



Beyond anger: A deeper look at consumer animosity

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Abstract

Grounded in cognitive-affective theories of emotion, an extended conceptual framework of consumer animosity is developed that (1) distinguishes between consumers' cognitive appraisal of the international dispute and the resulting emotional response, (2) expands from a valence-based approach to consider the differential effects of agonistic (i.e., anger) and retreat emotions (i.e., fear), and (3) examines three distinct consumer coping processes (product avoidance, negative word of mouth (NWOM), product quality judgment). A cross-cultural test of the framework among Chinese (toward Japan) and American (toward Russia) consumers supports the mediational role of emotions, and finds that agonistic emotions are related to NWOM and product avoidance, but not product quality judgment. In contrast, retreat emotions are related to product avoidance and product quality judgment, but not NWOM. The findings provide guidance for international brand managers on recognizing and detecting adverse sentiments toward their country of origin and accordingly modify their international brand strategy.

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INTRODUCTION

The sharpening dispute over the Senkaku islands, known as Diaoyu in China, is the most recent product of this old narrative of violence, hatred, fear and grief. (Tisdall, 2012)

A photograph showed a handwritten sign taped to the entrance of Suning, a popular electronics store, telling customers it was no longer selling Japanese products Several photographs said to be from Shenzhen, across the border from Hong Kong, showed what appeared to be damaged or overturned cars – most of them Japanese models. (Bradsher, Fackler, & Jacobs, 2012)

The opening quotes illustrate consumers' emotional and behavioral reaction to the recent flare-up in the ongoing conflict between Japan and China. Beyond the China–Japan conflict, other recent international disputes that prompted consumer reactions include US consumer actions against Russia (e.g., Russian vodka) due to disagreements over the Russian government's military intervention in Ukraine and support of the Syrian government (Aravosis, 2014), as well as Kuwaiti consumers' boycott of Danish products following

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the depiction of the Prophet Mohammed in the Danish press (Maher & Mady, 2010).

Coinciding with these events, a developing stream of research on consumer animosity illustrates that political and economic disputes drive consumer responses that can harm firms associated with the offending nation (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). Consumer animosity has been defined as “remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events” (Klein, Ettenson, & Morris, 1998: 90) or as the “*emotional* antagonism toward a particular entity” (Leong et al., 2008: 997; emphasis added). However, despite the recognition of emotions in the definition, extant animosity research has largely ignored the specific emotional aspect of the construct and its implications. Rather, extant research has employed a simple valence-based approach, and it has combined consumers’ cognitive appraisal and emotional response to international disputes into one overarching animosity construct (Funk, Arthurs, Trevino, & Joireman, 2010; Klein, 2002). The simple valence-based approach does not allow for differential effects of the wide range of emotions that consumers experience, as illustrated by the opening quotes (Tisdall, 2012).

The objective of this study is to present and test a conceptual model that expands our understanding of consumer animosity and its consequences, by shifting focus from a valence-based perspective (i.e., negative affect) to one that examines the idiosyncratic impact of specific negative emotions (e.g., anger, fear; Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990). This perspective is consistent with the large and well-established body of research in psychology and sociology that illustrates dramatic differences in coping processes between different negative emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Lerner & Keltner, 2000; Roseman, 1984). Drawing on this research, we examine two distinct categories of negative emotions: (1) agonistic emotions (i.e., anger) are approach-oriented emotions that are associated with the desire to retaliate against and punish the referent and (2) retreat emotions (i.e., fear) are avoidance-oriented emotions that are associated with the desire to distance oneself from the referent (Roseman, 1996).

Grounded in cognitive-affective theories of emotions, our extended consumer animosity model distinguishes between animosity beliefs and the emotional response to such beliefs and acknowledges the differential coping processes associated with specific negative emotions (Frijda, Kuipers, & ter Schure, 1989; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman et al., 1990). Thus we propose an important distinction

between consumers’ cognitive appraisal of the international conflict and their emotional response to the conflict. We further propose that consumers’ coping responses will vary based on the specific emotion. We examine consumers’ emotional drive to retaliate (i.e., negative word of mouth (NWOM)), the desire to avoid products from the offending nation (i.e., product avoidance), and consumers’ quality judgment of products from the offending country.

Our extended consumer animosity model provides a richer theoretical explanation of animosity effects by positing that different emotions lead to different consumer coping processes. Our research provides guidance for international brand managers operating in culturally diverse and globally connected environments in which military, political, and economic tensions are inevitable. Our findings on emotions suggest the importance of analyzing emotional tones and early cues in media accounts of international disputes. This allows managers to more accurately recognize and detect adverse sentiments toward their country of origin and strategically determine when events warrant a response and when resources are better invested elsewhere.

In the next section, we begin by reviewing the animosity literature to highlight the research gaps this study seeks to address. We then review past research on emotions and build a foundation for examining the emotional core of consumer animosity. The empirical evaluation of the conceptual framework is conducted using two different international disputes and culturally distinct samples. We compare Chinese consumers’ animosity toward Japan and US consumers’ animosity toward Russia. The disputes between these countries provide ongoing and relevant consumer animosity contexts that are culturally distinct, allowing for a robust examination of the cross-cultural generalizability of our framework. We conclude by discussing the theoretical and practical implications of our study, note some limitations, and identify directions for future research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a long history of research that suggests consumers often infer country-of-origin information from cues such as brand name, product labels, and visual symbols and use this information to guide decision making (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995; Sharma, 2014; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999). Within this broad research stream, consumer animosity provides insight into the effects of international disputes (e.g., military, political, and economic)



on consumption of foreign products from a specific country. First introduced in Klein et al.'s (1998) seminal study, consumer animosity refers to consumers' strong feelings of dislike or even hatred toward a country due to its political, military, or economic behavior. Within a sample of Chinese consumers living in Nanjing, China (infamous for the Nanjing massacre in which Japanese troops mass raped and murdered Chinese civilians in 1937–1938), their study provided evidence that consumers' feelings of animosity influenced their willingness to purchase and own Japanese products. The animosity model has been replicated in a variety of different cultural contexts, including American animosity toward Japan (Klein & Ettenson, 1999), Australian's animosity toward France due to nuclear testing (Ettenson & Klein, 2005), Israeli-Jewish consumers' animosity toward Arabs (Shoham, Davidow, Klein, & Ruvio, 2006), Iranian consumers' animosity toward the United States (Bahae & Pisani, 2009), and Anglo-American consumers' animosity toward Hispanic Americans (Little & Singh, 2014). While this research has greatly increased our understanding of consumer animosity, we have also identified several gaps that serve as the motivation for our investigation.

First, a review of consumer animosity scales suggests that cognitive belief statements and emotional responses are typically combined into a single animosity construct and primarily focus on anger (Cui, Wajda, & Hu, 2012; Klein, 2002; Maher, Clark, & Maher, 2010). However, this conflates consumers' beliefs about the international dispute with the emotional response and psychologists have long drawn a distinction between cognitions and emotions (Fishbein, 1979; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984). According to Lazarus (1991), "emotion is always a response to meaning" (824) and cognitions of perceived threat or misdeed act as a precursor to negative emotional responses (Averill, 1983).

In addition, one of the central tenets of the animosity model is the proposition that animosity will affect purchase behavior independent of product quality judgments (Klein et al., 1998). This proposition has received support in several studies (Funk et al., 2010; Klein, 2002; Maher et al., 2010); however, there are also several studies that have found a significant relationship between animosity and product quality judgments (Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Leong et al., 2008). A potential explanation for these conflicting findings may be the inclusion of different emotions in various animosity measurements, without an explicit recognition of the differences. For example, Maher and Mady (2010)

measured animosity with three agonistic emotion items (umbrage, anger, and contempt) and found no relationship between animosity and product quality judgments. Leong et al. (2008) distinguished between chronic and situational animosity. Their chronic animosity measurement, which did not include retreat-oriented emotions, was not related to product quality judgments. In contrast, their situational animosity measurement, which included several retreat-oriented emotions (e.g., insecure and anxious), was significantly related to product quality judgments.

