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### The Five Types of Brand Hate: How They Affect Consumer Behavior

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## **The Five Types of Brand Hate: How They Affect Consumer Behavior**

Drawing from Sternberg's (2003) triangular theory of hate, this paper conceptualizes and tests the theory in the branding context. Based on two studies with 712 consumers (study 1= 349; study 2= 363) who mentioned 266 brands they hate, the authors first validate Sternberg's (2003) theory of interpersonal hate relationships in connection with brand relationships. The empirical analyses confirm that brand hate is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of three key emotions: disgust, contempt, and anger. Our research shows there are five types of brand hate, depending on the combination of these emotions, each leading to different behavioral outcomes, including brand switching, private and public complaining, brand retaliation, and willingness to make financial sacrifices to hurt the brand. The paper concludes with a discussion on theoretical and managerial implications and limitations.

**Keywords:** brand hate, brand switching, negative word of mouth, complaining, brand revenge, brand retaliation

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# **The Five Types of Brand Hate: How They Affect Consumer Behavior**

## **1 Introduction**

In the consumer brand relationship literature, “a variety of different perspectives, concepts, models, and various theories have been developed and introduced to understand consumers’ relationships to brands” (Fetscherin & Heinrich, 2015, p. 380). Khan and Lee (2014) state that consumers vary in their feelings toward brands: some have positive (*love*) feelings, some are indifferent, and others have negative feelings (*hate*). Over the last few decades, scholars have devoted considerable theoretical and empirical efforts to studying the positive feelings or emotions consumers have for brands, considering concepts such brand loyalty (Bloemer & Kasper, 1995), brand attachment (Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005; Grisaffe & Nguyen, 2011), brand passion (Albert, Merunka, & Valette-Florence, 2013), brand romance (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011), brand resonance (Keller, 2009), and brand love (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006; Ahuvia, & Bagozzi, 2012).

Despite research in psychology (Ito, Larsen, Smith, & Cacioppo, 1998; Rozin & Royzman, 2001) and neuroscience (Fossati et al., 2003; Zeki & Romaya, 2008) showing that negative emotions have a greater impact on behavior than positive ones, the current marketing literature discusses negative brand relationships infrequently compared to positive brand relationships. Most research on negative brand relationships originates from product and service failures (Richins, 1983) and anti-consumption literature (Cherrier, 2009; Cromie & Ewing, 2009; Johnson, Matear, & Thomson, 2011) such as consumer boycotts and protests (Yuksel & Mryteza, 2009). More recently, the literature has shifted away from product and service failures to exploring negative brand relationships, using concepts such as brand avoidance (Lee, Conroy,

& Motion, 2009; Hogg, Banister, & Stephenson, 2009; Lee, Motion, & Conroy, 2009; Gelbrich, 2010; Liao, Chou, & Lin, 2015; Kavaliauskė & Simanavičiūtė, 2015), brand rejection (Sandikci & Ekici, 2009; Nenycz-Thiel & Romaniuk, 2011), brand opposition (Wolter, Brach, Cronin, & Bonn, 2016), brand revenge (Zourrig, Chebat, & Toffoli, 2009; Grégoire, Laufer, & Tripp, 2010), brand retaliation (Huefner & Hunt 2000; Grégoire & Fisher 2006; Johnson et al. 2011), brand disgust (Alba & Lutz, 2013), brand sabotage (Kähr, et al., 2016), anti-branding (Krishnamurthy and Kucuk 2009), and brand divorce (Sussan, Hall, & Meamber, 2012).

Although these studies shed light on negative consumer brand relationships, they focus on behavioral outcomes (e.g., avoidance, rejection, and sabotage) rather than a psychological analysis of the negative emotions themselves. Recently, a new stream of research is investigating negative consumer emotions such as anger (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003; Johnson et al., 2011), contempt (Park, Eisingerich, & Park, 2013), disgust (Andreassen, 2001), and dislike (Dalli, Romani, & Gistri, 2006; Romani, Sadeh, & Dalli, 2009; Demirbag-Kaplan et al., 2015).

While these studies emphasize the importance of understanding negative emotions, the literature seems fragmented which asks for a comprehensive framework to conceptualize brand hate relationships. Fortunately, Sternberg's theory of hate provides the basis for such a framework since it conceptualizes hate as composed of three emotional components, which in combination may lead to different types of brand hate.

In the psychology literature, there are two schools of thoughts about hate. One argues that hate is a single emotion (Shaver et al., 1987, Fehr & Russel, 1984) and the other school maintains that hate consists of multiple emotional components (Sternberg, 2003). Based on Kucuk's (2016, 2019) argument that a more differentiated view of brand hate provides better insights into this

concept, we apply Sternberg's theory of hate to investigate the different possible types of brand hate and corresponding effects on consumer behaviors.

Against this background, this study provides the following contributions. First, based on the most recent empirical studies on brand hate (Zarantonello et al 2016; Hegner et al. 2017; Kucuk 2018; Kucuk 2019), we assess the extent to which brand hate is a multi-dimensional construct by using Sternberg's (2003) duplex theory of hate. In a second contribution, we find different types of brand hate, just as with interpersonal hate relationships. Third, this paper explores the links among the underlying emotional components of brand hate, type of brand hate and six different consumer behaviors. The fourth contribution is the introduction of a new concept, the willingness to make financial sacrifices to hurt the brand (WFS). We show that WFS is a unique form of consumer behavior compared to other concepts. To do so, we conducted two empirical studies. In study 1, we test Sternberg's (2003) theory of interpersonal hate relationships in the context of brand relationships. The study assesses the extent to which brand hate is a multi-dimensional construct and the different types of brand hate. Study 2 validates the results of study 1 and determines which specific underlying emotional component of brand hate leads to which behavioral responses. The second study also introduces and assesses a new and distinct behavioral outcome variable, the willingness to make financial sacrifices to hurt the brand (WFS).

## **2 Theory of Brand Hate**

### **2.1 The Concept of Brand Hate**

Studies in the psychology literature, from the vantage point of interpersonal relationships, show that interpersonal hate is empirically and conceptually a different construct in comparison to interpersonal disliking (Sternberg 2003). We argue the same could be the case between brand dislike and brand hate where the latter is not only a more intense and stronger emotional response, but also conceptually distinct, similar to what brand love is to brand liking (Rossiter, 2012). The brand hate concept is naturally linked to intense or extreme negative emotions and emotional responses (Preijers, 2016). Kucuk (2016; 2019).

While the psychology literature debates whether hate is a single construct or consists of multiple emotions, Sternberg's (2003) Duplex Theory of Hate argues that hate "has multiple components that can manifest themselves in different ways on different occasions" (p. 306). He identifies three underlying key emotions--disgust, contempt, and anger-- and finds that "there exist seven different types of hate arising from the combination of the three different components" (Sternberg, 2003, p. 113). Table 1 summarizes Sternberg's taxonomy of the seven types of interpersonal hate relationships.

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INSERT TABLE 1 HERE  
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Sternberg's (2003) concept of interpersonal hate can be a springboard to develop different types of brand hate relationships simultaneously while using a single measurement instrument. This study benefits from Sternberg's (2003) work by empirically investigating the link between various types of brand hate and their respective behavioral outcomes.

