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MASTER'S THESIS

CONSUMER ANIMOSITY AND FOREIGN PRODUCT PURCHASE: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION IN SLOVENIA

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AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Slovenia has undergone crucial economic, political and social changes in the past two decades following its independence. One of the results of Slovenia's relatively new market economy is abundant access to foreign products and services. Faced with a wide selection of different commodities, consumers may rely on various product information cues to assist them in their purchasing decisions. One of them is country of origin (COO) which is defined as "information pertaining to where a product is made" (Zhang, 1996, p. 51). According to Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999, p. 524), country of origin may evoke different responses in consumers. More specifically, it may: (1) signal product quality to consumers (cognitive dimension), (2) trigger pleasant or unpleasant emotions (affective dimension) or (3) evoke social or personal norms (normative dimension). Indeed, consumers' purchase decisions are not solely the result of rational information processing, but are often led by feelings, emotions and norms.

Consumers may hold positive or negative sentiments toward the domestic and foreign countries, and such attitudes further predict foreign purchase behavior. **Consumer animosity** describes *negative attitudes toward a specific foreign country* and can be defined as "remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events" (Klein, Ettenson & Morris, 1998, p. 90). Consumers who harbor feelings of animosity are not necessarily opposed to all imported products. Rather than that, they eschew products only from the offending foreign entity. On the other hand, **consumer ethnocentrism**, a construct that describes *positive attitudes toward the domestic country*, questions the appropriateness and morality of purchasing foreign-made products. Ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing imported products is unacceptable because it harms the domestic economy, causes unemployment and is purely unpatriotic (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). Consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity are thus conceptually distinct, although they are to some extent related, insofar as both constructs explain why consumers may be disinclined to purchase foreign products.

The main emphasis of the present study is placed on the affective and normative dimensions of the country-of-origin effect. More specifically, the majority of our work is devoted to the consumer animosity phenomenon which includes both dimensions. Thus, the main **research problem** *is to understand and explain the reasons and motives that lead Slovenian consumers to intentionally avoid purchasing products and services from identified animosity targets.*

Whereas consumer animosity explains why consumers deliberately eschew products from a foreign country, **consumer affinity** explains the opposite, i.e., why consumers are drawn to purchasing products from a favored foreign country. Part of the qualitative research in the present thesis is devoted to understanding this favorable country-specific attitude. Consumer affinity appeared in the marketing literature only recently and describes *positive attitudes toward a specific foreign country*. Oberecker, Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2008, p. 26)

define the construct as "a feeling of liking, sympathy, and even attachment toward a specific foreign country".

The **purpose** of this Master's thesis is to examine consumer animosity, its relationship to consumer ethnocentrism and its impact on quality judgment and purchase of foreign products. Additionally, our purpose is to develop a deeper understanding of the consumer animosity construct in Slovenia. It is of particular importance to identify the most frequent animosity targets and the underlying reasons for such negative sentiments among the Slovenian consumers. Based on our findings, we will provide concrete managerial recommendations. More specifically, our **objectives** are as follows:

1. To provide a critical literature overview of consumer animosity.
2. To discover target countries and reasons for animosity among Slovenian consumers.
3. To develop a country-specific scale for measuring consumer animosity in Slovenia.
4. To identify the demographic characteristics of consumers who are inclined toward consumer animosity.
5. To examine the effect of consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on the judgment of foreign products and services.
6. To test whether consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism influence Slovenian consumers' willingness to buy products and services originating from the animosity country.
7. To determine the practical implications for marketing and international business managers.

Whereas the main focus of the thesis is consumer animosity, our study also concentrates on the intertwinement of different tendencies connected with country of origin and their effect on foreign purchase behavior. More specifically, we devote some attention to examining consumer ethnocentrism and consumer affinity since they may enable us to gain a more profound understanding of consumer animosity and its consequences.

In the **first chapter**, we provide a detailed *literature review* of the constructs studied. We begin with a brief overview of country-of-origin literature and summarize the positive and negative attitudes one might harbor toward the domestic or foreign countries. We then focus our attention on consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and consumer affinity.

The **second chapter** is devoted to *qualitative research* of the previously mentioned constructs; exploratory research enables us to gain a deeper understanding of the issues studied. We start with two country-specific attitudes, consumer affinity and consumer animosity which, to our knowledge, have not yet been investigated in Slovenia. We first focus on identifying the target entities and reasons for favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward the selected countries. Furthermore, we investigate the effects of interviewees' attitudes on foreign purchase behavior. Moreover, the qualitative research of consumer animosity enables us to create a measurement scale designed specifically for the Slovenian setting. We conclude with a brief qualitative analysis of consumer ethnocentrism. Although this construct has

already been researched in the Slovenian context, we include it in our study because it is related to consumer animosity.

The **third chapter** deals with *quantitative research* of consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. Based on extant literature and results of the qualitative analysis, we present the conceptual model and research hypotheses. We then describe the methodological aspects of the research and proceed with a statistical analysis of the gathered data.

A detailed *interpretation of the findings* is discussed in the **fourth chapter**, in which we also provide concrete *managerial implications*, i.e., suggestions for foreign firms on how to mitigate the negative consequences of consumer animosity on the success of their business operations. Finally, we conclude with the *contributions* and *limitations* of our Master's thesis and suggest *avenues for future research*.

The Master's thesis begins with an **examination of secondary data**, in which we review the existing literature in the field of consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and consumer affinity. By summarizing and comparing the main findings of previous studies, we provide a detailed insight into the studied constructs. We continue with two methods of **primary data collection**. First, we conduct **semi-structured in-depth interviews** and carry out content analysis of the gathered data in a two-stage approach which consists of a within-case analysis of each interview and a cross-case analysis between interviews.

The findings of the qualitative research are additionally used for the preparation of a **structured online questionnaire** which is the second method of primary data collection. The quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire are statistically analyzed using the PASW[1] for Windows (version 18) software package for quantitative data analyses. The statistical tests we use encompass descriptive statistics for presenting the characteristics of the sample, reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha and exploratory factor analysis, whereas the hypotheses are tested using independent t-tests, Pearson's correlation coefficient, analysis of variance (ANOVA), simple linear regression, multiple linear regression and exploratory factor analysis.

1 LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, we present a review of existing literature and provide a theoretical framework for deeper understanding of consumer animosity. We begin with a general overview of country-of-origin literature and continue with a more detailed description of the role consumers' attitudes toward the domestic and foreign countries may play in their purchase behavior. The next three sections cover consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity and consumer affinity which are presented in chronological order as they appeared in the international marketing literature. We begin with the oldest concept – consumer

[1] The acronym PASW stands for Predictive Analytics Software.

ethnocentrism – to which a large body of research has been devoted. Next, we turn our attention to consumer animosity, the focal topic of our Master's thesis. We conclude the chapter with the description of consumer affinity which has been introduced into the marketing literature only recently. These constructs are also further examined in the empirical part of our research.

1.1 Country-of-origin literature

Faced with a wide range of products originating from different countries, consumers may find it difficult, complicated and costly to evaluate the quality of foreign products accurately. Since sellers have more information about the products than buyers (asymmetric information) the origin of products may help buyers to solve the adverse selection problem (Jiménez & San Martín, 2010, pp. 35–36). In such an instance, the product's country of origin, typically expressed with the "made in _____" label, is an extrinsic cue and functions in a similar manner as price, brand name or warranty (Peterson & Jolibert, 1995, p. 884). Extrinsic cues are especially important when intrinsic cues (e.g., product design and performance) are unavailable or difficult to assess. Country-of-origin information therefore communicates quality and value, and affects consumers' purchase behavior (Vida & Reardon, 2008, p. 35). Product-country images, on the basis of which consumers may infer judgments of product quality, include beliefs about a certain country's products and the general characteristics of the country, such as its economy, workforce and culture (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 537).

However, country of origin is not just a *cognitive* cue for product quality. It can also be associated with emotions, identity, pride, autobiographical memories, etc. (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 523). Country of origin has therefore been found to have three dimensions, i.e., the cognitive, affective and normative aspects. This framework was originally developed by Obermiller and Spangenberg (1989, p. 456) and was later elaborated by Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) as can be seen in Table 1.

The "made in _____" label may also trigger an *affective* process. This dimension of country of origin suggests that countries may evoke strong emotional connotations which can be based on consumers' direct or indirect experiences with the foreign country. These connotations may in turn influence consumers' product and brand attitudes irrespective of the perceived quality, thus bypassing the purely cognitive evaluation. This means that consumers may hold positive beliefs on product attributes, yet still *respond negatively* to the country of origin. For example, Americans with Arab roots may positively evaluate the quality and craftsmanship of Israeli precision instruments but at the same time have an overall strong negative reaction (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1989, p. 455; Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 526). Sometimes consumers may also have strong *positive reactions* on country-of-origin information and such positive affective responses may influence consumers' purchase decisions. The qualitative research of Oberecker et al. (2008, p. 36) found that affinity feelings toward foreign countries translated into interviewees' favorable product perceptions,

especially in the food product category. Goldberg and Baumgartner (2002, pp. 901, 905) also investigated country of origin from an affective point of view and found that Thai teenagers who admire the USA and consider the American lifestyle to be attractive are more likely to purchase American cigarettes.

Table 1: Cognitive, affective and normative mechanisms for country-of-origin effects

Mechanism	Description	Major findings
Cognitive	Country of origin is a cue for product quality	Country of origin is used as a "signal" for overall product quality and quality attributes, such as reliability and durability (Li & Wyer, 1994; Steenkamp, 1989).
Affective	Country of origin has a symbolic and emotional value to consumers	Country of origin is an image attribute that links the product to symbolic and emotional benefits, including social status and national pride (Askegaard & Ger, 1998; Batra et al., 2000).
Normative	Consumers hold social and personal norms related to country of origin	Purchasing domestic products may be regarded as a "right way of conduct", because it supports the domestic economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). By the same token, consumers may refrain from buying goods from countries with objectionable activities or regimes (Smith, 1990; Klein et al., 1998).

Source: P.W.J. Verlegh & J-B.E.M. Steenkamp,
A review and meta-analysis of country-of-origin research, 1999, p. 524.

Finally, the country-of-origin effect consists of *normative* processes whereby consumers hold social and personal norms related to country of origin. These norms can be directed either to the norm to refrain from purchasing products from a certain foreign country or to the norm to buy domestic (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 527). An important motivation to buy domestic products is captured in the consumer ethnocentrism construct which specifically elicits the normative aspect by questioning the morality of buying foreign-made products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280).

It is important to note that cognitive, affective and normative processes are interdependent and constantly interacting, thus the boundaries between them are not straightforward (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, pp. 524, 527). For instance, consumer animosity consists of both the normative and affective aspects of the country-of-origin effect. It encompasses an affective dimension because it triggers strong negative responses such as anger due to military, political or economic acts of the offending country which "a consumer finds both grievous and difficult to forgive" (Klein et al., 1998, p. 90). On the other hand, it also contains a normative dimension because purchasing a country's products is a way of supporting its economy or (political) regime which can be seen as immoral or wrong. Similarly, consumer ethnocentrism includes all three aspects of the country-of-origin effect, but the normative aspect is the strongest and most prevalent. Accordingly, Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999, p. 524) placed both aforementioned constructs into the normative dimension of the country-of-origin effect, which can be seen in Table 1.