In sum, the conflation of beliefs and, sometimes, several different emotions into a single animosity construct may contribute to the ambiguous findings in the extant literature. We suggest that a better understanding of animosity effects may be gained by explicitly recognizing the differences between animosity beliefs and the associated emotional response and, further, by capturing the differential effects of specific emotions.

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

Research in psychology and sociology has examined the role of emotions in response to negative events (Lazarus, 1991; Nesse, 1990; Roseman, 1984). Cognitive-affective theories suggest that individuals develop beliefs about an event that are incongruent with their expectations and these beliefs guide the emotional response, which consequently prompt coping processes, or efforts to alleviate distress caused by the event (Gelbrich, 2010; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Roseman, 1996). Both cognitive-affective theories and evolutionary psychology theories of emotions suggest that different negative emotions motivate unique coping processes (Roseman, 1996; Wright, 1995). In the following sections, we build on this rich literature to develop an extended consumer animosity model that captures the underlying cognitive and emotional mechanisms of consumer animosity.

Animosity Beliefs and Emotional Response

Cognitive-affective theory suggests that individuals' appraisals of events dictate the types of emotions felt in response to that event (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Roseman, 1996). Because cognitive appraisals are the formation of beliefs in which the individual holds a proposition about something to be true (e.g., Japan has too much economic influence in China), they are essential to the individual's response. In the animosity context, the cognitive appraisal refers to the consumer's beliefs about the extent of damage



and/or potential future threat attributable to the offending country. We refer to such cognitive appraisals as *animosity beliefs*.

Beliefs are separate from emotional responses as illustrated in the example that two opposing sports fans can see a referee's call as equally inaccurate. Yet one responds with joy and the other with anger. This variance in emotional response provides a foundation for separating these constructs. The formation of beliefs serves as an indicator of both awareness and knowledge of the event (Fishbein, 1979; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984) and Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, & Pope (1993: 916) suggest that the cognitive appraisal is the "most proximal antecedent of emotion." In sum, cognitive-affective theories reinforce the importance of separating beliefs from emotions (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999).

Specific Negative Emotions

Cognitive appraisals of events that violate one's personal expectations often lead to assessments of the event as a misdeed or threat, which generates negative emotions (Lazarus, 1991). Research from widely diverse cultures suggests that there are certain basic negative emotions, such as sadness, anger, disgust, and fear, that are universally recognized and biologically driven (Ekman & Davidson, 1994; Ekman & Friesen, 1971). Emotions have "evolved to solve evolutionarily relevant problems" (Saad, 2013: 335) and serve a functional purpose in that they adjust an individual's "physiological, psychological and behavioral parameters ... in ways that increase its capacity to respond adaptively to threats" (Nesse, 1990: 268). In effect, negative emotions prompt individuals to attempt to reduce their emotional distress and induce more favorable emotional states by engaging in coping processes (Duhachek, 2005). Coping processes are the cognitive and/or behavioral efforts of individuals to manage situations that tax or exceed their resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

From a valence perspective, all negative emotions would be treated the same. However, research has shown that different negative emotions may motivate unique cognitive and behavioral responses (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984). Consistent with Cannon's (1939) seminal "fight or flight" distinction, we differentiate negative emotions into two distinct types, which we refer to as agonistic and retreat emotions. *Agonistic emotions* (anger) are approach-oriented whereas *retreat emotions* (fear) are avoidance-oriented (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994; Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2009).

Agonistic emotions fuel coping processes that involve fighting back or retaliatory behavior. These retaliatory behaviors are meant to punish or harm the source of anger and serve to signal to the offender as well as observers that the behavior is unacceptable (Nesse, 1990). Agonistic emotions have blinding effects in that certain consequences are no longer considered, which fuel and guide the retaliatory process. In contrast, retreat emotions, which are avoidance-oriented, drive coping processes that focus on protective action in the form of a desire to distance oneself from the threat, and avoid future contact with the threatening stimuli (Nesse, 1990). In addition, retreat emotions drive alertness and heighten cognitive attention, which is used to systematically analyze all information associated with the focal event (Nesse, 1990). These coping processes directly promote survival through protection from and avoidance of current and future harm.

Similar patterns have been observed throughout the marketing literature. Fear and anxiety in sales encounters are associated with avoidance behaviors and protective actions, such as avoiding eye contact (Verbeke & Bagozzi, 2000). Fear is also often used in public policy campaigns, such as smoking cessation, or as a persuasive advertising tool when the objective is for the consumers to avoid negative consequences (Morales, Wu, & Fitzsimons, 2012). On the other hand, anger resulting from service failures is associated with aggressive action tendencies, such as complaining behavior. Anger is also associated with thoughts "of violence toward others" and "wanting to hurt someone" or "wanting to get back at someone" (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003: 383). Anger has also been recognized as a primary motivator for consumer participation in boycotts (Friedman, 1999). Therefore although anger and fear are both possible responses to animosity beliefs, anger energizes the individual to fight against the cause of anger, whereas fear drives the individual to withdraw (Bougie et al., 2003).

In sum, it is recognized that the cognitive appraisal and the emotional response are distinct, yet related constructs (Roseman, 1984). Further, agonistic and retreat emotions are two different types of negative affect likely to evoke different coping processes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Zourrig et al., 2009). To date, however, such distinctions have yet to be made in the extant animosity literature, which has treated consumer animosity as a general negative feeling while conflating animosity beliefs with animosity emotions. We suggest that a more complete

theoretical understanding of the animosity construct and its consequences can be gained by separating beliefs from emotions, further distinguishing between agonistic and retreat emotions, and specifying the likely coping responses encouraged by these particular emotions. Our conceptual framework, illustrated in Figure 1, is elaborated in the following section.

Coping with Agonistic Emotions

Our framework considers three potential outcomes or coping processes that consumers can use to deal with their emotions. *NWOM*, a behavioral coping process, is defined as the consumer’s choice to actively spread negative information about a given country in order to discourage other people from buying products from that country (Bougie et al., 2003). It is an active coping process that consumers can employ to get back at the offender and reflects a desire for revenge (Grégoire & Fisher, 2006). *Product avoidance* reflects a consumer’s deliberate rejection of products from the offending nation. Like *NWOM*, it is also a behavioral coping process, but unlike *NWOM*, it is a passive process that involves an individual’s adjustment to his or her personal behavior without the effort to influence others. The third outcome that we consider is *product quality judgment*, which captures a consumer’s perception of workmanship, technological advancement, and reliability of products from the offending nation. This is a cognitive coping process to mentally adjust the assessment of the quality of products from the offending country, but it requires no behavioral action.

As noted, agonistic emotions prompt the desire to retaliate or punish the offending entity. This desire to punish the offending country can manifest itself in at least two ways. First, angry consumers are likely to alter their personal consumption by not buying

products from that country in an attempt to harm the offender (Wright, 1995). Second, to maximize the retaliatory effect, they are also likely to try to persuade other consumers not to buy products from the offending nation (Bougie et al., 2003). The ability for consumers to persuade others to create a communal response has increased with advances in communication technologies (e.g., social media). Such crowd-based power amplifies consumers’ power through communal (non-)buying or collective expression of needs (Labrecque, vor dem Esche, Mathwick, Novak, & Hofacker, 2013). In sum, agonistic emotions are expected to increase *NWOM* and product avoidance.

