger and fear (Ang et al., 2004; Harmeling et al., 2015; Jung et al., 2002), extreme emotions such as contempt and disgust play a central role in explaining the effect of animosity beliefs. In other words, the emotions that are more likely to explain consumer behavior are those that carry an implicit negative evaluation of the target country. This evidence is consistent with findings that the negative effects of animosity persist even over long time periods (Ettenson & Klein, 2005;

Papadopoulos, Banna, & Murphy, 2017) and that, once animosity sets in, consumers prefer international brand strategies that reduce as much as possible any connection between the brand and the country of origin (Fong, Lee, & Du, 2013, 2014, 2015).

An additional implication of our analysis is the need to examine in detail the motivational underpinnings of animosity across contexts. Consumers' reaction to a foreign country can, at times, be ambivalent (e.g., Gineikiene & Diamantopoulos, 2017), it can include mild negative emotions (e.g., Jung et al., 2002), or it may comprise extremely negative feelings (as we examined in this study). In this respect, the conceptualization of animosity might benefit from the development of a typology that classifies different forms of hostility experienced by consumers in different crises. It could be possible to identify different types of crises in terms of their effects on consumer behavior and their consequences for international brands. Scholars note that the nature of the crisis can differ substantially and comprise political, ethnic, military or economic issues (Nes et al., 2012). However, it is not clear whether each of this type is likely to yield specific emotional reactions. Considering the diverse range of emotions elicited by animosity beliefs, it would be also interesting to explore typologies of consumers' reactions within a certain crisis. For example, it might be possible to identify different emotional profiles and therefore define stable segments of consumers that differ in how individuals use information related to animosity in their choices (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2017).

5.2. Managerial implications

The recognition that extreme emotions can play an important role yields significant managerial implications. While threat emotions can be addressed by effective communication campaigns aimed at reducing the perception of the target country as a danger, extreme emotions are notoriously difficult to overcome and can pose a serious long-term barrier to international market development (Fischer & Roseman, 2007; Halperin, 2014; Romani et al., 2013). We recommend to managers the following steps: First, it is important to monitor extreme emotions

such as contempt and disgust to evaluate whether the target country generates such strong and aversive feelings and, when relevant, in which segments such feelings are predominant. Second, it is necessary to determine whether extreme emotions play a dominant role in explaining the negative effects of animosity.

When animosity is explained predominantly by disgust and contempt, as in the case of China–Japan war-related tensions, the best solution is to create as much distance as possible between a brand and its country of origin. In this situation, consumer behavior is explained by a desire to seek revenge by harming the foreign country (Romani et al., 2013). Avoiding reference to the country of origin appears to be the preferable approach. While this is not feasible in all industries (e.g., the car industry), there are communication strategies that are worth considering, and can be evaluate in a specific context. For example, several global cosmetic brands (e.g., Estée Lauder, Clinique, Bobbi Brown) in the Chinese market use Chinese plants as ingredients (e.g., ginseng) to create new products and brands that are perceived as being more dedicated to the foreign market and therefore could shield against any negative country-of-origin effects (Singer, 2012). In a different context, Prats, Sosna, and Sysko-Romańczuk (2015) note how Apple attempts to avoid the potential negative effects associated with the "Made in China" label by inserting the sentence "Designed by Apple in California" before adding the "Assembled in China" information. When these strategies are not feasible, companies might want to stress the links between the company and the host country by communicating how committed the firm is to the foreign market. Companies can also opt for joint ventures and/or to market their products together with local partners (Fong et al., 2014). This approach, if successful, would make revenge less meaningful and increase consumers' stake in the success of the company (without necessarily questioning their dislike for the target country directly).

Finally, when feasible, marketers can segment the foreign market based on the emotions that the country of origin elicits. This might lead to the possibility of completely avoiding targeting consumer segments with strong negative feelings associated with the country of origin to ensure that marketing efforts and associated expenditures related to the promotion of a brand in that country are not lost. The best strategy is likely to depend on the specific range of emotions elicited by the target country. A complete disassociation from the country of origin seems to be the best strategy only when it is certain that the target country elicits extreme negative emotions; this is the case in our context, which is consistent with that studied by Fong et al. (2014).