1.1.1 Home-country bias

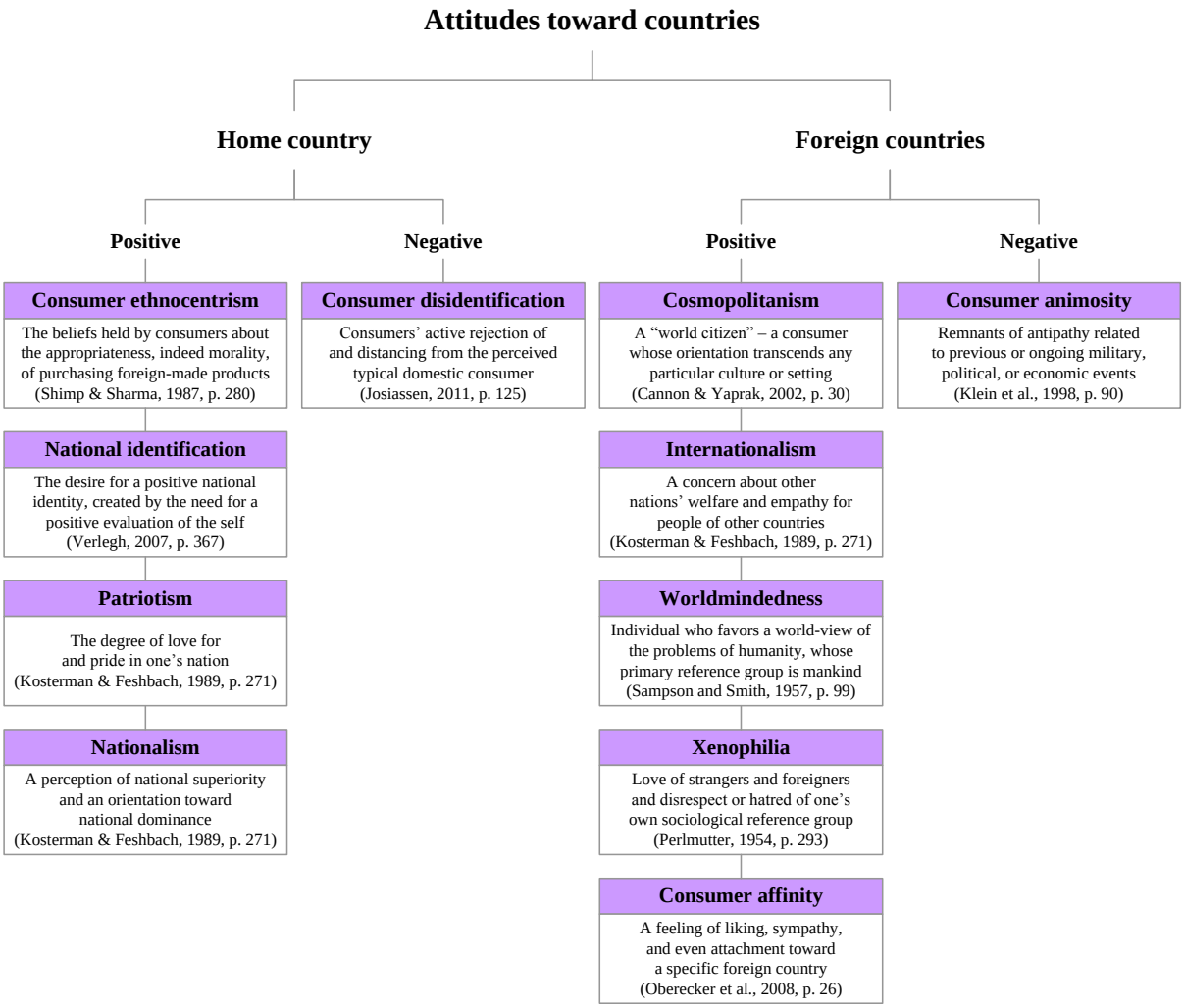
In this section, we intend to show that economic reasons (e.g., price, reliability and warranty) are not the sole factors consumers rely upon when making their purchase decisions. Attitudes, feelings and emotions toward the home and foreign countries are an important motive when choosing between domestic and foreign goods or services. A systematic overview of all the subsequently described constructs is presented in Figure 1.

We first focus our attention on positive attitudes toward one's home country which result in preference for domestic goods. Verlegh (2007) refers to this phenomenon as *home-country bias* which may be based on: (1) **consumers' ethnocentric tendencies** which reflect their concerns to protect the domestic economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987) or (2) **national identification** which reflects the desire for a positive national identity and is rooted in the consumers' need for self-enhancement (Verlegh, 2007, p. 370). Consumer ethnocentrism and national identification are two different, yet complementary constructs. While the former primarily captures economic aspects of home-country bias, the latter is of socio-psychological nature. They complement each other in the sense that they both help to explain consumers' evaluations and purchase intentions toward domestic and foreign products (Verlegh, 2007, pp. 362, 364, 367, 370).

Patriotism and nationalism likewise represent positive attitudes toward one's home country. **Patriotism** is associated with a feeling "of love for and pride in one's nation", whereas **nationalism** refers to a feeling of "national superiority and an orientation toward national dominance" (Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989, p. 271). Patriotism was found to directly affect domestic consumption, not because consumers would feel obliged to buy domestic, but rather because they are attached to their home country, its people and national symbols (Vida & Reardon, 2008, pp. 39–40). Furthermore, Han (1988, p. 30) found that patriotism not only results in the preference for domestic products, but, in some cases, also in the tendency to rate foreign products less favorably. Nationalism, apart from preferences for the home country, also encompasses negative attitudes toward foreign nations. Frietsch, Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos (2010, pp. 4, 6) thus posited that nationalism will result in a home-country bias and avoidance of foreign products, however they found no empirical support for their hypotheses. The relationship between the impact of nationalism and its effect on domestic/foreign purchase behavior is still inadequately researched in the marketing literature.

Negative attitudes toward one's home country have received attention in the international marketing literature only recently. Josiassen (2011, pp. 125–126) used the term **consumer disidentification** to describe consumers' repulsion toward their domestic country which results in the negative home-country bias. Consumers with high levels of consumer disidentification perceive themselves as different from the majority group and find it difficult to identify with the typical domestic consumer.

Figure 1: Attitudes toward domestic and foreign countries



1.1.2 Foreign-country bias

Positive attitudes toward foreign countries may induce consumers to prefer foreign over domestic products. These attitudes may be of general nature or country-specific. We first devote our attention to four constructs that describe *general* positive attitudes toward foreign countries: cosmopolitanism, internationalism, worldmindedness and xenophilia. We then describe two *country-specific* attitudes: consumer affinity and consumer animosity.

Cosmopolitanism is an attitude which may help to explain why consumers prefer to buy foreign products. According to Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2009, pp. 407, 414–415), the construct can be conceptualized through three dimensions. Cosmopolitan consumers are open-minded individuals (e.g., prepared to explore other countries and travel), appreciate diversity (e.g., try products and services from a variety of countries) and their consumption orientation transcends any particular culture, locality or community.

The construct of **internationalism** reflects empathy for the people of other countries. Internationalists are willing to expend resources to assist other nations and focus on

international sharing and welfare (Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989, pp. 271–272). In addition, Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller and Melewar (2001, pp. 163, 169) argue that internationalists are more concerned for the wellbeing of the Third World countries than of the developed economies and are more likely to buy foreign products in order to support international welfare and people from other countries.

General positive attitudes toward foreign countries are also captured in the construct of **worldmindedness** which describes people who favor a worldview on problems and whose primary reference group is mankind rather than a specific nation (Sampson and Smith, 1957, p. 99). These people are likely to be concerned with global welfare, e.g., ecology and world environment, poverty in emerging countries and human and animal rights. World-minded consumers are genuinely open and interested in other ideas and products and are therefore more willing to try out and experiment with products from other cultures. As a result, they have a more positive attitude toward foreign products and are more inclined to purchase them (Douglas & Nijssen, 2011, p. 15).

Finally, **xenophilia** describes one's affection toward foreigners which can be accompanied by disrespect and contempt toward one's in-group (Perlmutter, 1954, p. 293). Kesić, Piri Rajh and Vlašić (2006) found a positive influence of xenophilia on consumers' willingness to buy foreign products. To the best of our knowledge, no other empirical research measured the influence of xenophilia on purchase behavior.

Besides having attitudes toward foreign countries in general, consumers may also harbor more country-specific feelings. **Consumer affinity** captures positive feelings toward a particular foreign country and may result in consumers' preference for buying products from that country (Oberecker et al., 2008). **Consumer animosity**, on the other hand, reflects negative feelings toward a specific foreign country and may result in the avoidance or even boycotting of products and services from the target country (Klein et al., 1998).

1.2 Consumer ethnocentrism

Consumer ethnocentrism was introduced into the marketing literature by Shimp and Sharma (1987, p. 280) and is defined as "the beliefs held by […] consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign made products". Ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing of foreign products is wrong as it hurts domestic economy, contributes to unemployment and is unpatriotic. In the past 25 years, the concept of consumer ethnocentrism has been widely researched in various settings. Consumers' ethnocentric tendencies are measured with the CETSCALE, which has been internationally validated by numerous authors (e.g., Hult, Keillor & Lafferty, 1999; Luque-Martinez, Ibanez-Zapata & del Barrio-Garcia, 2000; Netemeyer, Durvasula & Lichtenstein, 1991). The original scale consists of 17 items; however, shortened versions of the CETSCALE have been widely applied in research (e.g., Balabanis et al., 2001; Verlegh, 2007; Vida & Maher Pirc, 2006).

There is a plethora of research dedicated to investigating antecedents, mediators, moderators and consequences of consumer ethnocentrism (for an exhaustive review, see Shankarmahesh, 2006). Figure 2 shows there are four broad categories of consumer ethnocentrism antecedents:

- socio-psychological (e.g., Anderson & Cunningham, 1972; Balabanis et al., 2001; Caruana & Magri, 1996; Han, 1988);
- economic (e.g., Durvasula, Andrews & Netemeyer, 1997; Smyczek & Glowik, 2011);
- political (e.g., Good & Huddleston, 1995);
- demographic (e.g., Bruning, 1997; Josiassen, Assaf & Karpen, 2011; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Sharma, Shimp & Shin, 1995).

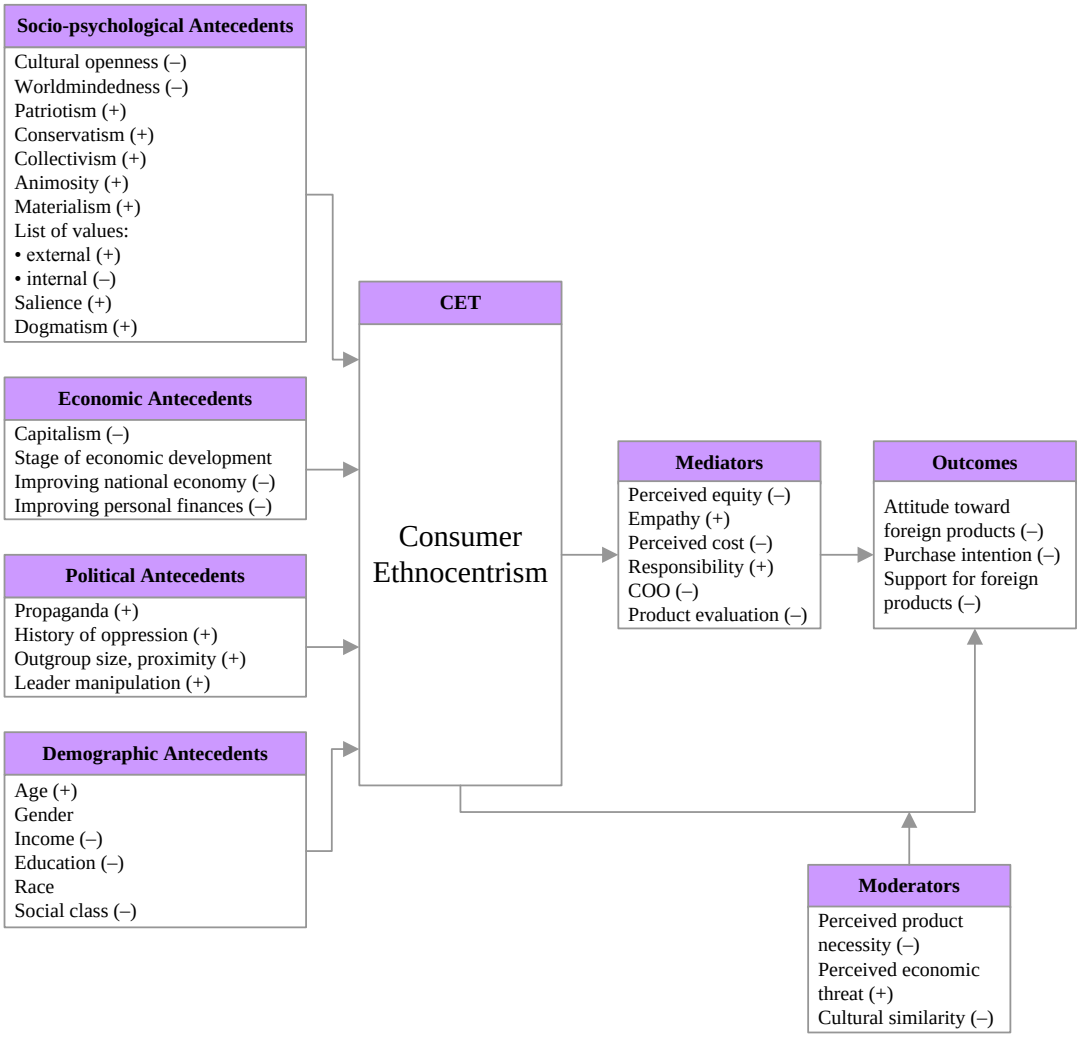
Figure 2 furthermore shows that consumer ethnocentrism may result in various outcome variables (negative attitude toward buying foreign products, negative purchase intention or negative support for foreign products). Consumer ethnocentrism was found to have a direct positive impact on domestic (e.g., John & Brady, 2010; Verlegh, 2007; Vida & Reardon, 2008) and a direct negative impact on foreign (e.g., Vida & Dmitrović, 2009; Yoo & Donthu, 2005) purchase behavior. Consumer ethnocentrism can also influence purchase behavior through different moderators (e.g., Javalgi, Khare, Gross & Scherer, 2005; Sharma et al., 1995) and mediators. Product judgment as a mediator was included in various studies. Empirical research confirmed a positive impact of consumer ethnocentrism on domestic product evaluations (e.g., Vida & Dmitrović, 2009) and a negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism on foreign product judgments (e.g., Klein, 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Nguyen, Nguyen & Barrett, 2008).