## **2.2 Brand Hate in the Marketing Literature**

Kucuk's (2008) "Negative Double Jeopardy" paper is the first to discuss the brand hate construct. Kucuk (2008; 2010) finds that the most loved brands attract more anti-brand sites, while less loved brands do not have such hate attraction. Later, Bryson et al. (2013) outline the possible antecedents of brand hate. Later, Hegner et al. (2017) focus on the antecedents and outcomes of brand hate. Zarantonello et al. (2016) are the first to empirically test the multi-dimensionality of brand hate with various negative emotions. They identify two main components (active and passive brand hate) within brand hate and offer the first insights into the possible multi-dimensionality of this construct. Most recently, Kucuk (2019) introduces a multi-layered brand hate model and investigates the link between brand hate and consumer personality traits. We adopt and extend previous findings by following Sternberg's (2003) argument that brand hate is based on three key emotions and manifests itself in different ways and assess also the link between the underlying emotional components of brand hate on various behavioral outcomes. The following sections review the three emotions according to Sternberg's (2003) theory and the underlying hypotheses as applied to brand relationships.

### **2.3 Emotion of Disgust**

Disgust refers to the seeking of physical, emotional, or mental distance. "Distance is sought from a target individual because that individual arouses repulsion and disgust in the person who experiences hate" (Sternberg, 2003, p. 306). When a consumer feels close to a brand, love usually accompanies that feeling. In contrast, when an individual feels averse or distant from a brand, such a feeling may be accompanied by disgust (Park et al., 2013). In this study, distancing or negation of intimacy can be expressed by the feeling of disgust and is considered a primary component of brand hate. This leads to our first hypothesis:

*H1a: Disgust is a component of brand hate.*

## **2.4 Emotion of Contempt**

Commitment involves perceptions of diminution and devaluation through expressions of the feeling of contempt (Sternberg, 2003). Brand haters feel contempt toward a brand, adopting a way of thinking that tends to perpetuate their own feelings of hate (Beck, 1999; Sternberg, 2003). In this study, commitment expressed as the feeling of contempt is considered a primary component of brand hate. It includes a commitment to engage in direct or indirect vengeance behaviors against a brand. We test the following hypothesis:

*H1b: Contempt is a component of brand hate.*

## **2.5 Emotion of Anger**

Passion may express itself as a feeling of intense anger. Sternberg (2003, p. 308) argues that anger “is aimed at eliminating the object of danger.” Passion, in the context of brand hate, refers to the kind of anger that leads one to approach the object of hate with a thirst for vengeance, which can also take the form of brand retaliation (Funches, Markley, & Davis, 2009; Grégoire et al., 2009; 2010) or brand revenge (Johnson et al., 2011). Therefore, we argue that anger is considered a primary component of brand hate and we test this with the following hypothesis:

*H1c: Anger is a component of brand hate.*

## **3 Outcomes of Brand Hate**

Research in psychology finds that different negative emotions motivate unique coping processes and behavioral responses (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984; Wright, 1995). The early work of Hirschman (1970), Day and Landon (1977), and Singh (1988) on service outlines various



responses to unsatisfactory experiences, including voluntary intention to terminate a relationship (Hirschman, 1970), complaining to friends and relatives (i.e., private complaining), public complaining to the company (Day et al., 1977), and actions directed toward the seller (Singh, 1988). We therefore expect similar behavioral responses to brand hate relationships.

The psychology literature classifies two main response strategies: one is the “take flight” strategy or, for brands, avoiding or switching the brand (Dodson, Tybout & Sternthal, 1978). The second strategy is the “fighting” response or the thirst for vengeance. Grégoire et al. (2010) differentiate between indirect and direct fighting strategies. Indirect vengeance can occur either “privately,” in such ways as talking negatively to friends and family about the brand, or more “publicly,” addressing a larger audience (Grégoire et al., 2010). For direct vengeance, Zourrig et al. (2009) identify two types: revenge and retaliation. They believe that “revenge is different from retaliation in terms of rationality, effect, and behavior” (Zourrig et al., 2009, p. 996). Retaliation, they state, relates more to a short-term action while revenge is a state of mind to hurt the brand in the long run. This study combines all the response strategies that various studies discuss separately. In addition, our study introduces a third direct vengeance response, the willingness to make financial sacrifices to hurt the brand (WFS).

Zarantonello et al. (2016) assessed the relationship between brand hate and complaining (mostly to the company), negative word of mouth, protest (e.g., boycotting), and patronage. More recently, Hegner et al. (2017) examined the relationship between brand hate and brand avoidance and negative word of mouth and brand retaliation. In this study, we build on their insights and complement their studies by assessing the relationship between brand hate and brand switching, private and public complaining, brand revenge and WFS. Further, our study introduces new

hypotheses, taking into account the three emotional components of brand hate and how such emotions trigger specific behavioural outcomes.

### **3.1 Brand Switching<sup>1</sup>**

Sternberg (1986, p. 119) argues that intimacy refers to “feelings of closeness, connectedness, and bondedness.” Research suggests that perceived closeness depends on how customers relate, feel and emotionally respond to brands (Fournier, 1998; Monga, 2002; Breivik & Thorbjornsen, 2008; Kucuk 2019). For negation of intimacy or the emotion of disgust, this may lead to the opposite of closeness, which is avoidance by switching to another brand (Grégoire et al., 2009; Park et al., 2013). We posit that brand hate leads to avoidance-oriented coping processes and results in protective actions and a desire to distance oneself from the brand (Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015). Grégoire et al. (2010) refer to this as a “take flight” response strategy. Therefore, we test the following hypothesis:

*H2: Brand hate leads to brand switching.*

### **3.2 Private and Public Complaining**

Baumeister, et al. (2001) illustrate that people are more likely to share negative experiences than equally positive ones. Negative word-of-mouth represents an active coping process that consumers use (Harmeling, Magnusson, & Singh, 2015). In line with current research (Bearden and Oliver, 1985; Fox, 2008) and the most notable classification of consumer complaining

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<sup>1</sup> Some scholars suggest using “the term brand avoidance interchangeably with brand switching” (Lee et al., 2009b, p. 170) but we argue that brand switching is conceptually different from brand avoidance. Although both lead to the same consumer outcome of non-consumption, the first presumes a purchase. It is only in the case of brand switching that a consumer turns into a non-consumer, whereas for brand avoidance this is not always the case. One could simply avoid a brand without ever having purchased it.. In this respect, brand switching is one form of brand avoidance.

behaviors (Day and Landon, 1977; Singh, 1988), we differentiate between two sets of negative word-of-mouth behaviors: one is oriented toward people close to us, such as family or friends, referred to in this paper as private complaining. The other, referred to as public complaining, addresses larger audiences such as government agencies, consumer protection groups and the company itself. The distinction between these two complaining behaviors is important because private complaining “does not typically offer a firm the chance to repair failures and tends to reduce the customer base . . . [whereas public complaining] often allows firms to adjust faulty service offerings and make amends in order to retain customers” (Fox, 2008, p. 24). Consumers who engage in private complaining may want to alert their friends or family to their negative experience with a brand (Singh, 1988), protect them from unjust actions (Funches et al., 2009), or merely vent or express their negative feelings privately. We hypothesize that:

*H3: Brand hate leads to private complaining.*

Public complaining is the “public act of negative word-of-mouth” (Nyer & Gopinath, 2005, p. 948). Grégoire et al. (2010) argue that the difference between private and public complaining is that the latter is mass-oriented or addresses a large audience (Grégoire et al., 2010; Joireman, Grégoire, Devezer, & Tripp, 2013; Bonifield & Cole, 2007; McColl-Kennedy, Patterson, Smith, & Brady, 2009). Like Romani et al. (2012), we argue that brand hate will have a significant influence on public complaining as well and we test the following hypothesis:

*H4: Brand hate leads to public complaining.*

### **3.3 Brand Retaliation and Revenge**

As Grégoire et al. (2010, p. 738) state, consumers “can do more than passively exit a relationship or passively complain.” They can fight back and take direct actions against a brand. According to