However, will angry consumers also adjust their quality judgments of products from the offending country? Traditional cognitive consistency theories, such as cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), have suggested a desire for consumers to align cognitions and behaviors. Yet recent theorizing and evidence suggest that agonistic emotions may not follow this pattern. As noted earlier, Klein’s animosity model (Klein, 2002; Klein et al., 1998) proposes that animosity, which only incorporated anger, is not related to product quality judgments. Consumers are predicted to “separate their anger toward a country from their assessment of that country’s products. In other words, angry consumers do not distort or denigrate images of a target country’s products; they simply refuse to buy them” (Klein, 2002: 346–347).

Research on anger suggests that angry people are less likely to engage in the type of thinking needed for revising their product quality judgments. Mitchell, Brown, Morris-Villagran, and Villagran (2001), for instance, report that angry individuals have fewer on-topic thoughts about a persuasive message, but have more revenge-related thoughts.

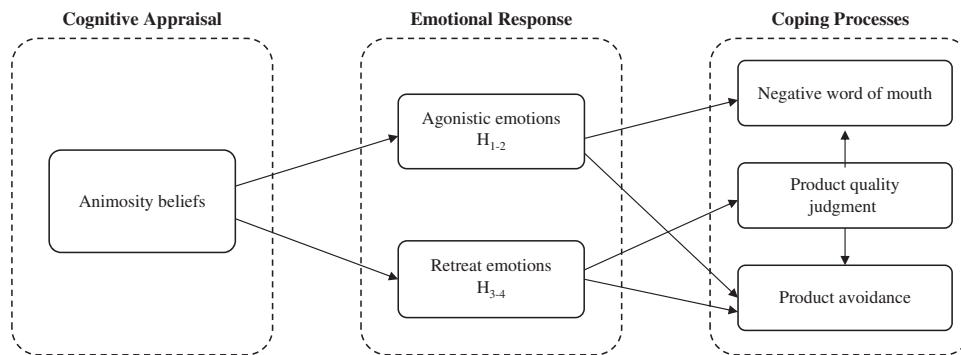


Figure 1 The emotional core of consumer animosity.



Angry individuals tend to act instinctively and focus their anger on taking measures to exact revenge, rather than systematically assess the situation (Robinson, Wilkowski, Meier, Moeller, & Fetterman, 2012). In effect, such instinctive responses lead consumers to overlook attitude adjustment and skip directly to behavioral adjustment, in response to the anger. Accordingly, we predict that agonistic emotions will be positively related to retaliatory behavior (NWOM and product avoidance), but not related to product quality judgments.

Hypothesis 1: Agonistic emotions mediate the positive relationship between animosity beliefs and negative word of mouth.

Hypothesis 2: Agonistic emotions mediate the positive relationship between animosity beliefs and product avoidance.

Coping with Retreat Emotions

Retreat emotions signal that the environment is uncertain, uncontrollable, and potentially threatening (Raghunathan, Pham, & Corfman, 2006). These signals drive coping processes such as avoidance or escape, which focus on reducing risk and uncertainty (Lazarus, 1991). Accordingly, consumers who experience retreat emotions in response to animosity beliefs are expected to take protective action. This includes distancing oneself from the offending nation (Richins, 1983), which suggests an increased desire for product avoidance. Retreat emotions motivate individuals to direct resources toward avoiding the negative stimuli and, therefore, will be limited to an adjustment in personal behavior (i.e., product avoidance) rather than an outward retaliatory response, such as NWOM. Feelings of uncertainty and unpredictability associated with retreat emotions also drive inaction and promote a reluctance to share feelings with others (Roseman et al., 1994). In addition, retreat emotions drive consumers to seek a sense of control. The personal decision to avoid products from the offending nation is a more controllable coping process than trying to affect others via NWOM, in which influence is uncertain. Collectively, this line of reasoning suggests that retreat emotions will be related to product avoidance, but not NWOM.

We further propose that retreat emotions, unlike agonistic emotions, will be related to product quality judgments. Retreat emotions are characterized by a high degree of uncertainty that arise from the presence of unpredictable threats (Yin, Bond, & Zhang,

2014) and “emotions characterized by uncertainty appraisals result in systematic processing” (Tiedens & Linton, 2001: 973). Thus consumers experiencing retreat emotions are more likely to employ systematic, mindful deliberation about all aspects of the threatening stimuli (Lerner, Gonzalez, Small, & Fischhoff, 2003). As a result, two opposing thoughts, previously favorable product quality judgments and product avoidance behaviors, are likely to be considered simultaneously and create tension. Consumers will attempt to achieve to reduce this tension and justify product avoidance by devaluing product quality judgments (Shoham et al., 2006). Thus because retreat emotions increase the diversity of information attended to in response to the international dispute, the tension between product quality judgments and product avoidance are likely to create a stronger desire for consistency in which consumers reduce their product quality judgments to justify their behaviors (Festinger, 1957).

The findings of Ettenson and Klein’s (2005) longitudinal study of consumer animosity toward France among Australian consumers following France’s nuclear tests in the South Pacific are suggestive of the difference between agonistic and retreat emotions in their relationships with product quality judgments. At the height of the controversy, Australian consumers’ animosity was related to their willingness to buy French products, but not to their product quality evaluations. However, one year later, animosity was related to both their willingness to buy French products and their quality evaluations of such products. As Ettenson and Klein (2005) employed a negative affect measure of animosity that did not account for specific emotions, one can only speculate about the reasons for these changes in relationships over time. Nonetheless, it seems reasonable to suggest that, at the height of the controversy, consumer emotions were dominated by anger, which led them to only modify their intentions to purchase French products. Over time, this anger subsided and was replaced by fear about the long-term health consequences from the nuclear tests. Such fear continued shaping consumers’ purchase intentions while also leading them to revise their judgments of product quality. This interpretation of Ettenson and Klein’s findings is consistent with the conceptual model proposed here. In sum, we propose that consumer coping processes in response to retreat emotions are limited to adjusting internal judgments (product quality judgment) and personal behavior (product avoidance), but are unlikely to determine their attempts to influence others (NWOM).



Hypothesis 3: Retreat emotions mediate the positive relationship between animosity beliefs and product avoidance.

Hypothesis 4: Retreat emotions mediate the negative relationship between animosity beliefs and product quality judgment.

METHOD

The hypotheses proposed above were examined using datasets from two culturally distinct countries. The United States is often recognized as the most individualistic society in the world and China is recognized as one of the most collectivist societies in the world (Hofstede, 2001). The United States and China are also the world's two largest economies (World Bank, 2014), and each has its own relevant animosity issue. China has had significant historical conflict with Japan, underscored by, for example, the Nanjing massacre. Further, although the China–Japan conflict has deep historical roots, it has also flared up recently with the dispute over the Senkaku/Diaoyu islands. China–Japan has also been the subject of prior animosity studies (Huang, Phau, & Lin, 2010; Klein et al., 1998), allowing for an appropriate setting to test an extended animosity model.

US consumers' animosity toward Russia has, as far as we know, not been previously examined. Somewhat parallel to the China context, the Cold War may have generated a legacy of animosity while recent events such as the Russian annexation of Crimea, the alleged instigation of further unrest in Eastern Ukraine, and the potential for NATO involvement in a broader conflict has brought future military conflict between the United States and Russia to the forefront. There is also evidence in the press that US consumers have boycotted Russian products, particularly vodka, over the Ukraine conflict as well as in response to Russian legislation involving same sex unions (Aravosis, 2014; Wong, 2013), and at the same time US exports to Russia have also decreased (Davidson, 2014). In addition, and consistent with Riefler and Diamantopoulos's (2007) suggestions, we pre-tested US consumer animosity toward several countries. In comparison with China ($M = 4.67$), Iran ($M = 4.40$), Cuba ($M = 2.84$), and Vietnam ($M = 2.34$), animosity toward Russia ($M = 5.08$, $p < 0.05$) was significantly higher than toward all other countries. Thus the China–Japan and the US–Russia animosity research contexts provide both culturally distinct contexts and relevant international conflicts to empirically test our extended animosity model and its generalizability.