5.3. Limitations and directions for further research

This research examines the extreme emotions of contempt and disgust as mediators of animosity effects and shows that these extreme emotions have significant implications for consumer behavior, above and beyond the threat emotions of anger and fear, in the study of animosity. Nonetheless, beyond the four discrete emotions considered in this study, there are additional emotions and other types of animosity beliefs (e.g., economic beliefs) that deserve further exploration.

Moreover, while prior work has overwhelmingly examined negative emotions, it is also possible that positive emotions are negatively influenced by animosity beliefs. Further research should extend current accounts by examining how animosity beliefs can reduce the positive emotions experienced toward a country. At the same time, other types of animosity (e.g. economic, political, or ethnic hostility) should be examined to verify whether they affect our model.

An additional area that deserves further consideration is the study of how a temporal dimension can influence international crises. Typically, a particular event or set of events leads to the eruption of a crisis that might subside over time (Bar-Tal, 2013). However, some

evidence suggests that the negative effects of animosity can be quite long-lasting (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Papadopoulos et al., 2017). Future research should investigate how the variables considered in our model, and especially extreme emotions, may change over time. Specifically, it would be interesting to explore whether animosity effects take longer to dissipate once negative extreme emotions are elicited (Halperin, 2014).

Using a popular approach in the literature (Harmeling et al., 2015; Klein et al., 1998), we examine how animosity affects generic products from a target country. It would be interesting in future research to consider differences between industries in relation to animosity. Evidence shows that specific industries or companies are often viewed as being particularly representative of or critical to a target country (e.g., Abosag & Farah, 2014; Bar-Tal, 2013). Further research might examine the process that explains which industries are more sensitive to animosity and the role played by extreme emotions in this process. Specifically, researchers can explore the role of threat versus more extreme emotions, as well as different discrete emotions, in specific industries or product categories (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007).

5.4. Conclusion

Despite claims that we live in a "flat world" (Friedman, 2005), the international marketing landscape is often disrupted by crises and conflicts that involve two or more countries. This study enriches the understanding of different emotions that explain consumers' reactions to these crises. Our findings offer deeper insights into the psychological underpinnings of animosity, which can help marketers more effectively promote their products internationally and, when possible, act in ways that facilitate conflict resolution.

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Table 1

Representative literature review on consumer animosity.

Study	Research context	Sample	Dependent variables examined	Emotions examined	Key findings
Abosag & Farah, 2014	▪ Religious animosity ▪ Saudi consumers reactions to Danish products	▪ 11 qualitative interviews ▪ 216 questionnaires collected in Riyadh	▪ Boycott intentions ▪ Brand image ▪ Brand loyalty ▪ Product quality	▪ Anger assessed as part of animosity construct	▪ Animosity influences boycott intentions ▪ Boycott intentions negatively affect brand image and loyalty ▪ No effect of animosity on product quality
Bahaee & Pisani, 2009	▪ Animosity of Iranian consumers toward the United States ▪ Iranian consumers' reactions to American products	▪ 902 questionnaires collected in two Iranian cities	▪ Intention to buy American products	▪ Anger assessed as part of animosity construct ▪ Replicates Klein et al., 1998	▪ Animosity reduces intentions to buy ▪ Younger people, females, and highly educated consumers will experience stronger animosity ▪ Travelling abroad reduces animosity
De Nisco et al., 2016	▪ Economic animosity ▪ Italian and Spanish reactions to German products	▪ 274 Italian and 182 Spanish questionnaires collected at one university in each country	▪ Country image ▪ Product quality ▪ Product receptivity	▪ No emotions considered	▪ Animosity reduces product receptivity but does not affect country image and product quality ▪ Country image influences product receptivity
Ettenson & Klein, 2005	▪ Animosity toward France's nuclear testing in the Pacific Ocean ▪ Australian consumers' reactions to French products	▪ Study 1: 261 questionnaires collected in Gold Coast, Australia ▪ Study 1: 392 questionnaires collected in Gold Coast, Australia	▪ Product quality ▪ Boycott intentions	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct	▪ Animosity influences boycott intentions ▪ No effect of animosity on product quality ▪ Negative effects persist one year after crisis resolution
Fong et al., 2013	▪ How historical animosity of Chinese consumers toward Japan influences post-acquisition perceptions	▪ 121 students participated in an experiment: 65 from China and 56 from Taiwan ▪ The corporate reputation of the local target is also manipulated	▪ Repurchase intentions	▪ Anger assessed as part of animosity construct	▪ The perception of the post-acquisition target is negatively influenced by animosity ▪ Animosity also negatively affects the ability of positive reputational transfers: high reputation of the