Thomson, Whelan, & Johnson (2012), retaliation reflects acute and intentionally destructive behaviors directed toward a brand. The main goal is to get equity or “even” with the brand (Bechwati & Morrin, 2003). Retaliation is based on the equity theory, where the main goal is “to restore equity rather than to harm the brand” (Kähr et al., 2016, p. 27). Anger is a strong source of this behavior (Bonifield & Cole, 2007; McColl-Kennedy et al., 2009; Wetzer, Zeelenberg, & Pieters, 2007; Zourrig et al., 2009) and can lead to direct punishment of the brand (Funches et al., 2009; Grégoire et al., 2009; Wetzer et al., 2007). We test the following hypothesis:

*H5: Brand hate leads to brand retaliation.*

According to Harmeling et al. (2015), revenge behaviors are intended to punish the source of anger (Nesse, 1990). Grégoire et al. (2010) agree that brand revenge constitutes another “fighting” strategy. Like Zourrig et al. (2009, p. 996), we posit that revenge is different from retaliation since revenge is more a state of mind to hurt the brand in the long-term compared to retaliation, which generally reflects an acute, more impulsive, short-term behavior. We test the following hypothesis:

*H6: Brand hate leads to brand revenge.*

### **3.4 Willingness to Make Financial Sacrifices to Hurt the Brand (WFS)**

There is significant evidence in the literature that consumers with positive emotions toward a brand have a “willingness to make financial sacrifices in order to obtain it” (Thomson et al., 2005, p. 77). Brand love positively influences the willingness to pay (WTP) a price premium for a brand (Cameron & James, 1987; Aaker, 1996; Fernandez-Barcala & Gonzalez-Diaz, 2006; Albert and Merunka, 2013). The question then arises as to whether consumers with negative emotions toward a brand are willing to make financial sacrifices to hurt the brand (WFS). The

literature shows that “love and hate are related to each other in a complex manner” (Jin et al., 2017, p. 1) and one could argue the same is the case for WTP and WFS. Further, initial evidence shows that consumers are willing to punish or harm a brand (Sweetin et al., 2013; Kähr et al., 2016). Therefore, we hypothesize that brand hate positively influences the willingness to make financial sacrifices to hurt the brand. Note that this construct is different from brand retaliation or brand revenge for two reasons. First, brand revenge and retaliation depend on the equity theory (Adams & Freedman, 1976), where the main goal is to restore equity (Kähr et al., 2016). In contrast, WFS is based on the interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978), which suggests that if people are willing to sacrifice to do good for a relationship, one can expect the same to apply to doing “harm.” Second, WFS focuses on the monetary sacrifices of the consumer in order to hurt the brand, such as the willingness to pay postage to write the brand complaint letters or the registration and hosting fees for buying an anti-brand website, such as [www.walmartsucks.org](http://www.walmartsucks.org). For that reason, in our study we model brand retaliation or brand revenge not on monetary aspects but more on aspects such as stealing from the brand, intentionally breaking or damaging things from the brand, or intentionally using resources from the brand wastefully. Thus, a valid measure of brand hate should predict consumers’ WFS. We hypothesize:

*H7: Brand hate leads to willingness to make financial sacrifices (WFS)..*

Figure 1 illustrates the research model used in this paper. We model brand hate as a second-order construct with three first-order formative emotional components: disgust, contempt, anger.

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INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE  
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### 3.5 Types of Brand Hate

Sternberg (2003) finds seven types of interpersonal hate relationships arising from the combination of the three emotional components. To further explore this concept as it applies to brands, we hypothesize different types of brand hate (with specific combinations of the three emotions) leading to different behavioral outcomes, as outlined in Figure 1 and Figure 2. On one end of the spectrum is the “take flight” response with brand switching. On the other end is the “take fight” response with its extreme form of behavior being WFS. We hypothesize that both these extremes are based on the single emotion of hate, while brand switching is triggered by disgust alone (*cool hate*) and WFS by anger alone (*hot hate*). We make the following arguments.

*Cool hate* (disgust alone) is characterized by feelings of disgust, where haters want nothing to do with the target group or, in this case, the brand. “As the main feeling is a ‘cool’ one, the reaction may be one of aversion rather than confrontation” (Sternberg, 2003, p. 74). The psychology literature (e.g., Deacon & Olatunji, 2007) shows a relationship between disgust and avoidance-oriented coping, but the marketing literature is silent on this subject. Therefore, we test the following hypothesis:

*H8a: Cool hate leads to brand switching.*

*Hot hate* (anger alone) consists of extreme feelings of anger toward the threat, often without considering any personal consequences. This makes sense, specifically for WFS, where consumers are willing to spend their own monetary resources to hurt the brand. While prior research in marketing examines the relationship between passion and willingness to pay a price

premium (Thomson et al., 2005), there are no studies on the relationship between passion (anger) and the newly proposed WFS. Therefore, we test the following hypothesis:

*H8b: Hot hate leads to willingness to make financial sacrifices (WFS).*

We suggest that a combination of two or three emotional components of hate trigger different types of hate and behavioral outcomes. For indirect vengeance behavior (public or private complaining), we argue that brand hate contains the emotional component of disgust as consumers don't want direct confrontation with the brand but rather seek distance from the brand, making the emotion of disgust a key component of brand hate. Among the three possible types of hate, which include disgust (see Table 1), *simmering hate* (disgust + contempt) appears to be the most suitable type of hate to trigger private complaining. It is characterized by feelings of loathing toward the hated target. Consumers view the target with disgust although there is no passion (anger) to express the hate, merely a simmering of hate. There is no passion or anger in private complaining since individuals do not want to make their discontent public. We hypothesize:

*H8c: Simmering hate leads to private complaining.*

Public complaining is a stronger form of negative word-of-mouth. Public speaking requires a component of passion expressed with the emotion of anger to make one's dissatisfaction or discontent publicly heard. We hypothesize that *burning hate* (disgust + contempt + anger) appears to be the most appropriate type of hate leading to public complaining and we test the following hypothesis:

*H8d: Burning hate leads to public complaining.*

Considering the two remaining direct vengeance behaviors (brand retaliation and brand revenge), we hypothesize that anger is a key emotion in both. Among the different types of hate, we hypothesize that *seething hate* (contempt + anger) is what consumers feel when they engage in brand revenge. Revenge is long-term oriented and therefore needs commitment expressed with the emotion of contempt. Revenge includes feelings of revilement toward the hatred target, which is perceived as a threat and must be fought directly. Commitment and passion expressed through contempt and anger fuel the hatred. Therefore, we test the following hypothesis:

*H8e: Seething hate leads to brand revenge.*

Finally, we hypothesize that brand retaliation is closely related to hot hate, as the impulsive nature of retaliation requires a passionate component. Extensive research in the psychology literature (Diamond, 1977) shows that anger (or fear) triggers aggressive response mechanisms, such as retaliation. We hypothesize:

*H8f: Hot hate leads to brand retaliation.*

Figure 2 illustrates hypotheses H8a–f tested in this paper.

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INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE  
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## **4 Empirical Studies**

### **4.1 Method**

#### **4.1.1 Data Collection and Sample**



The goal of study 1 was to test the applicability of Sternberg's (2003) interpersonal hate theory to brands and to assess whether brand hate is a multi-dimensional construct. The goal of study 2 was to validate the results from study 1 as well as to introduce, explore and test the concept of WFS. To gather anonymous and confidential data the online crowdsourcing platform Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was used. A number of studies support the use of MTurk (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Wang et al., 2013; Barone & Jewell, 2013; Gershoff & Frels, 2015). We posted the surveys on MTurk and participants over 18 years old and living in the United States (U.S.) were able to participate in the studies. Participants were paid \$1.50 if they completed the survey. The first question asked respondents if they had any negative feelings toward a brand. Using a dichotomous scale (yes/no), respondents who checked "yes" were allowed to continue the survey. Each respondent answered questions for only one brand, resulting in 349 respondents for study 1 and 363 respondents for study 2. The samples included consumers from a variety of backgrounds in terms of gender, age, marital status, educational background, ethnicity, and geographical regions, similar to the U.S. population as reported by U.S. CENSUS data (see Appendix A).