Participants in each country were recruited through an online panel service in which respondents received an email invitation to the web-based survey, introducing it as an independent and completely anonymous academic study. Respondents were provided a small monetary incentive for participating in the survey. A total of 283 usable responses were received in China and 308 usable responses were received in the United States. A summary of the sample demographics is available in Table 1 and it indicates broad representation in terms of gender, age, income, and education.

Measurements

Scales used to measure the constructs in the theoretical model were derived from extant research and have been shown to be psychometrically sound. We sought feedback from independent academics about the face validity and “emotionality” of all constructs and we conducted several pre-tests to evaluate the psychometric soundness of all constructs. The Chinese version was translated, and verified by a professional translation firm. Subsequently, the survey was back-translated and verified via in-depth interviews with three bilingual academics and one Chinese market researcher to determine face validity, clarity, and relevance of all measures in the Chinese context.

Because we conceptualized animosity beliefs as distinct from the emotional response to the international conflict, we needed a measure of each component separately (i.e., beliefs about the international conflict and emotions felt toward the offending nation). In prior research, animosity has often been conceptualized and operationalized as the combination of war and economic animosity (Klein et al., 1998; Leong et al., 2008). This may be appropriate in many, but not all, contexts (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). For example, our pre-test revealed that US consumers' war animosity beliefs toward Russia were high, but economic animosity beliefs were not as strong and more difficult for consumers to assess.¹ Thus to allow for a comparison between the two samples, we chose to focus on war beliefs,² which is also consistent with Riefler and Diamantopoulos's (2007: 107) recommendation to adapt the construct to “the underlying reasons for tensions between the specific countries concerned.” Our measure of *animosity beliefs* included belief statements about the military history and threat between China (the United States) and Japan (Russia).

Agonistic emotions and *retreat emotions* were measured by asking respondents to consider the relevant country (Japan/Russia) and indicate the extent to

**Table 1** Sample Characteristics

Characteristic	China/Japan		US/Russia	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
<i>Gender</i>				
Male	133	47	147	47.7
Female	150	53	161	52.3
<i>Age</i>				
20s	103	36.4	148	48.1
30s	113	39.9	101	32.8
40s	48	17	38	12.3
50s	11	3.9	12	3.9
60s +	8	2.8	9	2.9
<i>Education</i>				
Some high school	7	2.5	4	1.3
High school diploma	24	8.5	34	11
Some college	65	23	138	44.8
Bachelor degree	161	56.9	112	36.4
Graduate degree	26	9.2	20	6.5
<i>Annual household income (¥/\$)</i>				
<¥3000 / <\$15,000	8	2.8	46	14.9
¥3000–5999/\$15,000–29,999	28	9.9	72	23.4
¥6000–8999/\$30,000–44,999	33	11.7	57	18.5
¥9000–11,999/\$45,000–59,999	40	14.1	47	15.3
¥12,000–14,999/\$60,000–74,999	38	13.4	38	12.3
¥15,000–17,999/\$75,000–89,999	47	16.6	16	5.2
¥18,000–21,000/\$90,000–104,999	39	13.8	11	3.6
>¥21,000 / >\$105,000	50	17.7	21	5.8

which they felt the respective emotions. A 4-item scale was used to measure agonistic emotions and a 3-item scale was used to measure retreat emotions based on Laros and Steenkamp's (2005) refined measures of basic emotions in consumer behavior. To examine the differential coping mechanisms induced by consumers' emotions, we included three outcome variables. *Product quality judgment* was measured with a 3-item scale, which has been frequently used in animosity research (Funk et al., 2010; Maher & Mady, 2010; Maher et al., 2010). *Product avoidance* was captured with five items based on Klein et al. (1998). *Negative WOM* was measured using a 3-item scale adapted from Zhang, Feick, and Mittal (2014). Consistent with prior animosity research (Klein et al., 1998; Leong et al., 2008), we control for the effects of *consumer ethnocentrism*, which was measured with five items, adapted from Shimp and Sharma (1987). Thus any effects of the emotions on the outcome variables are beyond the effects captured by consumer ethnocentrism. All items and

their loadings are included in Table 2. Finally, based on past consumer animosity research and to minimize spuriousness of results, respondent demographics were also included in the model as control variables.

Reliability and Validity

We examine the validity and reliability of all study constructs in AMOS 20. Each factor loading is statistically significant and standardized values are above the recommended threshold of 0.70 for all but a few items, which were retained for construct validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Further, the average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct is above 0.50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) and the composite reliability (CR) of each construct is greater than the suggested cutoff value of 0.70 (Bollen & Lennox, 1991), which provides evidence of reliability and convergent validity. Discriminant validity is supported by the Maximum Shared Variance and the Average Shared Variance being less than the AVE for

Table 2 Measurement Model: Construct Measures and Configural Invariance

Construct (scale source)	Loadings	
	China/ Japan	US/ Russia
<i>Animosity war beliefs</i> (adapted from Klein et al., 1998, CR = 0.86/0.86, AVE = 0.61/0.61)		
There are frequent military disputes between Japan (Russia) and China (the United States).	0.75	0.66
Japan (Russia) and China (the United States) are enemies.	0.80	0.71
Japan (Russia) is a threat to China's (the United States') national security.	0.80	0.90
<i>Agonistic emotions</i> (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005, CR = 0.89/0.95, AVE = 0.69/0.81)		
Angry	0.86	0.96
Mad	0.92	0.97
Frustrated	0.58	0.83
Irritated	0.91	0.84
<i>Retreat emotions</i> (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005, CR = 0.89/0.93, AVE = 0.73/0.81)		
Scared	0.76	0.85
Worried	0.90	0.98
Tense	0.89	0.87
<i>Product quality judgment</i> (Klein et al., 1998, CR = 0.93/0.89, AVE = 0.81/0.73)		
Japanese (Russian) products are likely to be carefully produced and have fine workmanship	0.94	0.89
Japanese (Russian) products are likely to have a high degree of technological advancement	0.87	0.78
Japanese (Russian) products are likely to be quite reliable	0.90	0.89
<i>Product avoidance</i> (adapted from Grégoire et al., 2009, CR = 0.97, 0.96, AVE = 0.85/0.82)		
If given the possibility, I would keep as much distance between Japanese (Russian) products and me	0.93	0.94
If it was an option, I would avoid purchasing Japanese (Russian) products	0.94	0.93
I want nothing to do with Japanese (Russian) products	0.88	0.89
If possible, I would choose another product over a Japanese (Russian) product	0.93	0.87
I would spend as little as possible on Japanese (Russian) products	0.92	0.89
<i>Negative word of mouth</i> (Zhang et al., 2014, CR = 0.94/0.95, AVE = 0.85/0.86)		
If a friend asked you for advice about a Japanese (Russian) product, how likely is it that you would say something negative to discourage your friend?		
Certain not to say something negative – Certain to say something negative	0.94	0.88
Very unlikely to tell something negative – Very likely to tell something negative	0.91	0.97
Probably would not tell something negative – Probably would say something negative	0.91	0.94
<i>Consumer ethnocentrism</i> (adapted from Shimp & Sharma, 1987, CR = 0.88/0.88, AVE = 0.59/0.59)		
There is nothing like products from my own country	0.68	0.69
Purchasing foreign products can hurt Chinese (American) business and cause unemployment	0.64	0.68
Even though it may cost me in the long run, I will still support certain products from my own country	0.84	0.78
A real Chinese (American) prefers to buy products from his/her own country	0.92	0.85
Chinese (American) consumers who buy a lot of products from other countries contribute to unemployment in China (the United States)	0.75	0.75

Notes: All items measured on seven-point scales. CR = composite reliability, AVE = average variance extracted.

all constructs (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010), the confidence interval for the phi correlations between pairs of variables not containing 1.0 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), and the φ^2 correlations being less than the respective variance extracted estimates for all pairs of constructs (Fornell &

Larcker, 1981). Construct correlations, validity, and reliability estimates are presented in Table 3.