	▪ Compares acquisition of a local firm by a Japanese firm in a high-animosity (China) versus a low-animosity (Taiwan) context				local partner does not improve purchase intentions in the high-animosity group
Fong et al., 2014	▪ How historical animosity of Chinese consumers toward Japan influences internationalization strategies and postentry brand strategies ▪ Compares high animosity (China) versus low animosity (Taiwan)	▪ Study 1: 96 Chinese participants and 100 Taiwanese participants ▪ Study 2: 87 Chinese participants and 79 Taiwanese participants ▪ Data collected at one university in each country in both studies	▪ Intentions to buy a Japanese brand	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct ▪ Replicates Klein et al. (1998)	▪ Consumers in high-animosity countries prefer to buy products from joint ventures than imports or full-acquisition products ▪ Consumers in high-animosity countries prefer to buy products that stress local elements in the branding after an acquisition ▪ Such differences disappear in low-animosity countries
Fong et al., 2015	▪ Replicates the same approach of Fong et al. (2014), with minor differences in the products and entry modes considered	▪ Study 1: 106 Chinese participants and 102 Taiwanese participants ▪ Study 2: 70 Chinese participants and 76 Taiwanese participants ▪ Data collected at one university in each country in both studies	▪ Intentions to buy a Japanese brand	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct ▪ Replicates Klein et al. (1998)	▪ The pattern of results identified in Fong et al. (2014) is replicated ▪ Shows that brand strategies that maximize local content are useful to reduce the negative impact of animosity
Funk, Arthurs, Treviño, & Joireman, 2010	▪ Animosity toward foreign countries in the context of hybrid products in multinational supply chains ▪ American consumers' evaluations of a	▪ 399 questionnaires collected online with U.S. citizens	▪ Intentions to buy a Japanese brand ▪ Product quality	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct	▪ Animosity toward the country of manufacture reduces intentions to buy the brand ▪ There is no effect of animosity on product quality

	Japanese product manufactured in Canada (low animosity), in India (medium animosity), or in Iran (high animosity)			
Gineikiene & Diamantopoulos, 2017	▪ War and economic animosity in the context of historically connected markets ▪ Ukrainian and Lithuanian consumers' reactions to Russian or Soviet-era brands	▪ 396 questionnaires collected face-to-face by a research agency in Lithuania ▪ 414 questionnaires collected via social media in the Ukraine	▪ Product quality ▪ Ownership of Russian or Soviet-era brands	▪ Anger assessed as part of the war animosity construct	▪ Animosity reduces product quality perceptions ▪ Animosity reduces the likelihood of ownership of Russian or Soviet-era brands ▪ The effect of animosity is counterbalanced by the positive effect of nostalgia, which increases ownership
Harmeling et al., 2015	▪ War beliefs between China and Japan and between Russia and the United States ▪ American and Chinese consumers' reactions to Russian and Japanese products, respectively	▪ 283 questionnaires collected in China ▪ 308 questionnaires collected in the United States ▪ Both samples collected online through a research panel	▪ Product avoidance ▪ Product quality ▪ Negative word of mouth	▪ Anger and fear are examined as mediators of the effects of cognitive animosity beliefs	▪ Anger mediates the influence of animosity on product avoidance and negative word of mouth because these actions imply aggression toward the target country ▪ Fear mediates the influence of animosity on product avoidance and product quality because these actions imply a retreat from the target country
Heinberg, 2017	▪ Animosity against the West in China ▪ Chinese consumers' tendency to react with animosity toward the West by increasing their purchase of local products	▪ Study 1: 244 Chinese students recruited on the campus of a northern Chinese university ▪ Study 2: Chinese students recruited for an experiment in a university near Beijing	▪ Product quality ▪ Willingness to buy local products	▪ No emotion is considered	▪ Animosity increases the willingness to buy local products ▪ Animosity does not influence product quality