The influence of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase behavior was measured on different product categories:

- necessities (e.g., Bandyopadhyay, 2012; John & Brady, 2010; Verlegh, 2007);
- durables (e.g., Javalgi et al., 2005; Vida & Maher Pirc, 2006; Yoo & Donthu, 2005);
- luxury goods (e.g., Sharma et al., 1995);
- services (e.g., Bruning, 1997; Chaudhry, Akbar, Rehman, Ahmad & Usman, 2011; Vida & Maher Pirc, 2006).

Research evidence suggests that ethnocentric tendencies vary across different product types. For instance, Sharma et al. (1995) found that ethnocentric tendencies of Korean consumers were stronger for imported products that were perceived as dispensable compared to those perceived as necessary. Nguyen et al. (2008) studied the moderating effect of low and high involvement product categories, but did not find any significant differences in the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on purchase behavior. Smyczek and Glowik (2011) studied the impact of the economic crisis on the development of ethnocentric tendencies among Polish consumers and found ethnocentric intent for both low and high involvement products.

Figure 2: Consumer ethnocentrism, its antecedents and consequences



Source: M.N. Shankarmahesh, Consumer ethnocentrism: an integrative review of its antecedents and consequences, 2006, p. 161.

Slovenian consumers are on average not inclined toward consumer ethnocentrism. The results of a cross-country comparison showed that consumer ethnocentrism in Slovenia was higher than in Sweden, Japan, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina, but lower than in Montenegro, Croatia, Mexico, the USA and Hong Kong (Vida & Maher Pirc, 2006, pp. 53–55). Empirical research conducted on a representative sample in 2001 showed that consumer ethnocentrism among Slovenians was 26.65 (on a scale from 10 to 50; standard deviation 9.5). Maher and Vida (2003) found a positive correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and age, a negative correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and education, as well as income, whereas the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and gender was not statistically significant. Furthermore, it was shown that product categories play a moderating role in domestic consumption behavior. Slovenian origin of goods is especially important in the consumption of non-durable (food) products and specific bank and telecommunication services but less significant for durable goods (Vida & Maher Pirc, 2006).

1.3 Consumer animosity

In this section, we provide a concise summary of consumer animosity. First, we define the concept and continue with a detailed chronological literature review of consumer animosity which has been studied for over a decade. We continue with sources and types of animosity and then explain its antecedents and consequences. Finally, we scrutinize different scales used to measure consumer animosity.

1.3.1 Definition of consumer animosity

Consumer animosity was first introduced into the marketing literature by Klein et al. (1998, p. 90) and is defined as "remnants of antipathy related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events". Animosity toward another country can be based on various backgrounds, some of which are relatively benign (e.g., two neighboring countries sharing a common border), whereas others are more serious (e.g., previous military events or recent economic or diplomatic disputes). The authors argue that consumer animosity has a negative impact on consumer attitudes toward foreign products, in particular on consumer attitudes toward willingness to buy and their actual foreign product ownership (Klein et al., 1998, pp. 90–91).

It is important to point out that, although related, consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism are conceptually different constructs. They both describe consumer attitudes toward imports (Klein & Ettenson, 1999, p. 7), however the main distinction between them is that consumer ethnocentrism describes unfavorable attitudes toward foreign countries and foreign products in general, whereas consumer animosity is directed to a particular country (Klein et al., 1998, p. 90). Many animus consumers may be willing to purchase foreign products, however they choose to avoid or even boycott products from a particular foreign country toward which they feel animosity or anger (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007, p. 88), such as it was in the case of Australian consumers refusing to purchase French goods due to the French nuclear testing in the South Pacific (Ettenson & Klein, 2005).

1.3.2 Literature review of consumer animosity studies

The pioneer study carried out by Klein et al. (1998) paved the way for numerous researchers who studied the impact of anger, dislike or even hatred toward a specific foreign entity on foreign purchase behavior. As can be seen in Table 2, the majority of studies followed Klein et al. (1998) and focused on *international* animosity, i.e., animosity between two countries. Animosity was studied in North America (the USA), Europe (e.g., France, Germany, the Netherlands), the Middle East (e.g., Egypt, Iran, Israel) and Asia (e.g., China, Japan, South Korea). Three studies focused on animosity of a *specific subgroup toward a foreign country*: (1) Malaysian Muslims' animosity toward the USA (Shah & Halim, 2011), (2) Arab and Jewish Israelis' animosity toward the United Kingdom (Rose, Rose & Shoham, 2009) and (3) Jewish Americans' animosity toward Germany (Podoshen & Hunt, 2009). Guido, Prete,

Tedeschi and Dadusc (2010) replicated the study conducted by Shoham et al. (2006) however they focused on animosity between two subgroups belonging to different countries (Jewish Italians toward Arab Israelis). Only three studies did not focus on international animosity. Shimp, Dunn and Klein (2004) studied *regional* animosity between the northern and southern states of the USA, Hinck (2005) studied *domestic* animosity in the reunified Germany while Shoham, Davidow, Klein and Ruvio (2006) focused on *intracountry* animosity between two ethnic groups in Israel.

Most authors (see Table 2) engaged in quantitative research in order to study consumer animosity. Only a few researchers performed qualitative research, e.g., Amine (2008) conducted a longitudinal study and examined animosity between France and the USA by applying the ethnographic approach. Similarly, Podoshen and Hunt (2009) qualitatively investigated animosity of Jewish Americans toward Germany by conducting in-depth interviews. Hong and Kang (2006) engaged in experimental research in order to study animosity of South Koreans toward Germany and Japan. Finally, Amine, Chao and Arnold (2005) prepared a case study on Acer, a Taiwanese electronics company, and examined whether the political hostility between China and Taiwan could hurt Acer's attempt to succeed in China.

Table 2 furthermore shows that one third of the authors omitted specific product categories from their research and tested consequences of consumer animosity on products in general. Other researchers applied consumer animosity to various groups of products, ranging from durables (e.g., cars, television sets, refrigerators, DVD players) to fast moving consumer goods (e.g., bread and pastry, fruits and vegetables, liquor, cosmetics), whereas some studies focused on apparel, luxury goods and cultural products. Four studies investigated whether animosity has consequences on the consumption of services, e.g., tourism, restaurant services, car repairs, providers of electricity, internet and wireless cell phone services. Several authors did not study product categories at all because they did not investigate the effect of animosity on purchase behavior. Finally, the review of animosity studies in Table 2 shows that all authors examined animosity on end consumers with the exception of Edwards, Gut and Mavondo (2005), who studied the effects of animosity on the business-to-business sector.

The existing literature on animosity suggests that the sources of animosity are many and diverse (see Table 2). They range from war (e.g., World War II, the Second Sino-Japanese War, Vietnam War), economics (e.g., unfair trading practices, fears of economic dominance), politics (e.g., diplomatic disputes, opposition to a country's foreign policies, territorial disputes), to people (e.g., mentality) and religion. The next section provides a more detailed description of the various dimensions of animosity.

Table 2: Review of animosity studies

Authors and type of study	Home entity	Target entity	Source of animosity	Product/services type
Klein, Ettenson & Morris (1998) Quantitative study	China: City of Nanjing	Japan	War animosity: - Japanese occupation and massacre in the Second Sino-Japanese War Economic animosity: - Proliferation of Japanese brands at the expense of Chinese brands - Unfair trading practices	Televisions Video cassette recorders Stereos Radios Cameras Refrigerators
Klein & Ettenson (1999) Quantitative study	USA	Japan	Economic animosity: - Unfair trading practices	Product type not included in the study
Shin (2001) Quantitative study	Korea	Japan	War animosity: - Japanese occupation and war crimes during World War II Economic animosity: - Unfair trading practices	No specific product type (respondents were asked to recall Japanese products on their own)
Klein (2002) Quantitative study	USA	Japan Neutral country: Korea	War animosity: - World War II (e.g., bombing of Pearl Harbor) Economic animosity: - Trade and protectionism (unfair trade dealings with the USA)	Cars
Jung, Ang, Leong, Tan, Pornpitakpan & Kau (2002) Ang, Jung, Kau, Leong, Pornpitakpan & Tan (2004) Quantitative study	Indonesia Malaysia Singapore South Korea Thailand	Japan, USA Japan, USA Japan, USA Japan, USA Japan, USA	Nonspecific source of animosity: - Sentiments on the general historical perspective Economic animosity: - 1997 Asian economic crisis (role of USA and Japan in the crisis)	Product type not included in the study
Nijssen & Douglas (2004) Quantitative study	Netherlands	Germany	War animosity: - Memory of German aggression during World War II Economic animosity: - Potential threat German economic power may represent to the Dutch	Cars Televisions
Shimp, Dunn & Klein (2004) Quantitative study	Northern states of the USA Southern states of the USA	Southern states of the USA Northern states of the USA	War animosity: - US Civil War	Computers Electricity supply Processing a roll of film Internet service provider Wireless cell phone service
Amine, Chao & Arnold (2005) Case study	China	Taiwan	Political animosity: - Continuing tensions and unsettled relationship between the two countries	Products of Acer (Taiwanese electronics company)
Edwards, Gut & Mavondo (2005) Quantitative study	Australia New Zealand	France	Political (diplomatic) animosity: - France's nuclear testing in the South Pacific	Effects of animosity on the business-to-business sector
Ettenson & Klein (2005) Quantitative study Longitudinal study	Australia	France	Political (diplomatic) animosity: - France's nuclear testing in the South Pacific	Study 1: No specific product type Study 2: Wine Champagne Perfume Cosmetics Jewelry Apparel

(table continues)

(continued)

Authors and type of study	Home entity	Target entity	Source of animosity	Product/services type
Hinck (2005) Quantitative study	Neue Länder (East Germany)	Alte Länder (West Germany)	Economic animosity: - Effects of German reunification on East Germany	No specific product type
Hong & Kang (2006) Experimental research	South Korea	Germany Japan	War animosity: - Brutalities committed by the Germans in Auschwitz - Brutalities committed by the Japanese in the Nanjing massacre	Automobiles Dress shoes
Russell & Russell (2006) Quantitative study Experimental research	Study 1: USA Studies 2 and 3: France	France USA	Economic animosity: - Unfair trading practices Political animosity: - France's opposition to US foreign policies (Iraq war)	Movies (film industry)
Shoham, Davidow, Klein & Ruvio (2006) Quantitative study	Israel: Jewish Israelis	Israel: Arab Israelis	War-like animosity: - The second Arab Intifada in Israel (armed conflict)	Bread and pastry Olives and olive oil Fruits and vegetables Car service and repairs Restaurants Tourism
Nakos & Hajidimitriou (2007) Quantitative study	Greece	Turkey	Nonspecific source of animosity: - Turbulent past relationships Economic animosity: - Unfair trading practices	No specific product type
Riefler & Diamantopoulos (2007) Quantitative exploratory study	Austria	USA Germany Turkey Top three countries cited by respondents (animosity target not predetermined by the researchers)	USA: - Foreign and domestic policies - Economic policy - Mentality of people Germany: - Mentality of people - Austrians' loss of identity - Economic issues - World War II Turkey: - Mentality of people - Role of women - Religion	Product type not included in the study
Amine (2008) Qualitative study Longitudinal study Ethnographic research	France USA	USA France	Nonspecific source of animosity: - Continuing rivalry between the two nations Political animosity: - France's opposition to US foreign policies (Iraq war)	French brand-name product categories (e.g., perfumes, designer-name apparel, fashion goods) Traveling to France Traveling to the USA
Leong, Cote, Ang, Tan, Jung, Kau & Pornpitakpan (2008) Quantitative study	Indonesia Malaysia Singapore South Korea Thailand	Japan, USA Japan, USA Japan, USA Japan, USA Japan, USA	Nonspecific source of animosity: - How well USA/Japan has behaved toward the country over the years Economic animosity: - 1997 Asian economic crisis (USA and Japan are perceived to have contributed to the crisis)	No specific product type
Bahaee & Pisani (2009a) Bahaee & Pisani (2009b) Quantitative study	Iran	USA	Political animosity: - Strained relations between the two countries (e.g., the seizure of US Embassy personnel in 1979; current issues on nuclear weapons and terrorism) Economic animosity: - US economic sanctions	Medicines Medical equipment Cosmetics Clothes Cars Television sets Personal computers Compact discs (DVDs) DVD players Refrigerators
Little, Little & Cox (2009) Quantitative study	USA	Vietnam	War animosity: - Vietnam War	Product type not included in the study