#### **4.1.2 Items Used**

The study adapted Sternberg's (2003) interpersonal hate scale to the branding context and used 10 items for measuring the feeling of disgust, 10 items for measuring the feeling of contempt, and 9 items for measuring the feeling of anger. The study adopted items from Romani et al. (2012) to measure brand switching and private complaining. To measure public complaining, the study used a combination of items by Romani et al. (2012) and Thomson et al. (2012). The items to measure brand retaliation and brand revenge are based on Thomson et al.'s (2012) work. In study 2, WFS was added to the questionnaire and measured with a single item. For all items, the

study used a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) and a “don’t know” category.<sup>2</sup> The order of items per construct was randomized to address common method bias. Prior to conducting the survey, we conducted a pre-test with 20 respondents to uncover any misunderstanding in research design.

## **4.2 Results**

### **4.2.1 Brands Studied**

Our unit of analysis is the individual consumer brand relationship. The respondents were free to mention any brand they felt negatively about. In total, 266 different brands were mentioned in the two studies covering several industries. The most cited brands were Apple (15.4%), Walmart (5.1%), Nike (4.5%), Comcast (3.4%), and McDonalds (2.7%). Approximately 70 percent of all brands (186 of 266 brands) were mentioned only once. Figure 3 outlines the brands mentioned at least nine times in both studies.

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INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE  
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Results are consistent with the most recent brand dispersion studies, which suggests a “polarization into brand lovers and haters” (Luo, Raithel, & Wiles, 2013, p. 400), where brands with many lovers also have many haters.

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<sup>2</sup> We used a dual approach to deal with the “don’t know” answers. First, we used “case deletion” for those respondents who had a significant number of “don’t knows.” Only a handful were found in studies 1 and 2. We attribute this low number to the fact that participants were paid only if they completed the survey. Second, for the remaining respondents, we used the missing value analysis procedure of SPSS 22 and multiple imputations (Markov Chain Monte Carlo algorithms). The number of imputed data were very low. For study 1, it was 1.2% (349 respondent x 47 items = 16403 data points with 197 data points missing), and for study 2, it was only 1% (363 respondent x 47 items = 17061 data points with 163 data points missing).

#### 4.2.2 Validity and Reliability Tests

Initially, we reviewed whether we had adequate samples. We obtained a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) of .931 (study 1) and .935 (study 2) and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity with .000 ( $p < .05$ ) for both studies, leading us to conclude we had adequate samples. We then conducted a series of validity and reliability tests for both samples. First, our principle component analysis (with promax rotation, see correlation matrix Table 3a and Table 3b) shows all constructs have eigenvalues greater than 1, explaining 73.68 percent (study 1) and 71.60 percent (study 2) of the variance, respectively. Among the initial 47 items, no item had significant cross-loadings ( $>.50$ ) and one item had a factor loading  $< .50$  in study 1 and two items in study 2. After careful assessment, the one item from study 1 was dropped for further analyses. Appendix B provides a detailed list of the items used and the results of the factor analyses. Second, Cronbach's alpha ( $>.70$ , Nunnally, 1978) and composite reliability ( $>.60$ , Bagozzi & Yi, 1988) exceeded the corresponding thresholds. Third, to assess convergent validity, we calculated the average variance extracted (AVE), which exceed the threshold of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 2 gives corresponding values for Cronbach's alpha, AVE, and CR of study 1 and 2.

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Fourth, to test discriminant validity, AVE values need to be higher than the squared inter-construct correlation estimates (SIC). As Tables 2 and 3 show, all AVE values are higher than the SIC values (Table 3a, b). Considering the correlations between the various outcome variables, they are all lower than .60. Essentially, with the exception of the correlation between brand retaliation and brand revenge (study 1 = .564<sup>\*\*</sup>; study 2 = .559<sup>\*\*</sup>), all the others are less than .500, suggesting different consumer outcomes.

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INSERT TABLE 3a & 3b HERE  
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Fifth, to assess multi-collinearity, we ran a series of regression models on the various constructs to calculate the variance inflation factor (VIF). For study 1 we obtained values between 1.07 and 2.48 and for study 2 values between 1.08 to 2.58, which can be considered unproblematic.

#### **4.2.3 Hypotheses Testing**

Our structural equation models (SEM) lead to an acceptable model fit in study 1 with  $\chi^2=2072.431$ ;  $df = 926$ ;  $p=.00$ ;  $\chi^2/df= 2.238$ ;  $IFI =.921$ ,  $TLI = .912$ ,  $CFI = .921$ ; and  $RMSEA= .060$ . For study 2 we first run a SEM (Model 2A) without WFS as an outcome variable to make the results comparable between study 1 and study 2. We obtain very similar acceptable model fits as with study 1 with  $\chi^2= 2128.835$ ;  $df = 950$ ;  $p=.00$ ;  $\chi^2/df= 2.241$ ;  $IFI =.924$ ,  $TLI =.917$ ,  $CFI =.924$ ; and  $RMSEA= .059$ . Table 4 outlines the significant path coefficients of study 1 and study 2, which support the assumption that brand hate consists of three first order formative emotional components. Although disgust is significant, the path coefficient is negative and warrants further investigation, which will be discussed later in this paper. Table 4 also confirms, with the exception of H2, that all the other hypotheses are accepted. We discuss the non-significance between brand hate and brand switching, which relates to the feeling of disgust, later.

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We tested for the common method bias by using Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012), comparing the chi-square and model fit index difference between a one-factor model and our three-factor models. The chi-square for the one-factor model is 5235.736 (study 1) and 6389.542 (study 2), considerably worse in comparison to our research model with a chi-square of 2072.431 (study 1) and 2128.835 (Model 2A). Moreover, all the model fit indexes are inferior for the one-factor model in comparison to our models, as Table 5 shows:

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The better model fit indexes of our research model support our findings that brand hate is a multi-dimensional secondary construct with three first order formative components consisting of the emotions disgust, contempt and anger. Our results in study 1 confirm the applicability and transferability of Sternberg's (2003) theory of interpersonal hate relationships to brand relationships. We further show that brand hate consists of three key emotions. By using Sternberg's (2003) theory and construct, study 2 (Model 2A-C) we are able to explain around 50 percent of the brand hate construct.

#### **4.2.4 Willingness to Make Financial Sacrifices to Hurt the Brand (WFS)**

Consumer willingness to hurt the brand can indicate the degree of consumer hate. For example, to measure consumer hatred, Johnson et al. (2011, p. 114) included such statements as "I would be willing to expend effort to weaken or destroy this brand" as well as "I would consider breaking the law if it meant hurting this brand". While Kucuk (2019) most recently used the same items, he didn't find consumers to feel comfortable answering these questions. Therefore,