Hoffmann et al., 2011	▪ Aims to develop a universal measure of animosity ▪ German and Ukrainian consumers' reactions to Russia and the United States ▪ German and Russian consumers' reactions to France, Russia, the United States, and Germany	▪ Study 1: 100 German and 111 Ukrainian student participants ▪ Study 2: 360 German and 350 Russian participants	▪ Boycott ▪ Purchase intentions ▪ Country-of-origin image	▪ Anger assessed as part of the general animosity construct ▪ General animosity is conceptualized as an index determined by perceived threat, antithetical political attitudes, and negative personal experiences	▪ The scale is validated in the two studies ▪ General animosity influences the boycott intentions and purchase intentions ▪ General animosity does not influence country image
Huang et al., 2010	▪ Taiwanese consumers' animosity toward China and Japan ▪ Taiwanese consumers' reactions to Chinese and Japanese products	▪ 456 questionnaires collected in schools in Taiwan with a quasi-random sampling procedure	▪ Purchase intentions ▪ Product quality	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct	▪ Animosity reduces product quality and purchase intentions
Jiménez & San Martin, 2010	▪ Animosity of car owners and its influence on trust ▪ Spanish consumers' reactions to car manufacturers' country of origin	▪ 202 questionnaires collected personally in several Spanish cities	▪ Trust	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct ▪ Replicates Klein et al. (1998)	▪ Animosity reduces trust ▪ The effect is especially strong in situations of high product familiarity
Jung et al., 2002	▪ Develops a typology of animosity based on whether the aversion is stable (situational) or targeted at the national (individual) level ▪ Asian consumers' reactions to Japan	▪ 400 questionnaires collected in each of five Asian countries using a research agency and simple random procedures ▪ Countries include Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand	▪ Not applicable	▪ Four types of animosity are identified: national stable, personal stable, national situational, and personal situational ▪ Some of the items refer to feelings of anger, resentment,	▪ The four types are identified, and descriptive differences across countries are examined

	and the United States as targets of animosity			■ upset, anxiety, and insecurity	
Klein, 2002	■ War and economic animosity ■ U.S. consumers' reactions to Japanese and Korean products	■ 202 questionnaires from a U.S. online consumer panel	■ Preferences for buying Japanese products over South Korean products ■ Japanese product ownership	■ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct ■ Replicates Klein et al. (1998)	■ If the choice is between two foreign goods, one of which comes from a country that is the target of hostility, then animosity predicts preferences and ownership ■ Animosity's impacts are generalizable to contexts of low levels of anger
Klein et al., 1998	■ War and economic animosity ■ Chinese consumers' reactions to Japanese products	■ 244 questionnaires collected in the city of Nanjing via street intercepts	■ Willingness to buy ■ Product ownership	■ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct	■ Animosity negatively influences willingness to buy independently of product quality perceptions ■ High-animosity consumers owned fewer Japanese products than did low-animosity consumers
Lee & Mazodier, 2005	■ Animosity of U.K. consumers toward France	■ Study 1: 577 questionnaires collected from U.K. online consumer panel members before, during, and at the end of the 2012 London Olympics ■ Study 2: 302 questionnaires collected from U.K. online consumer panel members at the end of the 2012 London Olympics to control for potential mere measurement effects	■ Brand affect change ■ Brand trust change	■ No emotions considered ■ Brand affect measured as feeling favorable, positive, and good toward the brand	■ Animosity negatively moderates the positive effects of sponsorship on brand affect and brand trust
Lee, Lee, & Li, 2017	■ War and economic animosity ■ Data collection took place during and after a Sino-Japanese	■ Phase 1 surveys were completed by 148 Chinese and 139 Japanese consumers two weeks after the dispute	■ Boycott behavior	■ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct ■ Replicates Klein et al. (1998) but includes	■ Consumer animosity influenced boycott behavior during but not after the dispute