Measurement Invariance

Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to assess configural and metric invariance of the

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Discriminant Validity

Constructs	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Animosity beliefs	4.70/3.40	1.23/1.22	<i>0.78/0.78</i>	0.50**	0.42**	-0.11	0.45**	0.35**	0.34**
2. Agonistic emotions	4.54/2.77	1.47/1.48	0.48**	<i>0.83/0.90</i>	0.47**	-0.25**	0.62**	0.49**	0.41**
3. Retreat emotions	3.35/2.58	1.45/1.39	0.55**	0.62**	<i>0.85/0.90</i>	-0.25**	0.48**	0.40**	0.40**
4. Product quality judgment	4.49/3.69	1.40/1.05	-0.12*	-0.16**	-0.27**	<i>0.90/0.85</i>	-0.53**	-0.55**	-0.32**
5. Product avoidance	4.09/3.03	1.75/1.49	0.41**	0.43**	0.50**	-0.49**	<i>0.92/0.90</i>	0.72**	0.53**
6. Negative WOM	3.50/2.86	1.85/1.49	0.24**	0.35**	0.36**	-0.39**	0.64**	<i>0.92/0.93</i>	0.38**
7. Consumer ethnocentrism	3.25/2.80	0.93/1.01	0.36**	0.34**	0.36**	-0.13*	0.40**	0.22**	<i>0.77/0.77</i>

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Notes: M = mean, SD = standard deviation, AVE = average variance extracted. The square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) are reported on the diagonal in italics. China/Japan (US/Russia) is presented above (below) the diagonal and before (after) the /.

study constructs in the United States and China (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Configural invariance requires that all factor loadings be significantly different from zero in both countries and the correlations between the factors are significantly below unity in both countries (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). All factor loadings are significant and the fit indices indicate that the proposed measurement model fits the data reasonably well ($\chi^2/df_{(812)} = 2.02$, CFI = 0.95, TLI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.04). Hence support for configural invariance was established (see Table 2).

Metric invariance provides for a stronger test of invariance by introducing the concept of equal metrics or scale intervals across countries (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Full metric invariance is assessed by constraining the factor loadings in the two groups to be equal and comparing this model with one in which the factor loadings were free to be estimated across groups. The results indicate that the two samples are not fully invariant as the constrained model has a significantly higher chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2_{(31)} = 117.8$, $p < 0.05$). However, Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) acknowledge that while full metric invariance may be the ideal, it is often not achieved, particularly in larger, complex models like ours. Instead, it is more reasonable to achieve partial metric invariance. This is evident if at least one item for each construct is invariant (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). A comparison of loadings and critical ratios suggest that only three (one item each for consumer ethnocentrism, agonistic emotions, and NWOM) out of 31 items are metrically variant. Thus the samples achieve partial metric invariance and are deemed adequate for comparison of the structural models.

Common Methods Bias (CMB)

To minimize the threat of CMB, we paid careful attention to the design of the questionnaire (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Particularly, we sequenced the dependent variables first and then the mediators (emotions) and IV (animosity beliefs) were presented afterward in randomized order (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In addition to the procedural remedies, we conducted *ex post* statistical tests to examine the potential effects of CMB. First, we ran an exploratory factor analysis of all observed measures with varimax rotation. In both the Chinese and US groups, all items split into the intended constructs. Further, the factor structure accounted for over 80% cumulative variance in both the US and Chinese groups. In contrast, a forced one-factor solution accounted for only 34% in the United States and 35% in the Chinese sample, indicating that CMB is not a threat to our findings.

In the second and more stringent approach, we controlled for the effects of an unmeasured latent factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In this method, items are allowed to load on their theoretical constructs, as well as on a latent common methods variance factor. We compared the strength of the item loadings and the significance level of the correlations between the study variables in models with and without the latent common methods factor. We observed no differences in the significance level between variables in either the US or Chinese sample, which enhances confidence that CMB does not distort the results.

RESULTS

A core contribution of our model is the separation of animosity beliefs from the emotional response and suggesting that agonistic and retreat emotions mediate the relationship between animosity beliefs and the outcome variables. To test these mediated relationships, we adopt the covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM) approach outlined by MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002). CB-SEM provides a means of accounting for measurement error, allows comparison of nested

Table 4 Results of Alternative Model Comparison

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Full Mediation	865.20/939.86	377/377	—	—	0.93/0.93	0.92/0.91	0.07/0.07
Partial Mediation	857.47/934.98	374/374	$\Delta\chi^2_{(fm,pm)} = 7.72/4.88$	3/3	0.93/0.93	0.92/0.91	0.07/0.07
Model 1	948.93/1026.93	376/376	$\Delta\chi^2_{(pm,m1)} = 91.46*/91.95*$	2/2	0.92/0.91	0.90/0.90	0.07/0.08
Model 2	973.19/1025.87	376/376	$\Delta\chi^2_{(pm,m2)} = 115.72*/90.89*$	2/2	0.91/0.91	0.90/0.90	0.08/0.08
Model 3	908.95/1055.77	376/376	$\Delta\chi^2_{(pm,m3)} = 51.48*/120.79*$	2/2	0.92/0.91	0.91/0.90	0.07/0.08
Model 4	909.86/1061.80	376/376	$\Delta\chi^2_{(pm,m4)} = 52.39*/126.82*$	2/2	0.92/0.91	0.91/0.90	0.07/0.08
Model 5	971.01/1117.93	376/376	$\Delta\chi^2_{(pm,m5)} = 113.53*/182.95*$	2/2	0.91/0.90	0.90/0.89	0.08/0.08
Model 6	925.15/981.15	380/380	$\Delta\chi^2_{(pm,m6)} = 67.68*/46.17*$	6/6	0.92/0.92	0.91/0.91	0.07/0.07
Model 7	1570.36/1874.23	388/388	—	—	0.82/0.80	0.80/0.78	0.10/0.11
Model 8	1263.55/1449.13	384/384	—	—	0.87/0.86	0.85/0.84	0.09/0.10

* $p < 0.01$

Notes:

China/Japan (US/Russia) is presented before (after) the /. CFI=comparative fit index; TLI=Tucker – Lewis index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; FM=full mediation; PM=partial mediation.

Full mediation model: full model with no direct paths from predictor to outcomes.

Partial mediation model: full mediation model plus direct paths from predictors to outcomes.

Model 1: The paths of Hypothesis 1 (animosity beliefs→agonistic emotions→negative word of mouth) were constrained to zero.

Model 2: The paths of Hypothesis 2 (animosity beliefs→agonistic emotions→product avoidance) were constrained to zero.

Model 3: The paths of Hypothesis 3 (animosity beliefs→retreat emotions→product avoidance) were constrained to zero.

Model 4: The paths of Hypothesis 4 (animosity beliefs→retreat emotions→product quality judgment) were constrained to zero.

Model 5: Direct effects model (paths from animosity beliefs to agonistic emotions and retreat emotions removed).

Model 6: Non-mediational model (the paths from agonistic emotions to negative word of mouth, product avoidance, and product judgment, and the paths from retreat emotions to negative word of mouth, product avoidance, and product quality judgment were constrained to zero).

Model 7: Extant animosity model (tests a model where beliefs and emotions are combined to form a single construct of consumer animosity).