we need another question how to measure how badly consumers are willing to hurt the brand they hate. Instead of asking consumers if they would break the law to hurt the brand, this study asks if they are willing to make a financial sacrifice if it can hurt the brand. To test hypothesis 7 and determine if there is a relationship between brand hate and WFS, we asked respondents “How much would you be willing to pay (\$) to hurt X?” (where X was the brand for which they had negative feelings). To explore this, we first assess the distribution of the dollar values mentioned. Almost half (44%) of respondents are willing to make a financial sacrifice to hurt the brand. For those willing to sacrifice any dollar amount, we obtain a mean value close to \$20 with a standard deviation of approximately \$28, skewness of 1.752 (SD .192), and kurtosis of 2.091 (SD .383). As the skew value is not larger than 2 and the kurtosis is not larger than 7, this suggests there should not be a substantial issue of non-normality distribution. To test our hypothesis, we ran two additional SEMs for study 2, one with WFS as an outcome variable and using the data of all respondents (Model 2B) and another SEM (Model 2C) where we used only the data of the respondents who provided a value for WFS > 0 (=159 respondents). We wanted to determine if the reason we don’t have any bias results in Model 2B is due to the high number of zero answers for WFS. For both models we obtain acceptable model fit indexes with  $\chi^2=2212.443$ ;  $df = 995$ ;  $p=.00$ ;  $\chi^2/df= 2.224$ ; IFI =.922, TLI =.915, CFI =.922; and RMSEA= .058 for Model 2B and  $\chi^2= 1694.193$ ;  $df = 995$ ;  $p=.00$ ;  $\chi^2/df= 1.703$ ; IFI =.896, TLI =.885, and CFI =.894; RMSEA= .067 for Model 2C. We obtained significant positive path coefficients between brand hate and WFS with  $\beta=.48$  (Model 2B) and  $\beta=.47$  (Model 2C) respectively. The models explain between 22 to 23 percent of WFS. Table 4 provides the SEM results for H1 through H7 for the various models, showing we obtain similar and consistent path coefficients between all models.

#### 4.2.5 Alternative Model

To test hypotheses H8a through H8f, we use an alternative model without brand hate as a secondary construct. This allows us to test the direct relationships between the three emotional components (disgust, contempt, anger) of brand hate with the various behavioral outcomes. We ran a SEM for both datasets (studies 1 and 2) where we obtain acceptable model fit indexes and significant path coefficients, as Table 6 shows (Model 1 and Model 2A). We also run it for the two alternative models (Model 2B and 2C) which include WSF as an outcome variable. The alternative models reveal additional findings that merit attention.

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INSERT TABLE 6 HERE  
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First, our hypotheses H8a through H8d were supported. For H8e and H8f, it appears that brand revenge is driven by burning hate and brand retaliation by boiling hate and not, as initially hypothesized, seething hate and hot hate, respectively.

Second, as noted, the feeling of disgust warrants further discussion. Table 4 shows that the path coefficients between disgust and brand hate are significant, but negative. These results confirm that disgust is a significant emotional component of brand hate. However, as Table 6 shows, the feeling of disgust has a mixed effect on behavioral outcomes. On the one hand, it *positively* influences non-vengeance (brand switching) or weak indirect vengeance behavior (private complaining) but on the other hand it *negatively* influences strong indirect (public complaining) or direct vengeance behaviors (brand revenge and brand retaliation). This is presumably why the total effect, as shown in Table 4, is negative. We believe that our results do not contradict Sternberg's (2003) theory as we find that disgust is a significant component. Sternberg's (2003)

theory is silent on whether or not this emotional component can be negative. We argue that, as disgust is the seeking of physical, emotional, or mental distance, when consumers engage in strong direct behavior toward a brand, it is the opposite of distancing oneself. It could well be the main reason why it is negatively significant for those behaviors. By engaging in publicly complaining or direct vengeance behaviors toward the brand, one is not distancing oneself from that brand. In line with Figures 1 and 2, Figure 4 summarizes and visualizes how the three emotional components of brand hate relate to the different types of brand hate and subsequent behavioral outcomes.

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INSERT FIGURE 4 HERE  
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## **5 Discussion and Limitations**

### **5.1 Theoretical discussion**

This paper complements and advances current research on negative brand relationships in several ways. First, it provides a solid theoretical underpinning for the construct of brand hate. By applying Sternberg's (2003) theory of interpersonal hate relationships to brand relationships, we confirm our hypotheses that brand hate is a multi-dimensional construct consisting of three key emotions (H1a: disgust, H1b: contempt, and H1c: anger). We complement existing research by illustrating brand hate as a distinct and unique secondary construct with three first order formative emotional components.

Second, we find that each emotional component or variation therefore makes up a specific type of brand hate, with our findings suggesting there are five different types of brand hate (e.g., cool



hate, hot hate, simmering hate, burning hate and boiling hate). We find that cool hate leads to brand switching, simmering hate to private complaining, burning hate leads to public complaining and brand revenge, boiling hate leads to brand retaliation and hot hate leads to WFS.

Third, this paper presents and tests a new outcome variable: the willingness to make financial sacrifices to hurt the brand (WFS). Our results show WFS as a new, distinctive and different form of consumer behavior compared to other constructs, triggered by the feeling of anger alone and expressed as hot hate.

Fourth, we find that the emotional component of disgust has a mixed effect. It has a positive effect on brand switching (H8a) and private complaining (H8c), but a negative effect on public complaining (H8d), brand revenge (H8e) and brand retaliation (H8f). This finding is intriguing and future research should further examine the role and relevance of the feeling of disgust as it relates to negative brand relationships. The feeling of contempt appears to trigger both indirect and direct vengeance behaviors. Finally, the feeling of anger generally triggers direct vengeance behavior and specifically WFS.

This paper contributes to a better understanding of how the three emotions trigger different types of hate and subsequent behavioral outcomes. Figure 4 summarizes the link among the emotional components of brand hate, the type of brand hate and resulting behavioral outcomes.

## **5.2 Management Implications**

From a managerial point of view, brand hate is troublesome for many companies (Kucuk 2008; Krishnamurthy & Kucuk 2009) because today's consumers can express their negative feelings globally and instantly on the Internet and specifically sharing their feelings on social media (Grégoire, Tripp, & Legoux, 2009; Kucuk, 2019). The increasing number of brand hate websites

or Facebook groups exemplifies this consumer empowerment (Krishnamurthy & Kucuk, 2009; Kucuk, 2014; 2015). Kucuk (2008, p. 211) finds that “brand hate sites directly and indirectly impact consumers’ perceptions of the targeted brand’s identity and image, and consumer purchase decisions.” A brand can “lose numerous existing customers and alienate innumerable potential customers, which can result in millions of dollars of damage to a brand” (Kähr et al., 2016, p. 25). Therefore, it is also important for managers to know not only how to measure brand hate, but especially the underlying emotional component triggering brand hate and how it relates to different behavioral outcomes.

We recommend two main strategies for companies in dealing with brand haters.

First, companies must continually measure and monitor any indirect and direct interactions consumers have with their brand, whether in stores with front-line employees, customer service, the complaint department, as well as online and on social media. Our alternative model reveals insights in that respect. For example, we find that, to study and measure brand switching, one can use the items related to measure disgust, whereas, to study WFS, one can use only the items related to the emotional component of anger. However, if a company wants to evaluate all variations and types of brand hate and different behavior outcomes simultaneously, we recommend using all the items outlined in Appendix B, which give companies a tool to measure and manage different types of brand hate. This allows companies to address the underlying emotions, and having internal and external systems and processes in place to measure such interactions is a crucial first step in managing consumer relationships with their brand.

Depending on the type and severity of a brand hate crisis, there are different communication responses needed, such as come clean, inoculation, polish one’s halo, or rebuttal (Johar, Birk, & Einwiller, 2010). While we were not able to address all these responses in this paper, future

research can investigate what are the best response strategies depending on the type of hate consumers have.

Second, each behavioral outcome is triggered by different types of hate and underlying emotions and needs to be managed accordingly. By using items presented in this paper, companies are able to quickly identify the type of hate leading to corresponding outcomes. As Hegner et al. (2017, p. 18) state “cases which are severe and affect the most loyal customers should be dealt with first and with most care, while other cases should be dealt with later”. Classifying incidences into a matrix of three (non-vengeance, indirect and direct vengeance) x two (low loyalty versus high loyalty) could provide firms with a management tool to prioritize cases, analyze and manage them accordingly. Developing an early detection system for such cases could help to prevent severe negative outcomes. “This is specifically important as research showed that the most loyal consumers could become the most severe haters” if they feel betrayed by the company (Hegner et al., 2017, p. 18). Finally, while no company can satisfy every consumer, it should be able to identify and deal with the most severe situations or cases in order to reduce brand switching (i.e., lost sales), control negative word-of-mouth (i.e., hurt brand image) and direct vengeance behaviors (i.e., physical damage). The ability of companies to understand what triggers brand haters gives them a competitive advantage over other companies.