(table continues)

(continued)

Authors and type of study	Home entity	Target entity	Source of animosity	Product/services type
Podoshen & Hunt (2009) Qualitative study	USA: Jewish Americans	Germany	War animosity: - Genocide over Jews during World War II	Automobiles
Rose, Rose & Shoham (2009) Quantitative study	Israel: Arab Israelis Jewish Israelis	United Kingdom Benchmark: Italy	Political animosity: - Recent political tensions in the Middle East; UK chosen because of its historical role in the Middle East and support for the Iraq war	No specific product type
Funk, Arthurs, Treviño & Joireman (2010) Quantitative study	USA	India Iran Neutral country: Canada	Economic animosity (toward India): - India is taking jobs away from Americans due to outsourcing Political animosity (toward Iran): - Difficult bilateral relations (Iran's nuclear weapons proliferation)	Toyota Corolla car (hybrid product)
Guido, Prete, Tedeschi & Dadusc (2010) Quantitative study	Italy: Jewish Italians	Israel: Arab Israelis	War-like animosity: - The second Arab Intifada in Israel (terrorist and military attacks by Arabs)	Bread and pastry Olives and olive oil Fruits and vegetables Arab products sold in supermarkets Books or movies about Arab culture Car service and repairs Restaurants Tourism
Huang, Phau & Lin (2010a) Quantitative study	Taiwan	China Japan	War-like animosity: - Chinese suppression of a Taiwanese riot in 1947 - Japanese occupation of Taiwan between 1895 and 1945 Political animosity: - Strained diplomatic relationships between China and Taiwan - Territorial disputes with Japan over the Diaoyu (Senkaku) Islands Economic animosity: - Growing economic dependence of Taiwan on China - Trade friction (Japan's significant trade surplus with Taiwan)	No specific product type
Huang, Phau & Lin (2010b) Quantitative study	Taiwan	Japan	War-like animosity: - Japanese occupation of Taiwan between 1895 and 1945 Political animosity: - Territorial disputes over the Diaoyu (Senkaku) Islands Economic animosity: - Trade friction (Japan's significant trade surplus with Taiwan)	Liquor Television sets Cellular phones Cars
Jiménez & San Martín (2010) Quantitative study	Spain	South Korea	Not specified	Automobiles
Maher, Clark & Maher (2010) Quantitative study	USA	Japan	Not specified	No specific product type
Maher & Mady (2010) Quantitative study	Kuwait	Denmark	Religious animosity: - The depiction of the Prophet Mohammed in the Danish press	No specific product type

(table continues)

(continued)

Authors and type of study	Home entity	Target entity	Source of animosity	Product/services type
Mostafa (2010) Quantitative study	Egypt	Israel	War animosity: - Several wars between Israel and the Arab world after establishment of the Israeli state in 1948	No specific product type
Urbonavicius, Dikcius, Gineikiene & Degutis (2010) Quantitative study	Lithuania	Russia	Political animosity: - Political acts of Russia toward Lithuania since its independence - Soviet occupation of Lithuania - Mass deportations of Lithuanians to Siberia	No specific product type
Hoffmann, Mai & Smirnova (2011) Quantitative study	Study 1: Germany Ukraine Study 2: Germany Russia	 Russia, USA Russia, USA France, Russia, USA France, Germany, USA	Universal drivers of animosity: - Antithetical political attitudes - Negative personal experiences - Perceived threat	No specific product type
Matić & Puh (2011) Quantitative study	Croatia	Bosnia and Herzegovina Montenegro Serbia Slovenia	Not specified	Product type not included in the study
Nes, Yelkur & Silkoset (2011) Quantitative study	USA Norway	Animosity target not predetermined by the researchers; respondents asked to note the most disliked foreign country	People animosity Economic animosity Military/war animosity Politics/government animosity	No specific product type
Russell, Russell & Neijens (2011) Quantitative study	France	USA	Cultural animosity: - Ideological resistance to the USA	Movies
Shah & Halim (2011) Quantitative study	Malaysia: Malaysian Muslims	USA	Not specified	Product type not included in the study

1.3.3 Dimensions of animosity

Klein et al. (1998) distinguished between general, war- and economic-related animosity. They studied **war-related** animosity by focusing on a past historic military event, i.e., the Nanjing massacre in 1937 during the Second Sino-Japanese War. Subsequent studies investigated both historic and more recent war-related events. For example, Shin (2001), Klein (2002), Nijssen and Douglas (2004) investigated World War II occurrences. Podoshen and Hunt (2009) concluded that the Holocaust still persists in the collective memory of many Jewish consumers living in the USA, resulting in their animosity toward Germany and their avoidance of purchasing German-made cars. Some studies focused on other war events, such as the US civil war (Shimp et al., 2004), the Vietnam War (Little, Little & Cox, 2009), and the Second Intifada of Palestinians (Shoham et al., 2006).

Klein et al. (1998) suggest **economic-related** animosity is based on the perception that the foreign animosity country is an unfair and unreliable trading partner, and that it has too much influence in the home country. Economic-related animosity was studied in a similar manner by many subsequent authors (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009b; Klein, 2002; Mostafa, 2010; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Russell & Russell, 2006; Shoham et al., 2006). Other authors studied different sources of economic animosity. For example, Ang et al. (2004) investigated animosity in five Asian countries in the context of the 1997 Asian crisis. Funk, Arthurs, Treviño and Joireman

(2010) studied American animosity toward India which was partially explained by the perception that India is taking jobs away from Americans.

Table 2 shows that reasons for animosity do not stem from war and economic events only. Animosity may also be based on other sources of political, religious or cultural nature. **Political** reasons for animosity encompass events such as the Australian-French diplomatic incident due to French nuclear testing in the South Pacific (Ettenson & Klein, 2005), France's opposition to American foreign policies (Russell & Russell, 2006), territorial disputes between Taiwan and Japan (Huang, Phau & Lin, 2010a; 2010b) and strained relations between Iran and the USA (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009a; 2009b; Funk et al., 2010). Nes, Yelkur and Silkoset (2011, p. 12) extended the political dimension of animosity to include internal political issues such as authoritarian government, government regulation and policies, imposed censorship on people, lack of freedom, violation of human rights, etc. Maher and Mady (2010) examined **religious** animosity of Kuwaitis toward Denmark which was ignited by the depiction of the prophet Mohammad in a Danish newspaper. Russell, Russell and Neijens (2011, p. 1721) based their research on **cultural** animosity stemming from France's ideological resistance to the USA which was expressed in a degree of anti-consumption of American movies. Amine (2008, p. 415), on the other hand, focused on a **non-specific** source of animosity between France and the USA which she describes as "continuing rivalry between France and America". Similarly, Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007) did not indicate a specific source of animosity between Greece and Turkey, and focused their study on ancient hatreds between the two nations.

1.3.4 Typology of animosity

Jung et al. (2002, pp. 525, 528) posit that animosity is a dynamic concept which stems from various sources and is constantly being updated through different events and experience. They developed and empirically validated a 2x2 typology of animosity which is presented in Table 3. Depending on the source of animosity, they distinguished between national and personal animosity. Depending on the locus of manifestation, they defined stable and situational animosity. The same typology was later used by Ang et al. (2004) and Leong et al. (2008) in their research.

Table 3: A 2x2 typology of animosity

SOURCE	LOCUS: STABLE	LOCUS: SITUATIONAL
NATIONAL	Arises from a historical event and has consequences at a national level.	Arises from a recent specific event and has consequences at a national level.
PERSONAL	Arises from a historical event and affects individuals at a personal level.	Arises from a recent specific event and has consequences at a personal level.

Source: Adapted from K. Jung et al., A typology of animosity and its cross-national validation, 2002, pp. 526–528.

Situational animosity is driven by a specific event, whereas **stable animosity** accumulates over a longer period of time due to historical events between countries such as military or

economic hostilities. Over time, situational animosity can become stable animosity which is a long lasting and deeply rooted general antagonistic emotion toward a particular country. Situational animosity may evolve into stable animosity without an individual actually having had personal experience with the animosity target. Such animosity can be passed over from one generation to another via formal (e.g., history texts) or informal (e.g., word-of-mouth communication) channels (Jung et al., 2002, p. 527).

Little et al. (2009) offer an interesting insight into stable animosity. The authors showed that American animosity toward Vietnam stemming from the Vietnam War has been passed from one generation to another. The level of animosity of generation Y did not significantly differ from the animosity levels of other generations, even though generation Y was born already after the Vietnam War ended (generation Y refers to people born between 1977 and 1994). The existence of situational animosity was confirmed by Ettenson and Klein's (2005) longitudinal study, in which Australian consumers' animosity toward France was measured at two points in time: during France's engagement in nuclear testing in the South Pacific (first time) and one year after the conflict came to an end (second time). The results showed that the level of animosity was lower in the second study, indicating that it may change rather quickly. Evidence from this research confirms the finding by Jung et al. (2002, p. 525) that animosity is indeed a dynamic concept. Maher, Clark and Maher (2010, pp. 414, 418) came to the same conclusions. They found that Americans' feelings of animosity toward Japan have not only gradually decreased, but interestingly, they have been replaced by *admiration*.

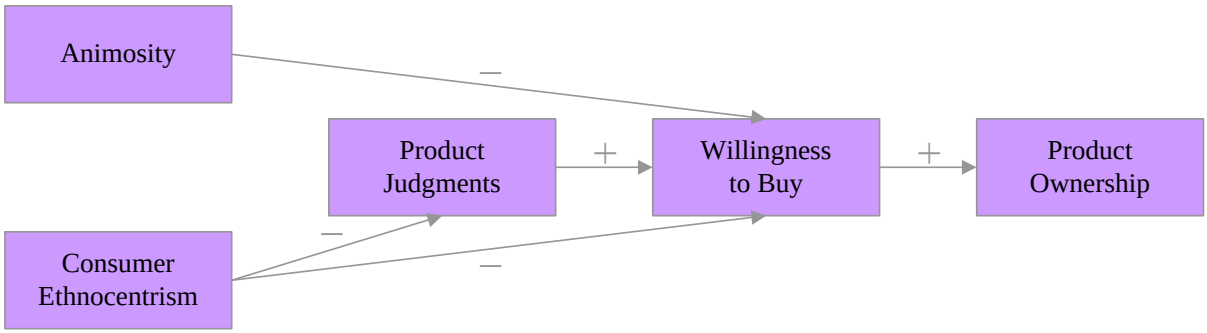
At the macro level, **national animosity** refers to the perception of how much one's country was affected and has suffered from the actions of another country (Jung et al., 2002, p. 528). Most of the existing studies focus on national animosity (e.g. Hinck, 2005; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Shimp et al., 2004; Shoham et al., 2006). At the micro level, **personal animosity** refers to one's resentment toward another country stemming from negative experiences with that country or its people (Jung et al., 2002, p. 528). Ang et al. (2004, pp. 193–194, 203) studied personal animosity of five Asian nations toward Japan and the USA. They found that Indonesians felt the strongest personal animosity toward the USA because the relationship between the two countries has historically been unsteady. Koreans displayed strongest personal animosity toward Japan because they were occupied by the Japanese for 35 years, during which they experienced intense hardship.

Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007, p. 101) called for further studies that would investigate animosity at the personal level. Amine (2008, p. 414) took this suggestion into consideration by studying the personal dimension of animosity between the French and Americans. Podoshen and Hunt's (2009, pp. 306–307; 309) qualitative study revealed that American Jews who survived the Holocaust still harbor personal animosity toward Germany. Hoffmann, Mai and Smirnova (2011, p. 237) suggest that the animosity construct be widened to include personal dimensions because an important source of animosity can arise from personal feelings of dislike toward the target country. They defined universal drivers of animosity, one of which is "negative personal experience" and *de facto* measures personal animosity.

1.3.5 Constructs related to consumer animosity

The original animosity model of foreign product purchase proposed by Klein et al. (1998) is depicted in Figure 3. Willingness to buy foreign products is predicted by two conceptually and theoretically distinct constructs. Both consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism negatively influence willingness to buy. Consumer ethnocentrism has a direct and indirect (mediated by product judgments) effect on willingness to buy, while consumer animosity remains independent of product judgments. Willingness to buy in turn predicts product ownership. The model was tested in the setting of Chinese consumers and Japanese products.