	territorial dispute over a group of South China Sea islands	▪ Phase 2 surveys were completed by 177 Chinese consumers and 157 Japanese consumers six months after the dispute. ▪ A mall-intercept method was used for data collection in China (Guangzhou) and Japan (Tokyo)		war and economic animosity as one construct	
Leong et al., 2008	▪ Situational and stable animosity ▪ Data collection took place in the fourth quarter of 1998, when most Asian countries were reeling from the effects of the 1997 Asian economic crisis. ▪ Consumers from the five affected Asian countries (Indonesia, South Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand) expressed views regarding the United States and Japan both in general and specific to the crisis	▪ 400 surveys in the capital city of each country were conducted, with a total sample size of 2000 ▪ Surveys were completed via in-home face-to-face interviews	▪ Cognitive judgements ▪ Affective evaluations ▪ Willingness to buy	▪ Situational animosity measured by emotions such as feeling upset, resentful, forgiving, insecure, anxious, and unhappy ▪ Affective evaluation measured by how much respondents liked, trusted, were in favor of buying, and found it appealing to buy products from the United States/Japan	▪ Situational animosity negatively influenced affective evaluations and cognitive judgements, while stable animosity had no effect on these outcomes ▪ The effect of situational animosity on affective evaluations was much higher than for cognitive judgments ▪ The effect of stable animosity on affective evaluations and cognitive judgments was mediated by situational animosity ▪ Both situational and stable animosity had a significant effect on willingness to buy
Maher & Mady, 2010	▪ Animosity of Kuwait consumers toward Denmark ▪ Data collection took place after the Mohammed cartoons controversy (i.e., the	▪ 447 questionnaires collected through snowball sampling in a Kuwait university	▪ Product judgements ▪ Willingness to buy	▪ Anger, contempt, and umbrage were measures of animosity	▪ Animosity does not influence product judgments but is associated with reduced willingness to buy

	depiction of the prophet Mohammed in the Danish press)				
Nes et al., 2012	▪ The study inductively identifies four domains of animosity, which are then validated through a confirmatory study	▪ 54 semistructured interviews conducted in Norway and the United States to develop the model ▪ 573 questionnaires collected in the United States and Norway to validate the model	▪ Buying intentions	▪ An emotional variable called "psychosocial affect," which assesses negative feelings associated with the imagined use of a foreign product	▪ Four dimensions of animosity: economic, war, people (dislike of the people), and government (dislike of the politics) ▪ The negative effect on buying intentions is mediated by an emotional construct labelled "psychosocial affect" ▪ Animosity does not influence product judgments
Nijssen & Douglas, 2004	▪ War and economic animosity ▪ Dutch consumers reactions to German products ▪ Data collected in the Netherlands, a country with high levels of foreign trade ▪ The study focuses on products that have no domestic alternative	▪ 219 questionnaires from Dutch nationals and of Dutch origin completed	▪ Consumer ethnocentrism ▪ Evaluation of foreign products ▪ Reluctance to buy foreign products	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct ▪ Replicates Klein et al. (1998)	▪ Animosity influences reluctance to buy even when no domestic alternative exists ▪ War animosity directly affects reluctance to buy foreign products, whereas economic animosity does this indirectly through consumer ethnocentrism ▪ When there are no perceived domestic alternatives, consumers appear more likely to evaluate foreign products favorably
Papadopoulos et al., 2017	▪ War and economic animosity of ethnic consumers ▪ Comparison between animosity (dislike), affinity (like), and benchmark (neutral) countries	▪ 308 Egyptian Canadians completed the survey ▪ Israel and Tunisia were selected as the animosity and affinity countries, respectively, while Brazil was the benchmark country	▪ Likelihood to purchase	▪ Anger assessed as part of the animosity construct for Israel but not Tunisia and Brazil ▪ Adapts Klein et al. (1998)	▪ Examining animosity and affinity together for three (or more) countries is valuable ▪ Affective dimensions are revealed by the simultaneous use of affinity measures ▪ Comparing three (or more) countries sheds light on their interrelationships
Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007	▪ Austrian consumers' animosity toward different countries	▪ 89 Austrian consumers in Vienna	▪ Animosity was the dependent variable, as the goal was to	▪ No emotions considered; used free	▪ Consumers can have animosities toward several countries and for different reasons, such as