### **5.3 Limitations and Future Research**

We identify several possible research avenues. First, although we are able to explain between 37 and 48 percent of the construct of brand hate, there is more to this construct. Future research could use a grounded theory approach to further investigate brand hate. Following the same line of argument, one could also test other hate theories (Opatow and McClelland, 2007) and

constructs and compare these results with ours to understand more about brand hate. Second, as Underhill (2012) argues, hate and love are culturally and socially constructed, and future research should assess to what extent our research model and findings can be replicated in other countries. One could also explore the role and importance of culture in brand hate.

Third, Grégoire et al. (2009) show that brand avoidance increases over time, while brand revenge decreases. While Zarantonello et al. (2018) provide useful insights into this subject, it would be interesting to explore that further by looking specifically at the five different types of brand hate and how they evolve over time. Fourth, research in psychology shows personality traits affect negative behavior, such as avoidance or revenge behaviors (McCullough et al., 2001). Most recently, Kucuk (2019, p. 11) finds that “conscientiousness plays a more active role in consumer’s brand hate than other personality features”. However, he adds, “larger personality traits such as the 44-item Big-Five scale, and other alternative personality models ...[should]... test the potential links between Brand Hate and consumer personality”. This warrants further exploration in the context of brand hate. Fifth, while the explained variances of public complaining (51–62%), brand retaliation (33–43%), and brand revenge (68–84%) were high, those for private complaining and brand switching were low. Since switching is a non-vengeance response and private complaining a weak and indirect vengeance, this suggests that such behaviors may be triggered by something other than hate. Future research could explore whether brand dislike (weak emotional response) influences switching and private complaining more in comparison to brand hate (strong emotional response). Another research avenue would be to assess how companies can transform haters into lovers (Rempel & Burris, 2005) and the role of forgiveness in that process (Fetscherin & Sampedro, 2019). We introduced a new construct, willingness to make financial sacrifices, as another way to hurt a brand. As recent research on consumer sabotage has shown, sacrifices can also be non-monetary, as, for example, time and

effort (Kähr et al., 2016). Future research should explore the role and importance of monetary and non-monetary sacrifices in the context of brand hate relationships. Another limitation relates to the single item used to measure WFS. Extensive research abounds on the various methods (revealed preference versus stated preference) and sources of data (market data versus survey data) that indicate willingness to pay (Breidert, Hahsler, & Reutterer, 2006; Wertenbroch & Skiera, 2002), and their corresponding advantages and disadvantages. The same challenges arise for WFS. This study presents a first cut at whether such a concept even exists and future research can investigate different methods and data sources to further explore this construct. Finally, we tried to address the common method bias in the survey design and methodology (e.g., conducting two surveys at different times) and provided statistical remedies (Chang et al., 2010). However, the same source of data (respondents) was used to gather information on dependent and independent variables, which does not fully exclude any remaining common method bias despite our best efforts (Chang et al., 2010).

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Table 1: Seven Types of Interpersonal Hate (Sternberg, 2003, p. 73).

|                | <b>Disgust</b><br><b>(negation of intimacy)</b> | <b>Contempt</b><br><b>(commitment)</b> | <b>Anger</b><br><b>(passion)</b> |
|----------------|---|--|----------------------------------|
| Cool hate      | X   | -                                      | -                                |
| Cold hate      | -   | X                                      |                                  |
| Hot hate       | -   | -                                      | X                                |
| Simmering hate | X   | X                                      | -                                |
| Boiling hate   | X   | -                                      | X                                |
| Seething hate  | -   | X                                      | X                                |
| Burning hate   | X   | X                                      | X                                |

Table 2: Reliability and Validity Tests

|                        | <b>Study 1</b>                             |                          |                           | <b>Study 2</b>                              |                          |                           |
|------------------------|--|--------------------------|---------------------------|---|--------------------------|---------------------------|
|                        | <b>Cronbach's<br/>Alpha<br/>(&gt; .70)</b> | <b>CR<br/>(&gt; .60)</b> | <b>AVE<br/>(&gt; .50)</b> | <b>Cronbach<br/>'s Alpha<br/>(&gt; .70)</b> | <b>CR<br/>(&gt; .60)</b> | <b>AVE<br/>(&gt; .50)</b> |
| 1a. Disgust            | .898                                       | .754                     | .571                      | .907  | .761                     | .580                      |
| 1b. Contempt           | .959                                       | .892                     | .709                      | .957  | .887                     | .702                      |
| 1c. Anger              | .926                                       | .750                     | .570                      | .914  | .782                     | .595                      |
| 2. Brand Switching     | .780                                       | .839                     | .647                      | .790  | .896                     | .713                      |
| 3. Private Complaining | .860                                       | .921                     | .747                      | .887  | .922                     | .749                      |
| 4. Public Complaining  | .806                                       | .872                     | .684                      | .852  | .685                     | .515                      |
| 5. Brand Retaliation   | .932                                       | .914                     | .739                      | .932  | .924                     | .753                      |
| 6. Brand Revenge       | .946                                       | .957                     | .809                      | .943  | .748                     | .564                      |

Table 3a: Correlations Matrix, Study 1.

|                        | <b>1a</b> | <b>1b</b> | <b>1c</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> |
|------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1a. Disgust            | 1         |           |           |          |          |          |          |
| 1b. Contempt           | .462**    |           |           |          |          |          |          |
| 1c. Anger              | .300**    | .468**    |           |          |          |          |          |
| 2. Brand Switching     | .184**    | .088*     | .022      |          |          |          |          |
| 3. Private Complaining | .413**    | .332**    | .197**    | .274**   |          |          |          |
| 4. Public Complaining  | .139**    | .338**    | .396**    | -.060    | .139**   |          |          |
| 5. Brand Retaliation   | .007      | .126**    | .287**    | -.176**  | -.055    | .418**   |          |
| 6. Brand Revenge       | .147**    | .277**    | .407**    | -.110**  | .084*    | .492**   | .564**   |

\*p > .05; \*\*p > .01. Kendall's tau-b correlations (a measure of correlation between ordinal scales)

Table 3b: Correlations Matrix, Study 2.

|                        | <b>1a</b> | <b>1b</b> | <b>1c</b> | <b>2</b> | <b>3</b> | <b>4</b> | <b>5</b> | <b>6</b> |
|------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1a. Disgust            | 1         |           |           |          |          |          |          |          |
| 1b. Contempt           | .285**    |           |           |          |          |          |          |          |
| 1c. Anger              | .472**    | .434**    |           |          |          |          |          |          |
| 2. Brand Switching     | .202**    | -.023     | .085*     |          |          |          |          |          |
| 3. Private Complaining | .379**    | .219**    | .336**    | .255**   |          |          |          |          |
| 4. Public Complaining  | .111**    | .385**    | .250**    | -.006    | .134**   |          |          |          |
| 5. Brand Retaliation   | -.045     | .281**    | .086*     | -.115*   | .051     | .434**   |          |          |
| 6. Brand Revenge       | .132**    | .433**    | .295**    | -.053    | .178**   | .518**   | .559**   |          |
| 7. WFS                 | .156**    | .232**    | .197**    | -.007    | .175**   | .221**   | .213**   | .356**   |

\*p > .05; \*\*p > .01. Kendall's tau-b correlations

Table 4: Hypotheses Testing.