Figure 3: The original animosity model of foreign product purchase



Source: Adapted from J.G. Klein et al., The animosity model of foreign product purchase: an empirical test in the People's Republic of China, 1998, pp. 92, 95.

Subsequent studies (for a detailed overview see Table 2) tested the original model in other settings with different home and target entities, different product categories and took into consideration various sources of consumer animosity. Moreover, later studies adapted the animosity model of foreign product purchase and included new constructs and variables. Their findings are presented in the following two sections, taking into consideration antecedents and consequences of consumer animosity, and graphically summarized in Figure 4.

1.3.5.1 Antecedents of consumer animosity

The model by Klein et al. (1998) contained consumer ethnocentrism, but it was not treated as an antecedent of consumer animosity. The studies that followed tested constructs and variables as antecedents of consumer animosity only to a limited extent and their findings are summarized in this section. We divide the antecedents into three categories: socio-demographic, socio-psychological and economic which contribute to a better identification and understanding of consumers who are more likely to harbor animosity toward foreign entities. Two main limitations with regards to studying antecedents of consumer animosity need to be put forth. Firstly, some studies refer to certain constructs as antecedents of consumer animosity, even though only correlation and not causal research was done (Shoham et al., 2006, pp. 103–104). Secondly, each animosity setting is unique, meaning that consumer animosity depends on a specific situation and background. As a consequence, findings pertaining to the same variable often contradict each other. Generalizations are thus difficult

to make, also due to a minimal number of studies dealing with consumer animosity antecedents.

1.3.5.1.1 Socio-demographic antecedents

Demographics explain size, distributions and the structure of a population (Shah & Halim, 2011, p. 201) as well as enable segmentations of consumers (Shankarmahesh, 2006, p. 164). In various studies, nine different socio-demographic variables were found to predict consumer animosity, namely: age, gender, education, occupation/work status, region, membership in a union, prejudice, race and foreign travel experience. The findings suggest that the impact of socio-demographic variables on consumer animosity is not straightforward. Below we discuss each socio-demographic antecedent in greater detail.

Age was confirmed as a significant predictor of consumer animosity in seven studies. Four out of seven studies revealed a positive relationship between age and consumer animosity in the context of American animosity toward Japan (Klein & Ettenson, 1999, pp. 19–20), American war animosity toward Japan (Klein, 2002, pp. 357–358), Greek animosity toward Turkey (Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007, p. 66) and animosity of Malaysian Muslims toward the USA (Shah & Halim, 2011, p. 203). On the contrary, Huang et al. (2010a, p. 924), Urbonavicius, Dikcius, Gineikiene and Degutis (2010, pp. 194, 196) and Bahaee and Pisani (2009a, p. 206) found an inverse relationship. The latter found that younger Iranians had a higher level of consumer animosity toward the USA than their older counterparts. A possible explanation could be found in familial socialization and in the official socialization process, which has become hostile toward the USA after the Iranian revolution in 1979. This explanation is in accordance with Little et al. (2009, pp. 13, 20), who argue that the relationship between age and consumer animosity is spurious. It is not age *per se*, but the environment in which values, preferences and behaviors of each person are formed and which play a crucial role in determining the level of animosity. Finally, it is worth mentioning that some studies (Funk et al., 2010, p. 644; Klein et al., 1998, p. 96) did not find any statistically significant relationships between age and consumer animosity.

Empirical evidence regarding the correlation between **gender** and consumer animosity is mixed. Some findings imply that males exhibit higher levels of animosity than females (Matić & Puh, 2011, p. 463; Shah & Halim, 2011, p. 203). Similarly, several authors (Klein, 2002, p. 357; Klein et al., 1998, p. 96; Matić & Puh, 2011, p. 463) found that economic animosity was higher among male respondents. On the other hand, it was found that Iranian women, who are exposed to governmental propaganda to a greater extent than men, harbor more intense feelings of animosity toward the USA than males (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009a, p. 206). Other studies (Ettenson & Klein, 2005, p. 211; Funk et al., 2010, p. 644; Klein & Ettenson, 1999, p. 19; Matić & Puh, 2011, pp. 463–464; Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007, p. 66), however, found no statistically significant relationship between gender and animosity. Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007, p. 66) offer a possible explanation and suggest that consumers within nation states have become more homogeneous, especially due to media, universal education

and mass culture. As a consequence, males and females do not have different views on foreign countries.

Three variables, namely education, occupation and region (area of respondent's residence), were tested as antecedents of consumer animosity in a limited number of studies and brought contradictory results. With regard to **education,** a study by Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007, p. 67) pointed out a positive relationship, while Bahaee and Pisani (2009a, p. 206) discovered an inverse relationship between education and consumer animosity. Nevertheless, studies such as those by Klein and Ettenson (1999, p. 18) and Shah and Halim (2011, pp. 205–206) found no statistically significant correlation between education and consumer animosity. Conflicting findings were also found regarding the relationship between **occupation/work status** and consumer animosity. On the one hand, a relationship between the two variables was supported by Bahaee and Pisani (2009a, p. 207). On the other hand, Klein and Ettenson (1999, p. 18) concluded that occupation is not predictive of American animosity toward Japan. **Region** was found to predict consumer animosity by Shah and Halim (2011, p. 206), who discovered that those Muslim Malays who reside in less developed and more traditional areas have a higher level of consumer animosity toward the USA than those coming from other parts of Malaysia. On the contrary, region does not have a significant impact on Greeks and their animosity toward Turkey (Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007, p. 66).

In addition, some other socio-demographic variables – although in selective contexts – were found to be predictive of consumer animosity. Klein and Ettenson (1999, pp. 18–19) found that those Americans who were **members of a union** and those who had **prejudice** toward Asian-Americans exhibited higher levels of consumer animosity toward Japan. The authors also found **race** to be a significant predictor of consumer animosity – Caucasian Americans were more likely to harbor animosity toward Japan. Moreover, Bahaee and Pisani (2009a, p. 207) found a significant inverse relationship between **foreign travel** and consumer animosity. Those Iranians who traveled outside Iran possessed a lower level of consumer animosity toward the USA because they experienced an environment without governmental censorship and thus had better information about external relations of their country.

Finally, scarce evidence from literature suggests there is no statistically significant correlation between consumer animosity and **income** (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009a, pp. 206–207; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; p. 18; Shah & Halim, 2011, p. 206; Urbonavicius et al., 2010, p. 194), **civil status** (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009a, p. 207), **knowledge of foreign languages** (Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007, p. 67) or **ethnicity** (Funk et al., 2010, p. 644).

1.3.5.1.2 Socio-psychological antecedents

Several animosity studies included antecedents which are not of socio-demographic nature, e.g., patriotism, nationalism and dogmatism. We adopt an approach similar to that of Shankarmahesh (2006) in his detailed review of consumer ethnocentrism and classify these constructs into the group of socio-psychological antecedents. Social psychology helps us to

understand how individuals "think and feel about, interact with, and influence one another, individually and in groups" (Bordens & Horowitz, 2002, p. 3). Next, we provide an explanation of each socio-psychological antecedent of consumer animosity.

Klein et al. (1998, p. 95) acknowledged that **consumer ethnocentrism** and consumer animosity are separate and distinct constructs. This finding was confirmed by subsequent research as well, e.g., Klein and Ettenson (1999, p. 19), Klein (2002, p. 358) and Hinck (2005, p. 96). In addition, Klein et al. (1998, p. 91) posit that the two constructs can be related. The majority of later studies (e.g., Funk et al., 2010, p. 644; Hoffmann et al., 2011, p. 246; Huang et al., 2010b, p. 368; Jiménez & San Martín, 2010, p. 41; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004, p. 31; Rose et al., 2009, p. 334; Urbonavicius et al., 2010, p. 193) found a positive relationship between consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. Only one author (Mostafa, 2010, p. 356) found the relationship not to be significant.

Klein and Ettenson (1999, p. 13, 19) were the first authors who examined the relationship between **patriotism** and consumer animosity. They found a statistically significant positive relationship between Americans' patriotism and their animosity toward Japan. The positive relationship was later confirmed by Hoffmann et al. (2011, pp. 246, 248) in the context of Germans' animosity toward the USA, and Russians' animosity toward France and the USA. On the other hand, the authors found no statistically significant correlation when examining Germans' animosity toward France and Russia, and Russians' animosity toward Germany. The relationship between **nationalism** and consumer animosity was tested in two studies. A positive and statistically significant relationship was found by both Shoham et al. (2006, p. 102) and Guido et al. (2010, pp. 7–10).

Two concepts that describe general positive attitudes toward foreign countries were studied in relationship with consumer animosity. Shoham et al. (2006, p. 102) and Guido et al. (2010, pp. 7–10) confirmed a negative and statistically significant correlation between **internationalism** and consumer animosity, whereas Maher et al. (2010, p. 419) found this relationship statistically non-significant. **Cosmopolitanism**, which is conceptually close to internationalism, was studied by Hoffmann et al. (2011, p. 248). The authors established a negative and statistically significant correlation between cosmopolitanism and German animosity toward France, as well as Russian animosity toward France and Germany. This relationship was however not significant for German animosity toward the USA and Russia, and Russian animosity toward the USA.

Rokeach (1960, p. 57) relates **dogmatism** to closed-mindedness of one's belief system, i.e., "the extent to which the person can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information received from the outside on its own merits, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising from within the person or from the outside". Moreover, Caruana and Magri (1996, p. 39) described dogmatism as a personality characteristic to see "reality in black or white". Empirical evidence suggests a positive relationship between dogmatism and consumer animosity. Shoham et al. (2006, p. 102) report that dogmatism of Jewish Israelis is a

significant predictor of their animosity toward Arab Israelis. Guido et al. (2010, pp. 7–10), on the other hand, did not find a statistically significant relationship between dogmatism and consumer animosity.

Holbrook and Schindler (1991, p. 330) refer to nostalgic people as those who prefer places, people or things that were more common in the past when they were younger. Urbonavicius et al. (2010, pp. 193–194, 196) confirmed an inverse relationship between Lithuanians' **nostalgia** and their animosity toward Russia. This finding is not surprising in the context of political transformations; nostalgia for the past, when connected with a certain country, is supposed to reduce animosity toward that country.

Maher and Mady (2010, pp. 636–638, 643) posited that group responsibility assigned to another country will be positively associated with animosity toward that country. **Group responsibility** refers to the degree to which citizens of the transgressor's country should be considered responsible for the actions of their country. Indeed, the authors found that Kuwaitis held the Danish people responsible for actions of the Danish press, i.e., for publishing the Mohammed cartoons, and as a result their animosity toward Denmark was higher. Maher and Mady's (2010) conclusion coincides with that of Leong et al. (2008, pp. 999, 1003). Asians who held the Americans responsible for the 1997 Asian crisis were more inclined to feel animosity toward the USA. More specifically, the authors found a positive relationship between **external attribution** (the extent of blame ascribed to an external party) and situational animosity. A positive relationship was also found between **external control** (the extent to which the external entity could have influenced a certain outcome) and situational animosity.

Normative influence is defined as "influence to conform with the positive expectations of another" (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955, p. 629) and "is based on the desire to gain or maintain social approval" (Levine & Kerr, 2007, p. 764). Huang et al. (2010a, pp. 923, 926) posited that the behavior and values of one's reference group play an important role in the generation of consumer animosity. Indeed, they found a statistically significant positive relationship between normative influence and animosity of Taiwanese toward China and Japan.

1.3.5.1.3 Economic antecedents

To the best of our knowledge, only three studies deal with economic antecedents of consumer animosity. Barrera, Caples and Tein (2001, pp. 512–513) argue that perceived **economic hardship** encompasses an "immediate struggle to meet living expenses" and "the despair that extends to one's view of future difficulties". Huang et al. (2010a, pp. 923, 926) hypothesized and empirically proved that perceived personal economic hardship positively affects consumer animosity toward the out-group. Those Taiwanese who perceived to have undergone economic hardship and blamed it on Japan and China exhibited a higher level of consumer animosity toward these countries compared to other Taiwanese in the sample. Interestingly, an earlier study by Klein and Ettenson (1999, pp. 12, 18) did not find personal

(the belief that one's current financial situation is better than the past one) or national (the belief that America's economic situation is better than the past one) economic well-being to be predictive of American animosity toward Japan.

Hong and Kang (2006, p. 238) suggested that when a country is renowned for a certain product, the impact of that country's reputation may prevail over potential negative effects of animosity. Accordingly, Jiménez and San Martín (2010, p. 38) hypothesized that **reputation of firms** associated to country of origin has a negative influence on consumer animosity, however they did not find statistical support for this relationship.