			contribute toward a better measurement of the animosity construct	listing of country of animosity and reasons	economic, political, religious, or personal ▪ Animosity and cultural (dis)similarity are independent
Russell & Russell, 2006	▪ Animosity comparisons of U.S. and French consumers, examining foreign versus domestic movie preferences ▪ Animosity and country of origin manipulated	▪ Experiment 1: 251 U.S. natives from two universities, one from the northeast and one from the northwest ▪ Experiment 2: 253 French natives from two state universities ▪ Experiment 3: 120 French natives from two state universities	▪ Future choice of a domestic or a foreign movie ▪ Attitude toward the movie ▪ Involvement with the movie	▪ No emotions considered ▪ Adapts Klein et al. (1998), without anger	▪ When likelihood of exposure to products from other cultures is limited, low-animosity conditions trigger interest in foreign products even though one does not necessarily perceive differences in evaluations of or likely involvement with products ▪ When likelihood of exposure to products from other cultures is high, high-animosity conditions increase preferences for domestic products

Table 2

Sample characteristic.

Characteristic	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	262	55
Female	214	45
Age		
18 to 24 years old	90	18.9
25 to 34 years old	131	27.5
35 to 44 years old	107	22.5
45 to 54 years old	97	20.4
55 to 64 years old	48	10.1
65 years old and above	3	0.6
Education		
High school	41	8.6
Vocational-technical school	32	6.7
Undergraduate	27	5.7
Graduate	320	67.2
Master's degree	34	7.1
Doctoral degree	6	1.3
Professional degree	7	1.5
Other	9	1.9

Table 3
Measurement model.

Constructs (scale source)	Loadings
War Animosity Beliefs (Harmeling et al., 2015; α = .79, CR = .79, AVE = .57)	
Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements. 1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree	
There are frequent military disputes between Japan and China.	.62
Japan and China are enemies.	.84
Japan is a threat to China's national security.	.78
Anger (Harmeling et al., 2015; α = .97, CR = .97, AVE = .88)	
To what extent do you experience the following emotions towards Japan. 1 = not at all; 7 = extremely	
Angry	.93
Mad	.96
Frustrated	.93
Irritated	.94
Contempt (Romani et al., 2013; α = .95, CR = .95, AVE = .87)	
To what extent do you experience the following emotions towards Japan. 1 = not at all; 7 = extremely	
Contemptuous	.94
Disdainful	.94
Scornful	.92
Fear (Harmeling et al., 2015; α = .88, CR = .88, AVE = .65)	
To what extent do you experience the following emotions towards Japan. 1 = not at all; 7 = extremely	
Scared	.91
Worried	.60
Fearful	.93
Anxious	.73
Disgust (van Overveld, De Jong, & Peters, 2006; α = .97, CR = .97, AVE = .90)	
To what extent do you experience the following emotions towards Japan. 1 = not at all; 7 = extremely	
Disgust	.95
Distaste	.94
Revulsion	.96
Sick	.95
Negative word of mouth (Harmeling et al., 2015; α = .96, CR = .96, AVE = .88)	
If a friend asked you for advice about a Japanese product, how likely is it that you would say something negative to discourage your friend?	
1= Certain not to say something negative– 7= Certain to say something negative	.94
1= Very unlikely to tell something negative– 7= Very likely to tell something negative	.93
1= Probably would not say something negative– 7= Probably would say something negative	.95
Product avoidance (Harmeling et al., 2015; α = .96, CR =.96, AVE = .81)	
Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements. 1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree	
If given the possibility, I would keep as much distance between Japanese products and me.	.94
If it was an option, I would avoid purchasing Japanese products.	.92
I want nothing to do with Japanese products.	.87
If possible, I would choose another product over a Japanese product.	.87
I would spend as little as possible on Japanese products.	.91
Product quality judgment (Harmeling et al., 2015; α = .96, CR =.96, AVE = .85)	
Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements. 1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree	
Japanese products are likely to be carefully produced.	.94
Japanese products are likely to have fine workmanship.	.93
Japanese products are likely to have a high degree of technological advancement.	.92
Japanese products are likely to be quite reliable.	.89
Consumer ethnocentrism (Harmeling et al., 2015; α = .88, CR = .88, AVE = .60)	
Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements. 1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree	
There is nothing like products from my own country	.60
Purchasing foreign products can hurt Japanese business and cause unemployment.	.90

Even though it may cost me in the long run, I will still support certain products from my own country	.75
A real Chinese prefers to buy products from his/her own country	.73
Chinese consumers who buy a lot of products from other countries contribute to unemployment in China.	.85

All items are measured on seven-point scales. α = Cronbach's alpha, CR = composite reliability, AVE = average variance extracted.