| Hypothesis Path                       | Exp. Sign | Study 1 | Study 2                 |                         |                         | Supported |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------|
|                                       |           | Model 1 | Model 2A <sup>[1]</sup> | Model 2B <sup>[2]</sup> | Model 2C <sup>[3]</sup> |           |
| H1a: Disgust → Brand Hate             | +         | -.16**  | -.18**                  | -.16**                  | -.17**                  | (✓)       |
| H1b: Contempt → Brand Hate            | +         | .28**   | .20**                   | .20**                   | .21**                   | ✓         |
| H1c: Anger → Brand Hate               | +         | .52**   | .64**                   | .63**                   | .71**                   | ✓         |
| Adjusted R <sup>2</sup> of Brand Hate |           | .37     | .48                     | .47                     | .58                     |           |
| H2: Brand Hate → Brand Switching      | +         | .00     | .00                     | .00                     | .00                     | ✗         |
| H3: Brand Hate → Private Complaining  | +         | .16**   | .27**                   | .27**                   | .37**                   | ✓         |
| H4: Brand Hate → Public Complaining   | +         | .72**   | .78**                   | .77**                   | .81**                   | ✓         |
| H5: Brand Hate → Brand Retaliation    | +         | .57**   | .65**                   | .64**                   | .61**                   | ✓         |
| H6: Brand Hate → Brand Revenge        | +         | .83**   | .92**                   | .93**                   | .93**                   | ✓         |
| H7: Brand Hate → WFS                  | +         | n/a     | n/a                     | .48**                   | .47**                   | ✓         |

[1] SEM without WFS as outcome variable

[2] SEM with WFS as outcome variable, all respondents

[3] SEM with WFS as outcome variable, only respondents with WFS &gt; 0

Table 5: Model Fit Indexes

|                    | Study 1               |                             | Study 2                               |                                       |                                       |  |              |
|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--------------|
|                    | Model 1<br>(3-factor) | Harman's Test<br>(1-factor) | Model 2A <sup>[1]</sup><br>(3-factor) | Model 2B <sup>[2]</sup><br>(3-factor) | Model 2C <sup>[3]</sup><br>(3-factor) | Harman's Test<br>(1-factor) <sup>[4]</sup> | Threshold    |
| $\chi^2$           | 2072.431              | 5235.736                    | 2128.835                              | 2212.443                              | 1694.193                              | 6389.542                                   |              |
| $\chi^2/\text{df}$ | 2.238/926             | 5.636/929                   | 2.241/950                             | 2.224/995                             | 1.703/995                             | 6.705/953                                  | $\leq 3.000$ |
| IFI                | .921                  | .705                        | .924                                  | .922                                  | .896                                  | .650                                       | $\geq .900$  |
| TLI                | .912                  | .669                        | .917                                  | .915                                  | .885                                  | .618                                       | $\geq .900$  |
| CFI                | .921                  | .703                        | .924                                  | .922                                  | .894                                  | .648                                       | $\geq .900$  |
| RMSEA              | .060                  | .115                        | .059                                  | .058                                  | .067                                  | .126                                       | $\leq .060$  |

[1] SEM without WFS as outcome variable

[2] SEM with WFS as outcome variable, all respondents

[3] SEM with WFS as outcome variable, only respondents with WFS > 0

[4] One factor model based on data of all respondents.



Table 6: Alternative Model.

|                    |                |            |                                | Study 1      |                         | Study 2                 |                         |
|--------------------|----------------|------------|--------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
|                    |                |            |                                | Model 1      | Model 2A <sup>[1]</sup> | Model 2B <sup>[2]</sup> | Model 2C <sup>[3]</sup> |
| $\chi^2$           |                |            |                                | 2052.546     | 2175.829                | 2277.265                | 1700.157                |
| $\chi^2/\text{df}$ |                |            |                                | 2.233 / 919  | 2.307 / 943             | 2.310 / 986             | 1.724 / 986             |
| IFI                |                |            |                                | .922         | .921                    | .918                    | .894                    |
| TLI                |                |            |                                | .912         | .912                    | .909                    | .882                    |
| CFI                |                |            |                                | .922         | .920                    | .917                    | .892                    |
| RMSEA              |                |            |                                | .060         | .060                    | .060                    | .068                    |
| #                  | Type of hate   | Supported  | Hypothesis                     | Coefficients |                         |                         |                         |
| H8a                | Cool hate      | ✓          | Disgust → Brand Switching      | .25**        | .34**                   | .34**                   | .30**                   |
| H8b                | Hot hate       | ✓          | Anger → WFS                    | n/a          | n/a                     | .34**                   | .29**                   |
| H8c                | Simmering hate | ✓          | Disgust → Private Complaining  | .43**        | .38**                   | .38**                   | .37**                   |
|                    |                | ✓          | Contempt → Private Complaining | .26**        | .24**                   | .23**                   | .24**                   |
| H8d                | Burning hate   | ✓          | Disgust → Public Complaining   | -.18**       | -.17**                  | -.17**                  | -.25**                  |
|                    |                | ✓          | Contempt → Public Complaining  | .39**        | .18**                   | .18**                   | .16**                   |
|                    |                | ✓          | Anger → Public Complaining     | .38**        | .56**                   | .56**                   | .63**                   |
| H8e                | Seething hate  | additional | Disgust → Brand Revenge        | -.10*        | -.20**                  | -.20**                  | -.18**                  |
|                    |                | ✓          | Contempt → Brand Revenge       | .14**        | .18**                   | .17**                   | .18**                   |
|                    |                | ✓          | Anger → Brand Revenge          | .52**        | .64**                   | .65**                   | .70**                   |
| H8f                | Hot hate       | additional | Disgust → Brand Retaliation    | -.19**       | -.28**                  | -.28**                  | -.28**                  |
|                    |                | ✓          | Anger → Brand Retaliation      | .33**        | .52**                   | .52**                   | .57**                   |

[1] SEM without WFS as outcome variable

[2] SEM with WFS as outcome variable, all respondents

[3] SEM with WFS as outcome variable, only respondents with WFS &gt; 0

Figure 1: Overall Research Model.