1.3.5.2 Consequences of consumer animosity

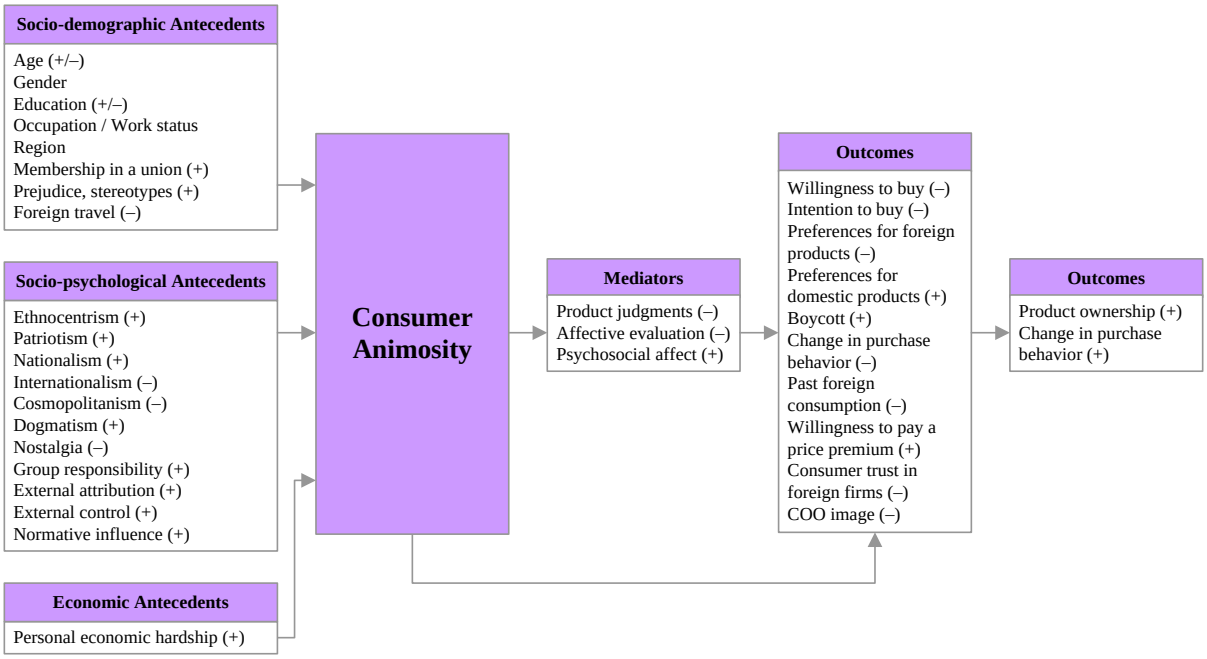
Consumer animosity has different *direct consequences*. Klein et al. (1998, p. 96) discovered a direct negative impact of animosity on **willingness to buy** products from the offending country which further predicts product ownership. The negative relationship between consumer animosity and willingness to buy was later confirmed in many studies (e.g., Ettenson & Klein, 2005, p. 206; Funk et al., 2010, p. 644; Hinck, 2005, pp. 93, 97; Leong et al., 2008, p. 1003; Maher & Mady, 2010, p. 642; Mostafa, 2010, p. 356; Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007, p. 64; Rose et al., 2009, p. 334; Shin, 2001, p. 10; Shoham et al., 2006, pp. 97, 102). Nijssen and Douglas (2004, pp. 31–32) discovered that war animosity has a positive direct impact on the reluctance to buy foreign products, whereas the influence of economic animosity was not significant. Similarly, Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007, p. 65) found that economic animosity did not influence Greek consumers' willingness to buy Turkish products. They offer an explanation that Turkey is a less developed country than Greece, thus Greeks do not perceive Turkey as a major economic threat.

In summary, consumer animosity has a direct negative and independent effect on purchase behavior regardless of product quality judgment. In fact, the relationship between animosity and product judgment was found to be non-significant by numerous authors (Ettenson & Klein, 2005, p. 206; Hinck, 2005, pp. 93, 97; Klein, 2002, pp. 356–357; Klein et al., 1998, p. 96; Maher et al., 2010, pp. 418–419; Maher & Mady, 2010, p. 642; Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007, p. 64; Russell & Russell, 2006, pp. 324, 328; Shin, 2001, p. 10).

Actual **product ownership** was measured only by Klein et al. (1998), Shin (2001), Klein (2002) and Mostafa (2010). Klein et al. (1998, p. 96), Shin (2001, p. 8) and Mostafa (2010, p. 356) found a positive relationship between willingness to buy and foreign product ownership, whereas Klein (2002, pp. 356–357) found a positive relationship between preferences for a Japanese product (animosity country) over a South Korean product (neutral country) and ownership of a Japanese car. Shoham et al. (2006, pp. 97, 102) measured the relationship between willingness to buy and **purchase behavior change** and also found a positive relationship.

Other direct consequences of consumer animosity examined in extant literature are **intention to buy** (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009a, p. 207; Guido et al., 2010, p. 9; Hoffmann et al., 2011, p. 41; Huang et al., 2010a, p. 923), **preferences for products from the animosity country** (Klein, 2002, pp. 356–357), **preferences for products/services of one's in-group** (Russell et al., 2011, p. 1720; Shimp et al., 2004, pp. 87–88), **boycott participation** (Ettenson & Klein, 2005, p. 214; Hoffmann et al., 2011, p. 241), **change in purchase behavior** (Guido et al., 2010, p. 9), **past consumption of movies from the animosity country** (Russell et al., 2011, p. 1720), **willingness to pay a price premium** (Shimp et al., 2004, pp. 87–88), **consumer trust in foreign firms** (Jiménez & San Martín, 2010, pp. 41–42), and **country-of-origin image** (Hoffmann et al., 2011, p. 247).

Figure 4: Antecedents and consequences of consumer animosity



Consumer animosity does not influence purchase behavior only directly. Several studies found that consumer animosity affects purchase behavior *indirectly* through various *mediators*, e.g., product judgments, affective evaluation and psychosocial affect. In fact, Shoham et al. (2006, pp. 97, 102) were the first to find an inverse relationship between **product quality judgments** and animosity. Some other authors came to the same conclusions (Guido et al., 2010, p. 9; Huang et al., 2010a, p. 923; Mostafa, 2010, p. 356; Urbonavicius et al., 2010, pp. 193–197). Shoham et al. (2006, p. 105) argue that the inverse relationship between animosity and product judgments may be a result of the situational and recent nature of animosity which in turn leads to product denigration. Furthermore, they posit that it is difficult for Jewish Israelis to be angry with Arab Israelis without denigrating products and services that represent the Arab culture and habits. Rose et al. (2009, p. 334) found an inverse relationship in the context of Arab Israelis' animosity toward the United Kingdom, however this relationship was not significant in the context of Jewish Israelis' animosity toward the United Kingdom. When product judgment mediates the relationship between animosity and willingness/intention to buy, the effect of product judgment on willingness/intention to buy

was found to be positive (Guido et al., 2010, p. 9; Huang et al., 2010a, p. 924; Mostafa, 2010, p. 356; Rose et al., 2009, p. 334; Shoham et al., 2006, pp. 97, 102). Interestingly, Maher and Mady (2010, pp. 641–642) did not find any relationship between product judgments and willingness to buy. Finally, Guido et al. (2010, p. 9) found a positive impact of product judgment on change in purchase behavior.

Leong et al. (2008, pp. 1001, 1003) distinguished between cognitive judgment and affective evaluation and discovered that stable animosity has no influence on either. The impact of situational animosity on willingness to buy is mediated only by **affective evaluation**. More specifically, situational animosity negatively impacts cognitive judgments and affective evaluation, but only the latter positively impacts willingness to buy. Furthermore, Nes et al. (2011, pp. 5, 9–11) discovered that the impact of economic, people, military/war and politics/government animosity on buying intentions is mediated by **psychosocial affect** which is a product's potential to elicit a psychological (the way I think about myself) or social (the way others think of me) emotional response as a result of its purchase or use.

1.3.6 Measurement of consumer animosity

Klein et al. (1998) operationalized the measures for consumer animosity in a *culture-specific manner* in order to capture China's historical and economic relationship with Japan. They distinguished between general, war and economic animosity. Additionally, based on a pilot test, Klein (2002) specifically developed another scale to measure animosity of Americans toward Japan, in which she also distinguished between the three aforementioned dimensions. Several authors (e.g., Bahaee & Pisani, 2009b; Mostafa, 2010; Rose et al., 2009; Shoham et al., 2006) followed suit and used the same dimensions and scales with only minor adjustments, such as the target country and reasons for animosity, without conducting prior exploratory research. Shin (2001) and Nijssen and Douglas (2004) adapted the original scale as well, but did not measure general animosity. The original measurement items and examples of their adaptations are presented in Table 4. Other authors (e.g., Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Funk et al., 2010; Hinck, 2005; Russell & Russell, 2006) applied shortened versions of the original animosity scale. Furthermore, they did not distinguish between general, war and economic animosity. Three examples of such shortened scales are presented in Table 5.

Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007, pp. 106–107, 113) emphasized the necessity of creating a measurement scale for each combination of countries separately (*emic approach*). They argue that it is not appropriate to measure animosity for different countries in different contexts by using one single scale. Furthermore, they suggest the multiple indicators – multiple causes (MIMIC) approach whereby different reasons for animosity toward different countries are identified based on prior exploratory research. This suggestion was, to the best of our knowledge, substantiated by only two studies. Firstly, Maher and Mady (2010) conducted an exploratory study in which they identified reasons for Kuwaitis' animosity toward Denmark. Based on these findings, they measured consumer animosity by developing items in an emic manner. Secondly, Nes et al. (2011) conducted exploratory research in order to identify the

most disliked countries and reasons for such dislike among a sample of Norwegians and Americans. The analysis of the qualitative responses led the authors to specify four dimensions of animosity: economic, people, politics/government and military/war animosity.

Table 4: Original measurement of consumer animosity and examples of its adaptations

Animosity dimensions	Original scale (Klein et al., 1998)	Specifically developed scale (Klein, 2002)	Adapted scale (Rose et al., 2009)	Adapted scale (Shin, 2001)
General animosity	I dislike the Japanese.	I feel angry towards Japan. I like Japan. I do not like Japan.	I dislike Italy.	-
War animosity	I feel angry toward the Japanese. I will never forgive Japan for the Nanjing Massacre. Japan should pay for what it did to Nanjing during the occupation.	I still feel angry towards Japan because of WWII. We should not forget the atrocities committed by Japan during WWII. I cannot forgive Japan for bombing Pearl Harbor.	I feel angry toward the Italians. I will never forgive the Italians for what they did in the Second World War. Italy should pay for what they did in the Second World War.	I feel angry toward the Japanese. I will never forgive Japan for such war crimes as "comfort women." Japan should pay for what it did to Korea during the occupation.
Economic animosity	Japan is not a reliable trading partner. Japan wants to gain economic power over China. Japan is taking advantage of China. Japan has too much economic influence in China. The Japanese are doing business unfairly with China.	Japan is taking advantage of the U.S. I feel angry towards Japan because of the way they have conducted trade with the United States. The U.S. is more fair in its trade dealings with Japan than Japan is with the U.S.	Italy is not a reliable trading partner. Italy wants to gain economic power over Israel. Italy is taking advantage of Israel. Italy has too much economic influence in Israel. Italy is doing business unfairly with other Israelis.	Japan is not a reliable trading partner. Japan wants to gain economic power over Korea. Japan is taking advantage of Korea. Japan has too much economic influence in Korea. The Japanese are doing business unfairly with Korea.

Table 5: Shortened animosity scales

Animosity toward France (Ettenson & Klein, 2005)	Animosity toward Canada	Animosity toward Iran	Animosity toward India	Domestic animosity in Germany (Hinck, 2005)
	(Funk et al., 2010)			
I feel angry towards France.	I do not like Canada.	I do not like Iran.	I do not like India.	The Alte Länder want to gain power over the Neue Länder.
France's recent nuclear testing was an act of aggression in the South Pacific.	I feel angry toward Canada.	I feel angry toward Iran.	I feel that India is taking advantage of the US.	The Alte Länder are taking advantage of the Neue Länder.
France does not care what Australia or other nations think of its actions.	I feel angry toward Canada because of their dependence on the US for their national security.	I feel angry toward Iran because they are not negotiating in good faith on the issue of nuclear weapons.	I cannot forgive India for their participation in outsourcing from US companies.	The Alte Länder have too much influence in the Neue Länder.
I will never forgive France for its nuclear testing in the South Pacific.	I cannot forgive Canada for their failure to support the US in the international arena.	I cannot forgive Iran for their taking of US hostages in 1979.	I cannot forgive India for their neglect of fair dealings with the US in the economic arena.	The Alte Länder are unfair with the Neue Länder.