Table 4
Descriptive statistics, correlations, and discriminant validity.

| Constructs	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. War animosity beliefs	4.62	1.19	**.75**										
2. Anger	4.32	1.68	.52**/ .52**	**.94**									
3. Contempt	3.72	1.75	.51**/ .49**	.71**/ .71**	**.93**								
4. Fear	2.89	1.32	.29**/ .31**	.36**/ .39**	.35**/ .35**	**.80**							
5. Disgust	4.13	1.80	.51**/ .49**	.76**/ .76**	.79**/ .79**	.32**/ .34**	**.95**						
6. Negative word of mouth	3.67	1.79	.40**/ .39**	.50**/ .50**	.58**/. 57**	.24**/ .24**	.58**/ .56**	**.94**					
7. Product avoidance	4.28	1.63	.49**/ .47**	.60**/ .60**	.65**/ .63**	.22**/ .23**	.67**/ .66**	.69**/ .68**	**.90**	.			
8. Product quality	5.07	1.27	−.15**/ −.16**	−.27**/ −.27**	−.30**/ −.31**	.04/ .04	−.27**/ −.28**	−.40**/ −.41**	−.44**/ −.45**	**.92**			
9. Ethnocentrism	4.17	1.33	.41**/ .38**	.44**/ .42**	.51**/ .47**	.24**/ .19**	.46**/ .43**	.48**/ .46**	.63**/ .62**	−.28**/ −.30**	**.94**		
10. Age group	n/a	n/a	.03/ .01	.07/ .06	.18**/ .16**	.07/ .06	.16**/ .15**	.06/ .05	.11*/ .10*	.03/ .03	.13**/. 12**	**n/a**	
11. Gender	n/a	n/a	.05/ .05	.10*/ .10*	.02./ 02	.03/ .03	.13**/ .14**	.05/ .05	.07/ .07	.01/ .01	−.03/ −.02	.17**/ .17**	**n/a**

** $p < .01$.
The square root of the average variance extracted is reported on the diagonal in bold. Partial correlations controlling for the marker variable are reported after the diagonal "/". n/a = not applicable.

Table 5
Unique mediating effects.

	Indirect effect	LLCI	ULCI
Animosity beliefs → Anger → Negative word of mouth	.02	−.08	.14
Animosity beliefs → Fear → Negative word of mouth	.01	−.03	.04
Animosity beliefs → Contempt → Negative word of mouth	**.22**	**.10**	**.36**
Animosity beliefs → Disgust →Negative word of mouth	**.20**	**.07**	**.36**
Animosity beliefs →Anger →Product avoidance	.07	−.01	.18
Animosity beliefs →Fear →Product avoidance	−.02	−.05	.01
Animosity beliefs →Contempt →Product avoidance	**.17**	**.08**	**.27**
Animosity beliefs →Disgust →Product avoidance	**.23**	**.12**	**.36**
Animosity beliefs →Anger →Product quality	−.08	−.17	.01
Animosity beliefs →Fear →Product quality	**.06**	**.02**	**.10**
Animosity beliefs →Contempt →Product quality	**−.13**	**−.22**	**−.04**
Animosity beliefs →Disgust →Product quality	−.02	−.11	.07