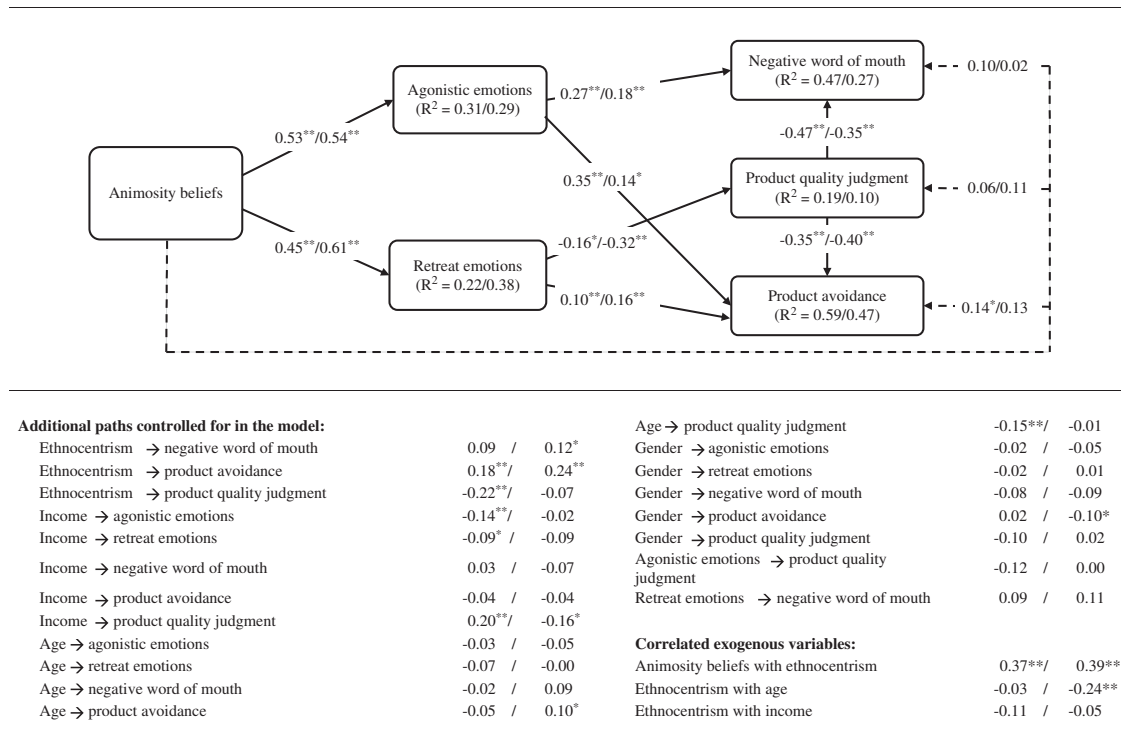
Model 8: Reverse causality model (agonistic emotions+retreat emotions → animosity beliefs → negative word of mouth+product avoidance+product quality judgment).

models for hypothesis testing, and accommodates models with multiple mediators (Brown, 1997).

To test our conceptual framework, we ran a series of nested models and compared model fit, which are presented in Table 4. In the first step, we compared a full mediation model, which did not have direct paths from animosity beliefs to the outcomes, with a partial mediation model in which we add the three direct paths from animosity beliefs to NWOM, product avoidance, and product quality judgment. The data indicated good fit for the full mediation model in both the China/Japan ($\chi^2_{(377)} = 865.20$, $p < 0.01$, CFI=0.93, TLI=0.92, RMSEA=0.07) and the US/Russia ($\chi^2_{(377)} = 939.86$, $p < 0.01$, CFI=0.93, TLI=0.91, RMSEA=0.07) samples. The model fit for the partial mediation model are almost identical in both the China/Japan ($\chi^2_{(374)} = 857.47$, $p < 0.01$, CFI=0.93, TLI=0.92, RMSEA=0.07) and the US/Russia ($\chi^2_{(374)} = 934.98$, $p < 0.01$, CFI=0.93, TLI=0.91, RMSEA=0.07) samples. χ^2 is slightly improved in the partial mediation model, but the difference is non-significant (China/Japan: $\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 7.72$, $p > 0.05$; US/Russia: $\Delta\chi^2_{(3)} = 4.88$, $p > 0.05$). However, the partial mediation model provides a more conservative test of our hypothesized mediated relationships and it is retained for further analysis (Hayes, 2013).

Figure 2 presents a summary of the structural model results. Animosity beliefs are significantly related to agonistic emotions ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.53$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.54$, $p < 0.01$) and retreat emotions ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.45$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.61$, $p < 0.01$). Consistent with expectations, agonistic emotions are significantly related to NWOM ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.27$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.18$, $p < 0.01$) and product avoidance ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.14$, $p < 0.05$), but not with product quality judgment ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = -0.12$, $p > 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.00$, $p < 0.05$). In contrast, retreat emotions are significantly related to product avoidance ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.16$, $p < 0.01$) and product quality judgment ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = -0.32$, $p < 0.01$), but not with NWOM ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.09$, $p > 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.11$, $p > 0.05$). Thus all of the expected paths are significant and provide preliminary support for the mediational hypotheses.

We also compared the strength of the relationships between the China/Japan and US/Russia samples. The critical ratio for difference tests the null hypothesis that the relationship between two pairs of structural weights is the same in the two groups. Of the hypothesized paths, there is only one relationship that is significantly different between the



*p < .05, **p < .01

Notes: β represents standardized path coefficient. China/Japan results are reported before the slash, and US/Russia results are reported after the slash. Hypothesized (non-hypothesized) paths are illustrated by continuous (dashed) lines.

Figure 2 Summary of structural model results.

*p<0.05; **p<0.01.

Notes: β represents standardized path coefficient. China/Japan results are reported before the slash, and US/Russia results are reported after the slash. Hypothesized (non-hypothesized) paths are illustrated by continuous (dashed) lines.

China/Japan and the US/Russia samples. The relationship between agonistic emotions and product avoidance is significantly stronger in the Chinese group compared with the American group ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.35, p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.14, p < 0.05$; $CR = -3.39, p < 0.01$). All other relationships are not significantly different, which indicates cross-cultural generalizability of the framework.

To further verify the importance of each mediator, we tested a series of nested models against the retained partial mediation model through χ^2 tests with the paths of interest constrained (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In Model 1, the path related to Hypothesis 1 was constrained to zero: that is, the link involving animosity beliefs, agonistic emotions, and NWOM were removed from the model. A significant chi-square difference would suggest the constrained path was important and thus provide support for the conceptual model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). We similarly constrained the relevant paths of the other three hypothesized mediated relationships to zero in alternative Models 2, 3,

and 4. Table 4 shows the results of the χ^2 difference tests between the conceptual model and each of the nested models. As expected, all of the chi-square differences were significant for both samples, suggesting our retained partial mediation model best fit our data and further supporting the hypothesized mediated relationships.

In the next step, we corroborated the CB-SEM analysis by examining the unique mediating effect of agonistic and retreat emotions using Preacher and Hayes' (2008) PROCESS Function Model 4 in SPSS. This allows for the testing of each of the proposed mediators (agonistic and retreat emotions) while controlling for the other and provides a means of assessing each mediator's unique incremental contribution to the model. As input, we created composite scales of each latent factor that are weighted based on each item's factor loading. Then, using the PROCESS macro, we calculated bias-corrected bootstrap confidence intervals using 1000 resamples.