Hoffmann et al. (2011) adopted a completely different approach. Contrary to Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007), who suggested investigating country-specific causes of animosity, they posited that *universal drivers* of animosity exist and therefore proposed an *etic approach*. In order for cross-national investigations of consumer animosity to be possible, they suggested a measurement that is applicable to respondents from different home countries to different animosity target countries. Three universal drivers that mediate the influence of specific causes on general animosity were identified: (1) perceived threat, (2) antithetical

political attitudes and (3) negative personal experiences. Indicators of general animosity were adopted from Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007). The proposed scale (see Table 6) appears promising since it could enable researchers to make international comparisons. However, so far no replication studies have been done in other settings. Additionally, there has not yet been any response in the academic sphere to the authors' universal scale of consumer animosity.

Table 6: Cross-nationally stable scale of consumer animosity by Hoffmann et al.

General animosity	Perceived threat	Antithetical political attitudes	Negative personal experiences
I feel anger toward XY.	I feel threatened by XY (war animosity).	I disapprove of the politics of XY (political animosity).	Personally, I have had bad experiences with XY (personal animosity).
I dislike country XY.	The influence of politicians from XY on our country is too strong (political animosity).	I often disagree with the political attitude of XY (political animosity).	So far, I met only a few sympathetic persons from XY (personal animosity).
	XY intends to dominate our country economically (economic animosity).		

Source: S. Hoffmann et al., Development and validation of a cross-nationally stable scale of consumer animosity, 2011, p. 239.

1.4 Consumer affinity

Consumer affinity reflects positive attitudes toward a specific foreign country. It is based purely on the affective aspect of country of origin (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011, pp. 61–62) meaning that it has a symbolic and emotional value for consumers (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 524). Consumer affinity was introduced into the international marketing literature by Oberecker et al. (2008, p. 26) and is defined as:

> A feeling of liking, sympathy, and even attachment toward a specific foreign country that has become an in-group as a result of the consumer's direct personal experience and/or normative exposure and that positively affects the consumer's decision making associated with products and services originating from the affinity country.

Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001, pp. 81–82) argued that consumer affinity and animosity are opposite poles of the same continuum since they measure positive and negative country-specific feelings, respectively. Oberecker et al. (2008, pp. 29, 33, 35, 47), on the other hand, posit that the two constructs are independent and distinct because the drivers of consumer affinity are different from sources of consumer animosity. They distinguished between two groups of drivers of affinity. **Macro drivers** comprise country characteristics (lifestyle, scenery, culture, politics and economics) and may or may not be personally experienced. **Micro drivers** describe people's individual interaction with a specific country and are based on direct personal experience such as staying in, traveling to the country or having contact with its inhabitants. *Qualitative research* by Oberecker et al. (2008) revealed that lifestyle and scenery are key drivers of consumer affinity. Furthermore, the interviewees' affinity feelings were based mainly on personal experience. Moreover, it was found that cultural similarity and cultural dissimilarity (when comparing the domestic and foreign countries) are equally valid reasons for affinity toward a particular foreign country.

The consumer affinity measurement scale was developed and tested for validity and reliability by Oberecker and Diamantopoulos (2011). The authors identified two affinity dimensions:

sympathy and *attachment*. The former captures a lower positive affect or "softer" emotions, i.e., pleasant feelings, feelings of sympathy and liking. The latter dimension captures a higher positive affect or more intense emotions, i.e., captivation, love, feelings of attachment and inspiration (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011, pp. 48, 53–54).

With regard to the effect of consumer affinity on foreign purchase behavior, Oberecker et al. (2008, pp. 36–38, 43) found that positive feelings do not automatically result in favorable product judgment. Furthermore, consumer affinity does not translate into unconditional preference for products from the affinity country. Other product attributes are also important, e.g., quality, price and brand. Nevertheless, the authors found that some consumers are inclined to buy products from affinity countries in order to maintain a connection with that country or to lower the perceived purchase risk. Some were even prepared to pay a higher price for such products. A more recent *quantitative study* conducted by Oberecker and Diamantopoulos (2011, pp. 59–60) revealed that consumer affinity positively affects not only Austrian consumers' willingness to buy products from the affinity country but also their intentions to visit it and invest there.

2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH OF CONSUMER ANIMOSITY IN SLOVENIA

In the second part of the Master's thesis, we collected primary data by conducting an explorative qualitative research study. This is in line with recent research, e.g., Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007) and Nes et al. (2011), who recommended that prior to quantitative research, a qualitative pre-study should be done in order to identify animosity targets in a certain setting and reasons that lead to it. The aforementioned authors argued that in most prior research, it was the researchers themselves who selected the animosity targets and reasons for animosity without previously having engaged in exploratory research, thus leading to limited understanding of the consumer animosity concept. Moreover, Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007, pp. 106–107) argue that consumer animosity in different settings cannot be measured by a single measurement scale. They explicitly advocate the emic approach, which requires the use of a tailored measurement scale for each combination of countries. Following the authors' advice, we developed our own scale for measuring consumer animosity based on the data gathered from our exploratory study. The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is a worthy addition to our research since the use of quantitative methods helps us to establish relationships between variables, whereas the use of qualitative methods helps us to identify the underlying reasons for these relationships (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009, pp. 322–323).

2.1 Qualitative research methodology

The design stage of our research encompassed a set of important decisions such as the type of information that will be gathered, where the research will be conducted, and among what

group of people (Berg, 2001, p. 28). All the aforementioned decisions were closely tied to the objectives of our qualitative research, which were as follows: (1) to identify animosity targets, (2) to discover reasons for animosity and (3) to understand situations, in which animosity might affect foreign product purchase. The obtained information also helped us to determine whether consumer animosity exists among our interviewees, and contributed to an increased understanding of this phenomenon. Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007, p. 114) proposed exploratory consumer surveys, focus groups and/or depth interviews as methods of revealing feelings of animosity. We decided to address this research problem by conducting **face-to-face in-depth interviews** rather than focus groups because animosity is a very personal topic. We feared that participants would not be comfortable speaking about animosity feelings in the presence of others. Additionally, focus groups can become influenced by opinions of one or two dominant participants, resulting in a biased group opinion.

Before we started with the actual data collection, we carried out a pretest by conducting 14 interviews.[2] The interviewees were between 17 and 75 years old, eight of them were male and six female. When asked about their affinity countries the interviewees were pleasantly surprised and were enthusiastic about naming them and explaining the reasons why they liked them. After this question was asked, a positive bond between the interviewer and interviewee was established, which made it easier to ask the second question about animosity countries and reasons for disliking these countries. Nevertheless, interviewees were generally reluctant to speak about countries they dislike and tended to provide vague answers. The pretest was a useful exercise because we were able to prepare ourselves better for the subsequent interviews. Indeed, we devoted considerable attention to the type of information that will be gathered. The questions were carefully formulated and accompanied by precise guidelines for conducting the interviews (see Appendix A). The study setting was determined by selecting a location where access was possible and where the appropriate participants (target population) were likely to be available (Berg, 2001, p. 29).

2.1.1 Data collection

The planned sample was to conduct 60 interviews in four Slovenian regions: (1) the central part of Slovenia, (2) the northeastern part of Slovenia, (3) the southeastern part of Slovenia and (4) the western part of Slovenia. During the actual fieldwork, we were advised by local population in northeastern Slovenia that we should consider treating the tri-border area as a separate region because we might find it different compared to the rest of northeastern Slovenia, especially because of the proximity to three bordering countries. Thus, we decided to also include the tri-border area in our qualitative research. In fact, samples in qualitative studies are seldom specified in advance and may evolve once the fieldwork has begun (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 27). The in-depth semi-structured interviews were therefore conducted in five regions, each of which has been historically, geographically and socially attached to different events and foreign countries. Based on these differences, we assumed that the results

[2] The content of these interviews was not included in the main analysis of qualitative data.

of the qualitative study might vary among consumers coming from different parts of Slovenia. Thus, in this research, we covered the following regions in Slovenia:

- the central part of Slovenia (this region includes Domžale, Ig, Kamnik, Lavrica, Litija, Ljubljana, Šmarje Sap, Vodice),
- the northeastern part of Slovenia (this region includes Celje, Dravograd, Laško, Maribor, Ptuj, Slovenske Konjice, Šentilj),
- the tri-border area in the far northeastern part of Slovenia (this region includes Gornja Radgona, Krapje, Lendava, Moravske Toplice, Murska Sobota, Ormož, Radenci, Sveti Jurij ob Ščavnici, Tišina),
- the southeastern part of Slovenia (this region includes Cerklje ob Krki, Črnomelj, Kostanjevica na Krki, Krško, Leskovec, Metlika, Novo mesto),
- the western part of Slovenia (this region includes Ajdovščina, Ankaran, Divača, Ilirska Bistrica, Izola, Koper, Nova Gorica, Sežana, Vremski Britof).

When conducting qualitative research, it is often the case that non-probability sampling techniques are applied (Berg, 2001, p. 32). We obtained the interviewees through our personal contacts (friends, colleagues and relatives) as well as in cooperation with several Slovenian companies.[3] We utilized the *maximum variation (heterogeneity) type of sampling* (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 28; Patton, 2002, pp. 234–235) by selecting the interviewees carefully in order to match various demographic requirements such as age, gender and education. Altogether, we conducted 82 face-to-face interviews in the period between January 13th and March 18th 2012. The interviews were conducted in the Slovenian language. A translation of guidelines for conducting the in-depth semi-structured interviews is presented in Appendix A. Prior to the interview, each interviewee was informed about the purpose of our research and how the collected data would be used. We assured the interviewees that their identity would not be exposed at any time. All interviewees gave consent to record the conversations. The total duration of the interviews was 29 hours, 8 minutes and 52 seconds. The average duration of an interview was 21:20 minutes, ranging from 5:34 to 48:02 minutes.

Each interview began by asking the interviewees to name countries they like the most and their reasons for sympathy toward these countries. Afterwards, we turned our attention to the animosity topic in such a way that we did not directly ask the interviewees about feelings of hostility, hatred or animosity. Rather than that, we formulated the question more carefully and asked about less intense feelings, such as "countries they are not too fond of" or "countries they find less appealing". Nevertheless, interviewees were generally less willing to talk about negative feelings, immediately providing various justifications for their feelings of dislike. Eleven out of 82 interviewees were very evasive and refused to name any disliked countries, two of which failed to mention either animosity or affinity countries.

In the second part of the interview, we asked the interviewees about their purchase behavior, e.g., whether they paid attention to the origin of products they buy, which information cues

[3] The names of the companies are not revealed because we ensured the interviewees strict confidentiality.

are important when buying food, clothes, shoes, cosmetics, cleaning products and durable goods. In the end, each interviewee was presented with a brief hypothetical situation of choosing between equal refrigerators which differ by country of origin. One of the choices was usually a Slovenian refrigerator and a refrigerator from a 'neutral' country, while the other countries were adapted, i.e., they were selected based on the affinity and animosity countries the interviewees specified earlier in the interview. The answer to this question helped us to determine whether consumer animosity, consumer affinity or consumer ethnocentrism affect interviewees' willingness to buy.

2.1.2 Analytical techniques

After we finished collecting primary data, we proceeded with data analysis. We first focused on transforming the raw data into coded data. We processed all the data manually which proved to be an interesting, yet laborious and time consuming task given the large number of interviews conducted. Indeed, Basit (2003, p. 152) suggests the use of software packages when a large number of interviews are to be analyzed. In the first step of transforming the data, we prepared a worksheet in which we entered all the relevant information. Apart from basic data (name of interviewee,[4] file name, demographic data), our worksheet included the main topics of the interviews. The topics (codes) were labeled as follows: affinity countries, reasons for affinity, animosity countries, reasons for animosity, effect of affinity/animosity on purchase behavior, purchase behavior in product categories of food, textiles/shoes, cosmetics/cleaning products and durables, consumer ethnocentrism and product category, refrigerator scenario. In order to reduce subjectivity from the data analysis, we independently listened to audio recordings. After each recording, we discussed and compared our notes and listened to it once again. We paid special attention to those parts of interviews where our interpretations had previously differed. When a satisfactory agreement on the interpretation of data was arrived at, we filled out the worksheet with relevant data in the form of concise summaries and partly in the form of direct quotations. While writing up the summaries, we were careful to use as much of the original interviewees' terminology as possible. The reduction of the voluminous qualitative data obtained from the interviews was necessary in order to make the data more readily accessible, understandable, manageable and organized. This process is known as *data reduction* (Berg, 2001, p. 35).