Bold indirect effects are statistically significant. Values are unstandardized estimates.
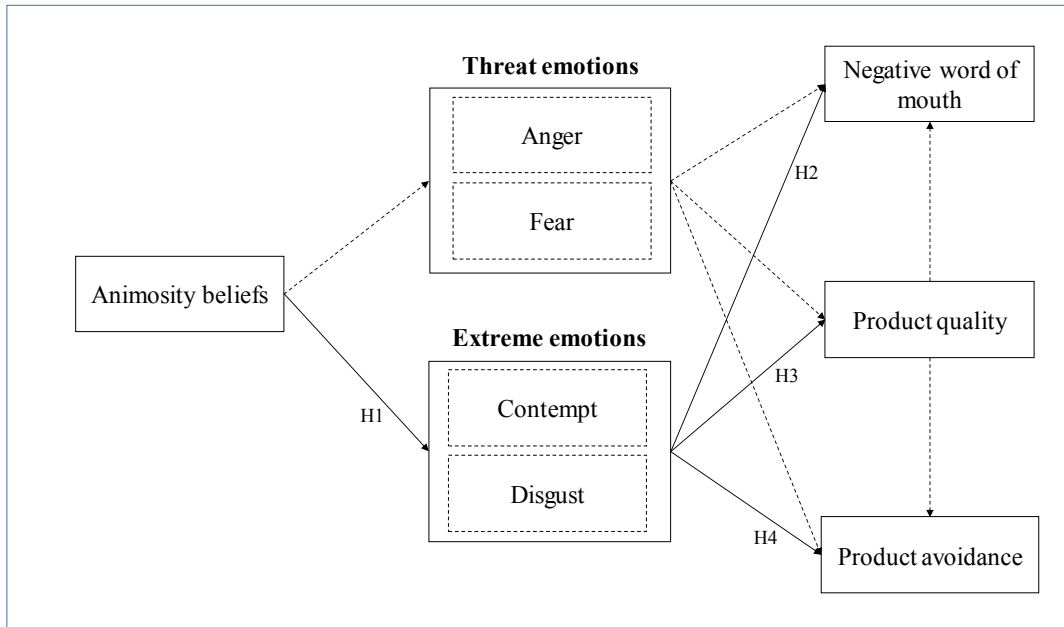
Dash lines indicate effects that have already been studied in previous research; solid lines indicate the specific additional effects hypothesized in this research.

Fig. 1. Research model.

Fig. 2. Structural model results.
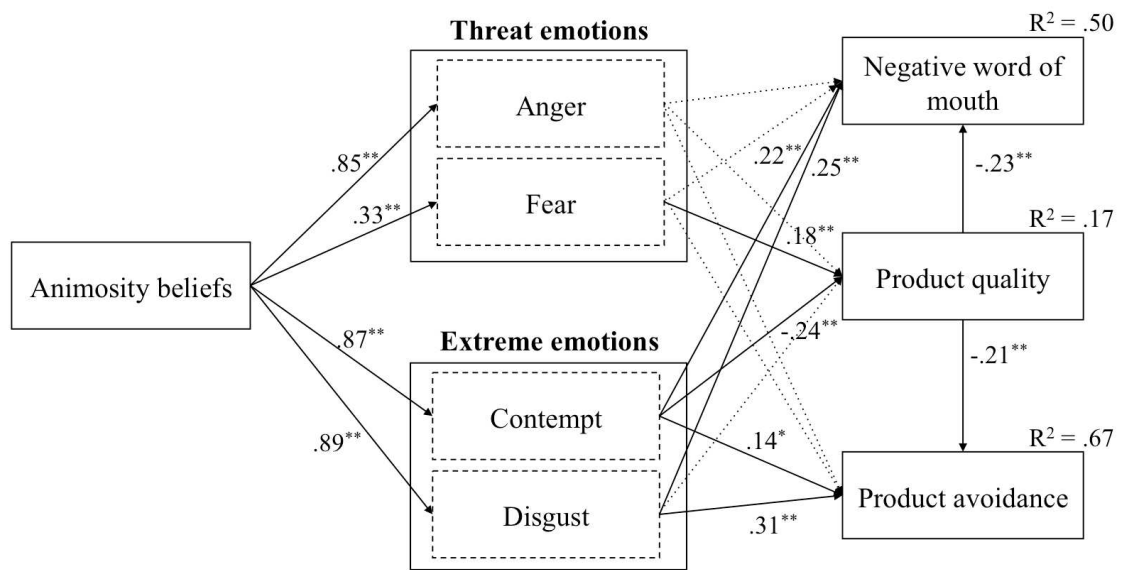
Ethnocentrism→Negative WOM	.21**	Age→Product Quality	.09*
Ethnocentrism→Product Avoidance	.36**	Gender→Negative WOM	.02
Ethnocentrism→Product Quality	-.16**	Gender→Product Avoidance	.01
Age→Negative WOM	.04	Gender→Product Quality	.03
Age→Product Avoidance	-.01		

**p < .01, *p < .05.
Dashed lines indicate nonsignificant results of tested paths, as per Figure 1.