The unique indirect effect (UIE) and 95% confidence intervals are presented in Table 5. As predicted

Table 5 Bootstrapped Indirect Effect Estimates

Hypothesized Indirect Effect	Hypothesis	China/Japan			US/Russia		
		Path coefficient	LLCI	ULCI	Path coefficient	LLCI	ULCI
Animosity beliefs→agonistic emotions→negative word of mouth	Hypothesis 1	0.19**	0.10	0.29	0.13**	0.05	0.20
Animosity beliefs→agonistic emotions→product avoidance	Hypothesis 2	0.21**	0.14	0.31	0.10**	0.04	0.17
Animosity beliefs→retreat emotions→product avoidance	Hypothesis 3	0.04*	0.01	0.10	0.09*	0.02	0.18
Animosity beliefs→retreat emotions→product quality judgment	Hypothesis 4	-0.07*	-0.16	-0.01	-0.12**	-0.20	-0.04
Animosity beliefs→agonistic emotions→product quality judgment	—	-0.04	-0.13	0.04	0.00	-0.06	0.06
Animosity beliefs→retreat emotions→negative word of mouth	—	0.04	-0.02	0.11	0.06	-0.03	0.16

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

Notes: Results based on two-tailed tests. All path coefficients reported in standardized form. Bootstrapped confidence intervals calculated using Preacher and Hayes (2008) PROCESS Model 4 and 1000 resamples.

in Hypothesis 1, agonistic emotions mediate the relationship between animosity beliefs and NWOM ($UIE_{China/Japan} = 0.19$, $p < 0.01$; $UIE_{US/Russia} = 0.13$, $p < 0.01$). The relationship between animosity beliefs and product avoidance is mediated by agonistic emotions ($UIE_{China/Japan} = 0.21$, $p < 0.01$; $UIE_{US/Russia} = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$), which supports Hypothesis 2. Retreat emotions mediate the relationship between animosity beliefs and product avoidance ($UIE_{China/Japan} = 0.04$, $p < 0.05$; $UIE_{US/Russia} = 0.09$, $p < 0.05$), in support of Hypothesis 3. Finally, Hypothesis 4 predicted that retreat emotions would mediate the relationship between animosity beliefs and product quality judgment, which is also supported ($UIE_{China/Japan} = -0.07$, $p < 0.05$; $UIE_{US/Russia} = -0.12$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, agonistic emotions do not mediate the animosity beliefs – product quality judgment relationship ($UIE_{China/Japan} = -0.04$, $p > 0.05$; $UIE_{US/Russia} = 0.00$, $p > 0.05$) – and retreat emotions do not mediate the animosity beliefs – NWOM relationship ($UIE_{China/Japan} = 0.04$, $p > 0.05$; $UIE_{US/Russia} = 0.06$, $p > 0.05$). This final mediation analysis, along with the model testing provides compelling evidence that agonistic and retreat emotions serve as unique mediators of animosity beliefs on the various coping strategies.

Rival Model Comparison

As a robustness test, we also tested a series of rival models to rule out alternative explanations. First, cognitive appraisal and emotional response may not be sequentially related, but rather treated as unrelated independent variables. To exclude this possibility, we tested a direct effects model, Model 5, in which animosity beliefs, agonistic emotions, and retreat emotions were unrelated independent variables at the same level and directly impacting the consumer coping processes. The χ^2 difference test

suggests that the partial mediation model fits the data better than the direct effects model in both samples (China/Japan: $\Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 113.53$, $p < 0.01$; US/Russia: $\Delta\chi^2_{(2)} = 182.95$, $p < 0.01$).

Second, although consumers respond to international conflict with negative emotions, these emotions may play a trivial role in influencing the consumption behaviors. To exclude this possibility, we tested a non-mediation model, Model 6, in which the paths from agonistic emotions and retreat emotions to consumer coping processes (NWOM, product avoidance, and product quality judgment) were constrained to zero. The χ^2 difference test suggests that the partial mediation model fits the data better than the non-mediation model in both samples (China/Japan: $\Delta\chi^2_{(6)} = 67.68$, $p < 0.01$; US/Russia: $\Delta\chi^2_{(6)} = 46.17$, $p < 0.01$).

Third, we tested a model consistent with previous consumer animosity literature in which beliefs and emotions are combined to form a single consumer animosity measure. Model 7 estimated the relationship between the combined consumer animosity construct and the proposed outcomes (product avoidance, NWOM, product quality judgments). While the χ^2 difference test is not available because the models are not nested, the overall model fit indices for Model 7 were significantly worse in China/Japan ($\chi^2_{(388)} = 1570.36$, $p < 0.01$, CFI = 0.82, TLI = 0.80, RMSEA = 0.10) and US/Russia ($\chi^2_{(388)} = 1874.23$, $p < 0.01$, CFI = 0.80, TLI = 0.78, RMSEA = 0.11) samples. In addition, the relative fit indices are worse for Model 7 (China/Japan: AIC = 1724.36, BIC = 2005.06, ECVI = 6.12; US/Russia: AIC = 2028.23, BIC = 2045.53, ECVI = 6.61) than in the retained partial mediation model (China/Japan: AIC = 1039.47, BIC = 1371.21, ECVI = 3.69; US/Russia: AIC = 1116.98, BIC = 1456.42, ECVI = 3.64), indicating that the

partial mediation model is the better fitting model. It is also worth noting that when beliefs and both emotions are lumped together, the combined construct is positively related to product avoidance ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.51, p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.30, p < 0.01$) and NWOM ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = 0.40, p < 0.01$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = 0.27, p < 0.01$), and negatively related to product quality judgment ($\beta_{\text{China/Japan}} = -0.16, p < 0.05$; $\beta_{\text{US/Russia}} = -0.15, p < 0.05$). Thus the conflated animosity construct masks the unique and differential effects of the specific emotions.

Fourth, it is possible that rather than cognitive appraisal preceding the emotional response that the causal sequence is reversed with emotions predicting cognitive beliefs (Zajonc, 1980). Model 8 estimated a reverse causal relationship in which agonistic and retreat emotions impact animosity beliefs, which in turn influence NWOM, product avoidance, and product quality judgment. Overall fit indices for the reversed causality model were poor (China/Japan: $\chi^2_{(384)} = 1263.55, p < 0.01, \text{CFI} = 0.87, \text{TLI} = 0.85, \text{RMSEA} = 0.09$, US/Russia: $\chi^2_{(384)} = 1449.13, p < 0.01, \text{CFI} = 0.86, \text{TLI} = 0.84, \text{RMSEA} = 0.10$). Although a direct χ^2 comparison test is not viable since it is not a nested comparison, the relative fit indices for the reversed causality model (Model 8) were also significantly worse (China/Japan: $\text{AIC} = 1475.55, \text{BIC} = 1720.83, \text{ECVI} = 5.06$; US/Russia: $\text{AIC} = 1611.13, \text{BIC} = 1913.27, \text{ECVI} = 5.25$) than the retained partial mediation model (see above). Based on our comparison with rival explanations, we conclude that the partial mediation model best fits our data.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we develop an extended model of consumer animosity that explicitly distinguishes between consumers' cognitive appraisal (animosity beliefs) and the resulting emotional response. We also expand from a valence-based approach to consider the differential effects of agonistic and retreat emotions. This research provides several insights of both theoretical and managerial relevance.

From a theoretical perspective and in line with the evidence in popular press (Bradsher et al., 2012; Tisdall, 2012), this research provides verification that consumers react with more than just anger in response to their animosity beliefs. Through a systematic investigation of these specific emotions, we find that agonistic and retreat emotions drive different behavioral coping processes. Consumer anger prompts the desire to retaliate against the offending nation through a change in personal consumption (i.e., product avoidance) and through NWOM.

However, while retreat emotions similarly affect product avoidance, they do not drive NWOM and are in this sense somewhat more contained than those of agonistic emotions. Retreat emotions did, however, diminish product quality judgment.