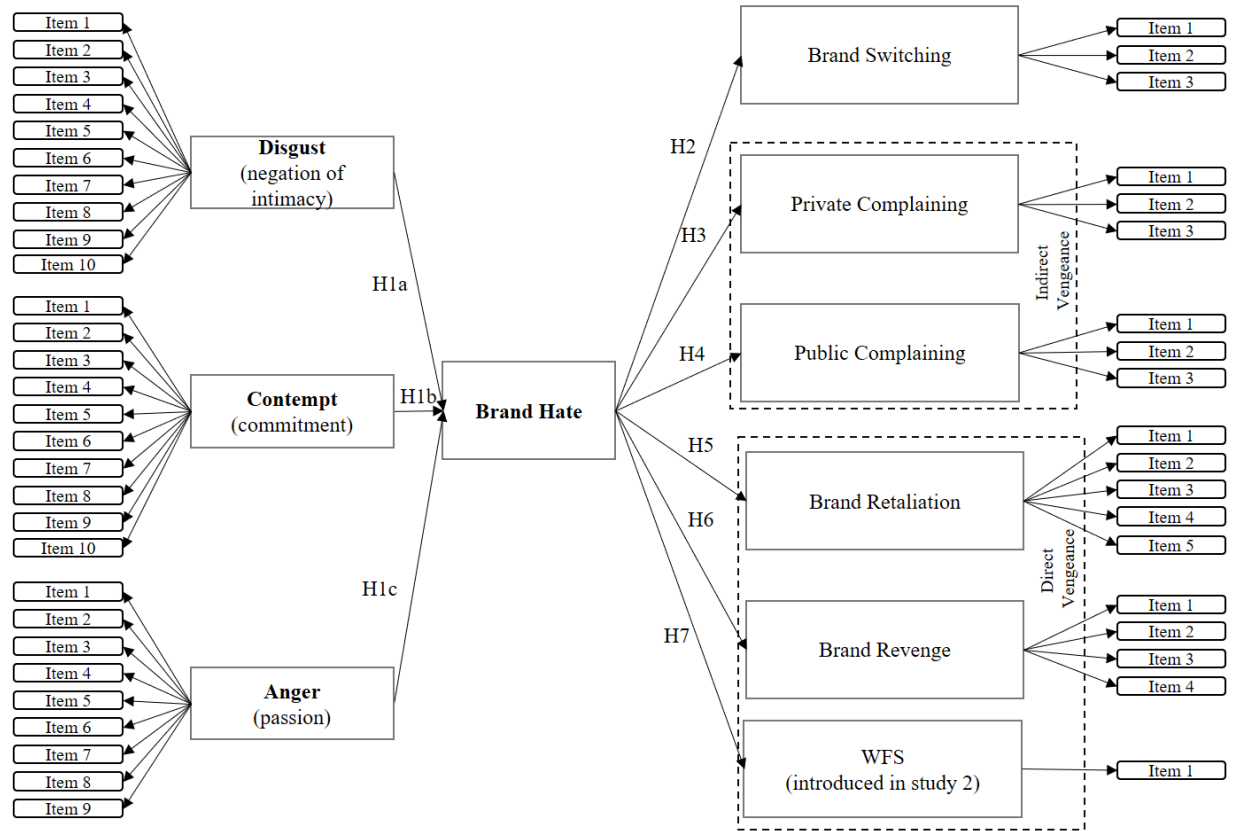


Figure 2: Hypotheses Emotions, Type of Brand Hate and Outcomes.

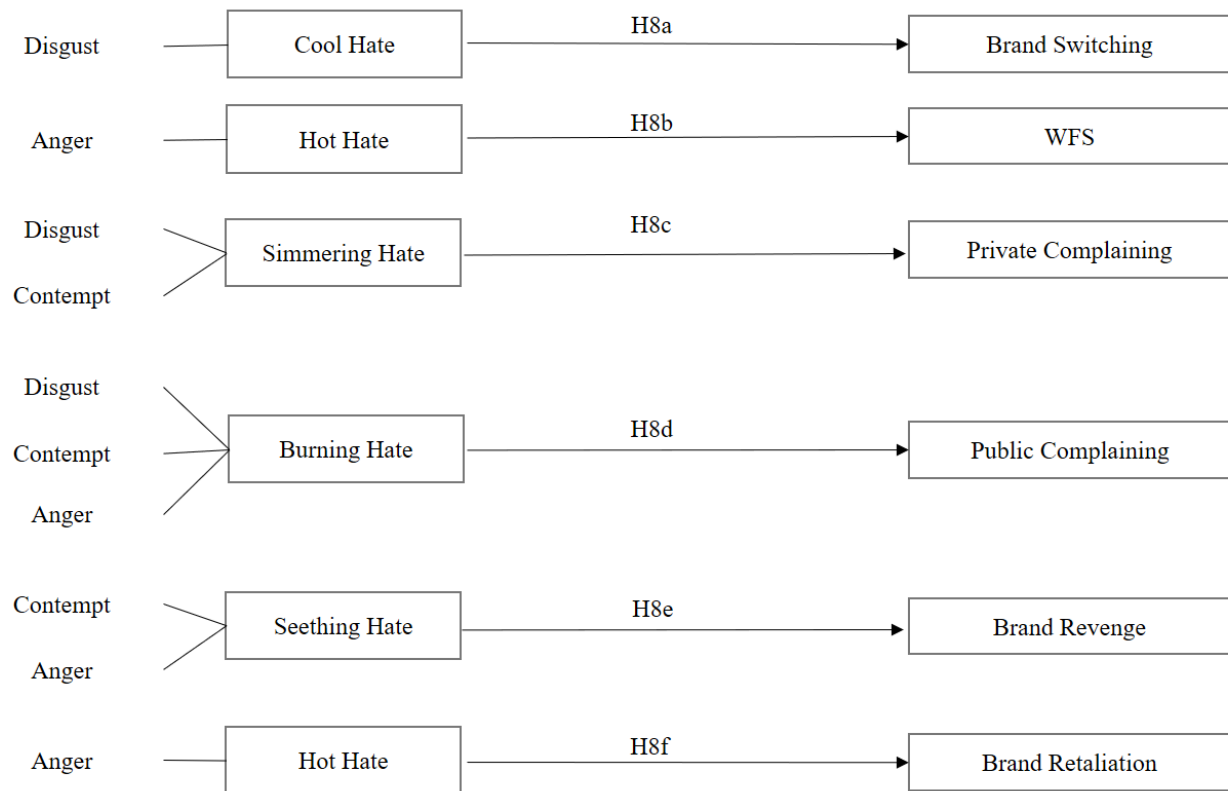


Figure 3: Brands Mentioned (at Least Nine Times).

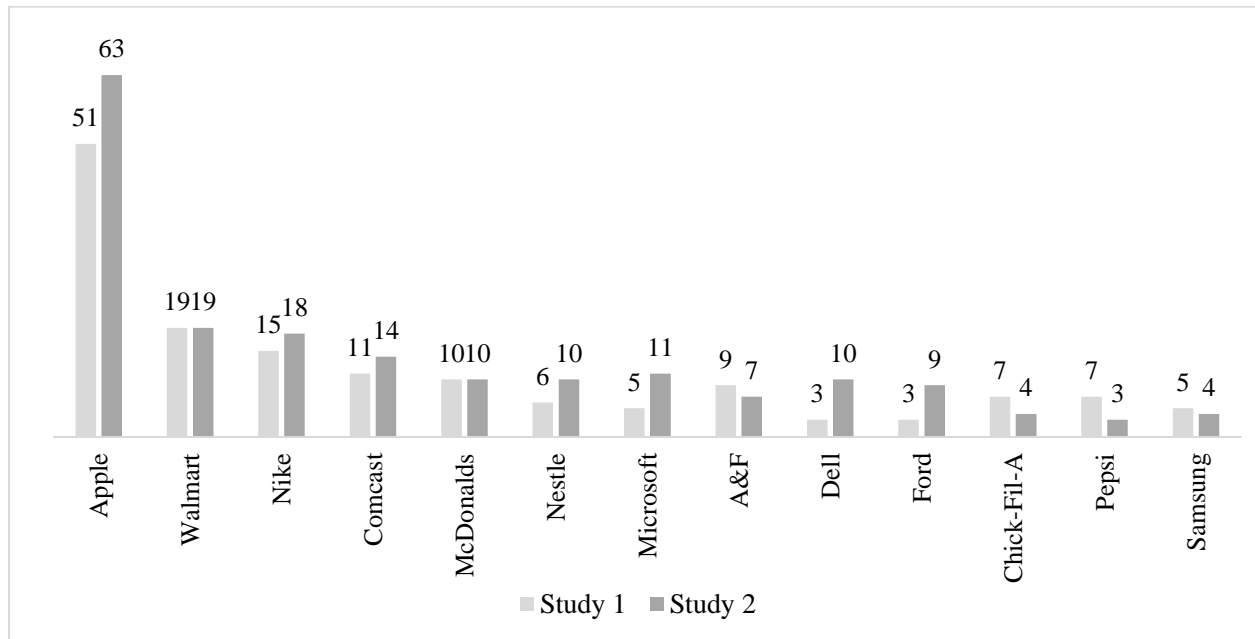


Figure 4: Importance of Brand Hate Components and Outcomes.