One of the key tenets of the animosity model is the proposition that animosity will only affect behavior (willingness to buy), but not product quality judgment (Klein et al., 1998). However, as discussed previously, empirical support for this has been ambiguous with some studies finding no relationship between animosity and product quality judgment (Funk et al., 2010; Klein, 2002; Maher et al., 2010) and some studies finding a significant relationship (Leong et al., 2008; Shoham et al., 2006). Our literature review revealed that the conflation of beliefs and emotions and the failure to account for specific emotions in previous animosity construct may be a potential explanation for these ambiguous findings. Thus our extended consumer animosity model, which considers the unique effects of agonistic and retreat emotions, may provide a better understanding of how consumer animosity affects consumption outcomes.

The model was tested in two culturally distinct markets and we found cross-cultural differences between the two samples on only one of the hypothesized paths. This lends cross-cultural generalizability to our conceptual framework. However, it must be noted that we examined two distinct animosity contexts and direct comparisons may be difficult. US–Russia tensions certainly have a reasonably long history through the Cold War, but it is largely based on a threat, not a realized conflict, and the two countries actually fought on the same side during the World Wars. In contrast, China and Japan have a violent and extended history, perhaps most notably the Nanjing massacre, and the recent threat appears real with the tension surrounding the Senkaku/Diaoyu islands.

Nonetheless, drawing on cultural theory, it has been theorized that emotional responses would differ between individualist and collectivist value orientations. For example, Zourrig et al. (2009) propose that individualistic consumers would be more likely to respond with agonistic emotions whereas collectivist consumers would be more likely to experience retreat emotions. We did not find evidence of such effects in our study, perhaps due to differences in animosity contexts. However, although it would perhaps be challenging to identify comparable animosity contexts, future research may still want to explore unique cross-cultural idiosyncrasies of our extended animosity model.



Managerial Implications

The findings in this study have practical relevance as well. Firms now face more culturally diverse and globally connected markets than ever before (Wan, Luk, & Chow, 2014), and consumer power is increasing in a digitally connected world (Labrecque et al., 2013). In this connected environment, macro-level disputes between countries are inevitable and international brand managers must continually respond to these environmental changes. International brand managers must determine which negative events warrant a strategic response in order to effectively deploy (or not deploy) resources.

Our research has highlighted the need for managers to be aware that more than just anger is important in understanding the emotional responses associated with consumer animosity. This raises the need for managers to track both consumers agonistic and retreat emotions surrounding the event and potentially take preemptive action to diminish the likelihood that these emotions will be redirected towards firms from the offending nation. One important consideration is that the visibility of agonistic and retreat emotions vary. Agonistic emotions drive behaviors that are clearly visible (e.g., public protests) and are thus more easily recognizable by the brand managers. Therefore brand managers may be able to recognize agonistic consumer sentiments and implement a strategic response. However, the downside, of course, is that angry consumers are more likely to try to create a collective, viral effect, by spreading it to more consumers. In contrast, retreat emotions may have more limited reach, but they also have negative consequences in the form of product avoidance. There's also evidence to suggest that avoidance tendencies increase over time whereas revenge behavior (i.e., vocal complaining) decrease over time (Grégoire, Tripp, & Legoux, 2009). However, retreat emotions may be more difficult to recognize for the manager since they are less likely to lead to open protests (either on the streets or on social message boards), which means that an effective response may be more difficult to implement. This suggests that it may be valuable to measure retreat sentiments in firms' regular consumer tracking studies.

The differential impact of agonistic and retreat emotions increases the need for firms to monitor the sources of information that consumers' rely on to construct their perceptions of the world around them. This could involve examining how events are covered in local news coverage and monitoring social media conversations (Back, Küfner, & Egloff, 2010). To aid in such analysis, for example, data analysis software

programs like Nvivo allows users to create a list of keywords such as emotional indicators to analyze large amounts of qualitative data for the prevalence of these words and their connection to other designated key words such as a brand or a country. Third-party companies, such as PR Newswire Media Monitoring (Newswire, 2014), offer services for monitoring web communication around a specific topic (i.e., a brand or a country). Marketers can employ these techniques to determine agonistic and/or retreat sentiments and, subsequently, determine the extent of the event's influence on the purchase of their products.

An often-suggested strategy for firms to mitigate the effects of consumer animosity is to downplay their country of origin in an attempt to decrease the association of the product with the offending nation. While this may be a viable option for some international companies, in many other firms the country of origin is a significant contributor to the firm's identity and not easily diluted (Magnusson, Krishnan, Westjohn, & Zdravkovic, 2014; Magnusson, Westjohn, & Zdravkovic, 2011).

LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

While our findings provide important implications regarding consumer animosity, a couple of limitations should be noted. First, the focus in this study was limited to animosity beliefs driven by military conflict/threat. However, extant research has identified many types of international conflict that could potentially drive consumer responses, such as economic or religious animosity. Future research may want to consider if the emotional response differs based on the source of the animosity.

Similarly, for conceptual clarity, we focused our inquiry on agonistic emotions and fear as a retreat emotion. The emotions literature recognizes several additional negative emotions: sadness, shame, and disgust (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Lazarus, 1991). The literature often suggests that these other negative emotions would behave similarly to fear and be part of a broader retreat emotions category (Roseman, 1991). However, there may also be some unique differences between these emotions that could be uncovered in future research.

The scope of this study was limited to showing that animosity beliefs give rise to different emotional responses, which lead to differences in coping processes. It would also be interesting to better understand what drives differences in emotional responses. Attribution theory provides a preliminary explanation that suggests the way in which consumers interpret the causality of the event affects the



resulting emotional response (Folkes, Koletsky, & Graham, 1987). Thus future research could explore how attributions of causality of events vary between consumers and how this interpretation affects the emotional response (Weiner, 1980). Because animosity beliefs are developed through the influence of several sources of information, an analysis of which information channels (social media, television, newspaper, interactive vs directed) have a greater influence on consumers' perceptions of international disputes and how this differs according to demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender, income) could also be an area of fruitful insights.

Another area of future research would be to identify boundary conditions of the proposed model through the investigation of key moderators. Marketing research has suggested that identity-based constructs, such as national identity, group identity, and ethnic identity play an important role in consumer responses to international events (John & Klein, 2003; Josiassen, 2011; Shimp & Sharma, 1987). National identity serves as an indicator of personal relevance as well as the incorporation of the offended nation into the individual's self-concept. Cognitive-affective research on personal relevance and social identity theory would suggest that although beliefs about the extent of damage, misdeeds, or potential threats associated with an international event will typically prompt negative emotions, the effect of animosity beliefs on the consumers' emotional response may be magnified by the strength of the consumer's national identity (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Investigating identity as a moderator of these relationships can provide insight into strategies for mitigating the negative impact of international disputes.

Much work remains, yet we conclude by reiterating what we consider the most important contributions of our study. By distinguishing between the cognitive

appraisal (animosity beliefs) and the emotional response, and evaluating the different coping processes (behavioral and cognitive outcomes) related to specific emotions, our extended animosity model provides more fine-grained theoretical clarity on the effects of animosity. Specifically, agonistic emotions are strongly related to NWOM and product avoidance, but not product quality judgments. In contrast, retreat emotions are strongly related to product avoidance and product quality judgments, but not NWOM.

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NOTES

¹This is not surprising given US' limited economic dependence on Russia. In contrast, economic animosity beliefs would probably be more relevant in many European countries, which are highly dependent on Russian oil and gas.

²We included a measure for economic animosity beliefs in the survey. Consistent with our pre-test and expectations, economic animosity was relevant in the China–Japan context and the results were consistent if animosity was modeled as a second-order construct incorporating both war and economic beliefs. However, the measure for economic beliefs did not pass standard validity and reliability tests, indicating that US consumers had a difficult time assessing economic animosity beliefs toward Russia.

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