Following Miles and Huberman's (1994) *two-stage approach*, the next step of our data analysis comprised a content analysis of our notes. The primary unit of analysis was an individual person, i.e., one interviewee. In the first step, we performed a *within-case analysis* in which we focused on each interviewee separately. In the second step, we performed a *cross-case analysis* in which we compared the similarities and differences between interviewees. The cross-case analysis enabled us to quantify the data to some extent, e.g., compare the demographic data of interviewees by region, calculate the total number of affinity/animosity countries and count the reasons for affinity/animosity. Otherwise, we

[4] In order to ensure confidentiality, each interviewee was given a fictitious name.

intentionally avoided too much quantification of data because this is not the purpose of a qualitative inquiry. Although numbers and percentages may reveal interesting insights, the main idea of qualitative research is to find out *what* interviewees feel and *why* they feel that way (Basit, 2003, p. 151). By comparing the units of analysis, we searched for commonalities, differences and patterns, which enabled us to reach certain conclusions. Similarly, Berg (2001, p. 34) cautions that qualitative data can be handled neither quickly nor easily. Moreover, he emphasizes that numerous researchers make a common mistake of reducing qualitative data with the intention of quantitatively analyzing them.

We devoted special attention to the content analysis of reasons for affinity and animosity toward selected countries. The identification of these reasons was one of the main purposes of our qualitative research. Reasons for affinity were classified into categories based on the previous research by Oberecker et al. (2008). The nature of our data led us to form one additional category. Reasons for animosity were classified based on previous research (e.g., Hoffmann et al., 2011; Klein et al., 1998; Mostafa, 2010). Again, the data led us to create three more additional categories which are described later.

2.2 Characteristics of the sample

The distribution of interviewees by region and age is presented in Table 7. The youngest of the 82 interviewees was 18, whereas the oldest was 84 years old. The average age of the interviewees was 44.1 years.

Table 7: Total number of interviewees and average age by region

	Total	Central Slovenia	Northeastern Slovenia	Tri-border area	Southeastern Slovenia	Western Slovenia
No. of interviewees	82	20	15	13	16	18
Average age	44.1	44.7	38.3	40.9	47.6	47.5

Table 8 presents the distribution of interviewees by gender, education, work status and income. Asking the interviewees about their household's income turned out to be an uncomfortable question. The interviewees could not answer this question anonymously since they filled out the demographic data in our presence. Consequently, a large majority (78.0%) placed themselves in the middle income bracket. Although we attempted to form a heterogeneous sample, it is not perfect. For example, female interviewees were more willing to participate in the interviews and as a result we interviewed more females (65.9%) than males (34.1%). Furthermore, the majority of our sample (63.4%) consists of interviewees that have completed at least university education. Additionally, we were not able to obtain any unemployed interviewees, or interviewees who work in a household or on a farm. Nevertheless, we consider the sample to be good enough for the purpose of our research as it enables us to capture a variety of different profiles and personal experiences. The achieved sample is thus the best possible compromise given our time and financial constraints.

Table 8: Demographic characteristics of interviewees by region

Demographic characteristics		Number of interviewees						Percentage of interviewees					
		Total	Central Slovenia	Northeastern Slovenia	Tri-border area	Southeastern Slovenia	Western Slovenia	Total	Central Slovenia	Northeastern Slovenia	Tri-border area	Southeastern Slovenia	Western Slovenia
Gender	Female	54	13	10	9	8	14	65.9	65.0	66.7	69.2	50.0	77.8
	Male	28	7	5	4	8	4	34.1	35.0	33.3	30.8	50.0	22.2
Education	Elementary education or less	4	1	0	2	1	0	4.9	5.0	0.0	15.4	6.3	0.0
	Secondary education	26	6	4	4	7	5	31.7	30.0	26.7	30.8	43.8	27.8
	University education or more	52	13	11	7	8	13	63.4	65.0	73.3	53.8	50.0	72.2
Work status	Student	10	1	3	1	3	2	12.2	5.0	20.0	7.7	18.8	11.1
	Employed or self-employed	60	17	11	11	8	13	73.2	85.0	73.3	84.6	50.0	72.2
	Retired	12	2	1	1	5	3	14.6	10.0	6.7	7.7	31.3	16.7
Income	Below average	3	0	0	1	1	1	3.7	0.0	0.0	7.7	6.3	5.6
	Average	64	16	12	11	11	14	78.0	80.0	80.0	84.6	68.8	77.8
	Above average	15	4	3	1	4	3	18.3	20.0	20.0	7.7	25.0	16.7

2.3 Consumer affinity in Slovenia

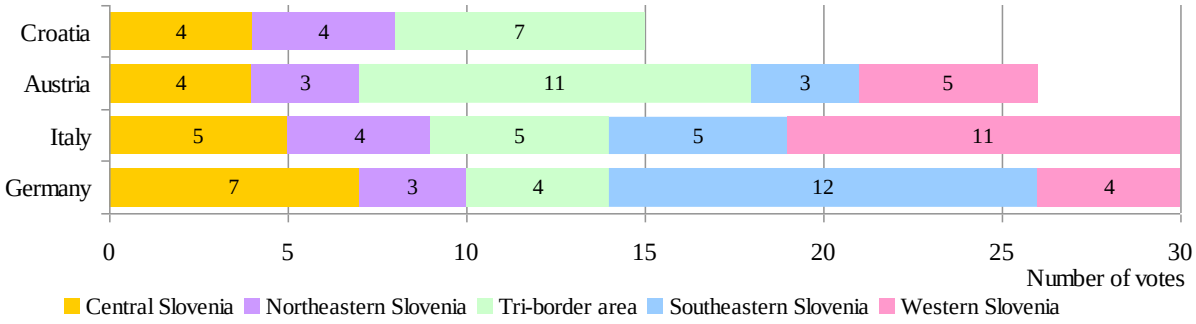
Altogether, the interviewees listed 40 countries, among which they distributed 279 votes. Positive feelings toward the first ten countries are based mainly on personal experience, i.e., interviewees have traveled to those countries or they lived there for some time. Table 9 shows that Italy and Germany are top affinity countries, closely followed by Austria, while Croatia is ranked fourth. These results are not surprising since all four countries have traditionally had close historical and economic ties with Slovenia and its inhabitants. Additionally, Italy, Austria and Croatia are neighboring countries.

Table 9: List of affinity countries

Country	No. of votes	Country	No. of votes	Country	No. of votes	Country	No. of votes
Germany	30	Australia	8	Portugal	5	Tunisia	2
Italy	30	Norway	8	Czech Republic	4	Turkey	2
Austria	26	Sweden	8	Ireland	4	Cuba	1
Croatia	15	Canada	7	Belgium	3	Cyprus	1
France	14	Denmark	7	Brazil	3	Egypt	1
Spain	14	Greece	7	Hungary	3	Iceland	1
United Kingdom	12	Bosnia & Herzegovina	6	China	2	India	1
Switzerland	10	Finland	6	Japan	2	Indonesia (Bali)	1
Netherlands	9	Serbia	6	Montenegro	2	Macedonia	1
USA	9	New Zealand	5	Nepal	2	Thailand	1

Figure 5 shows there are large differences in the distribution of affinity countries between Slovenian regions.[5] Germany is an affinity country in all five regions, but it is most popular in southeastern (12 out of 16 people) and central (7 out of 20 people) Slovenia. Italy is by far the most popular in western Slovenia (11 out of 18 people), although it is also mentioned by interviewees in all other regions. Austria is an affinity country in all five regions, but it is an absolute affinity winner in the tri-border area (11 out of 13 people). More than half of the interviewees in the tri-border area mentioned Croatia as an affinity country, but surprisingly, not a single interviewee mentioned Croatia as an affinity country in southeastern or western Slovenia.

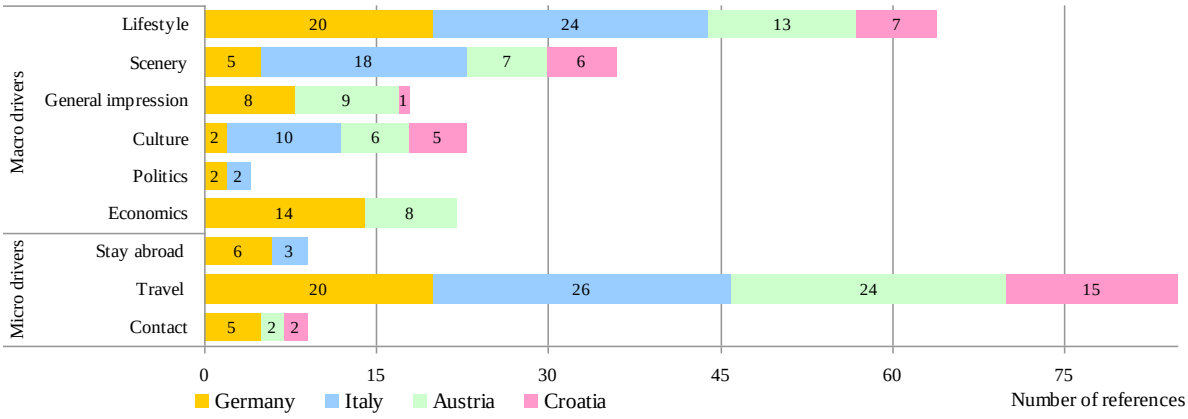
Figure 5: Distribution of votes for top four affinity countries by region



2.3.1 Reasons for consumer affinity

Since feelings of affinity are unique to each person, it is important to allow the interviewees to name their favorite country themselves rather than predetermining affinity countries and imposing them on all interviewees (Oberecker & Diamantopoulos, 2011, p. 53). Thus, when asked to name affinity countries and sources of their positive feelings, the interviewees were free to list as many countries and reasons as they desired. Consequently, we obtained a comprehensive and diverse set of reasons for feelings of affinity. We decided to include four top affinity countries in further analysis. A summary of reasons for affinity toward Germany, Italy, Austria and Croatia is presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Reasons for affinity toward selected countries by number of references



[5] A table with a full distribution of votes according to region is presented in Appendix B.

The reasons for affinity can be divided into two broad categories: macro and micro drivers. Macro drivers consist of lifestyle, scenery, general impression,[6] culture, politics and economics. Lifestyle refers to tangible realities. It includes the way of living, mentality and personality of people which are considered typical of the inhabitants of a particular country (Oberecker et al., 2008, p. 32). Based on the number of interviewees' references, lifestyle is the most important macro driver of consumer affinity for all four countries (see Figure 6). Interviewees referred to four subcategories of lifestyle, i.e., people and mentality, lifestyle in general, language and cuisine (see Table 10). In particular, interviewees mentioned the people and their mentality for all four countries. Germans and Austrians are considered to be hard-working and disciplined, but open, polite and helpful at the same time. For example, Daniel (48, SE Slovenia) said:

> I like Austria and Germany because the people are tidy and disciplined. My father worked in Germany for a long time and I noticed how he got used to order. For example, the work they [Germans] do is done in a good and precise manner. They don't litter, they are disciplined, also very kind and well-mannered. You will seldom hear anybody swearing or shouting.

On the contrary, Italians and Croats are liked because of their temperament, liveliness, openness and relaxed stance. Valentin (30, SE Slovenia) explained:

> I think the people [Italians] are really unique. It's very hard to get to know people, but once you come to know them, they really embrace you. They're very warm and fun. They like to have a good time and are not so stuck up.

With the exception of Austria, interviewees mentioned lifestyle in general as well. For German lifestyle in general, Sergej (59, Central Slovenia) said:

> I lived in Germany 40 years ago and at that time life was perhaps a bit more comfortable. Their way of life … even if you have to work throughout the day, you can still have a nice time in the evening. Not just restaurants, bars and shops, there's a variety of everything and you can compensate for working all day … you aren't deprived of entertainment.

Several interviewees were keen to mention the special Italian lifestyle, e.g., Zoja (74, SE Slovenia):

> In general, I like the Italian way of living … they're never in a hurry, they have their own style of living and I like that very much. They aren't stressed out that much, they have a more relaxed way of living.

Vilma (46, W Slovenia) likes Italy because:

> […] in some sense, it's their way of life. They take the weekends off, especially Sundays, at least here in the vicinity of Trieste … they take the Sundays off and devote them to their family. It seems like on that day the families are all together, they go out and also treat themselves to something good, even though I couldn't say that they are extravagant. They spend quality time with their loved ones. Sunday's a work-free day also here [in Slovenia], but we tend to spend Sundays running errands. They [Italians] hardly spend any time together during workdays because of their split shifts and then they really devote the Sundays to their families. I like it [Italy] … because of the lifestyle … these relaxed and peaceful Sundays.

The interviewees also pointed out easy communication in all four countries and good cuisine in Italy and Croatia.

[6] General impression is not part of the original macro drivers proposed by Oberecker et al. (2008). We added this driver in order to classify the interviewees' general perceptions of a country which could not be placed in any other original driver suggested by the authors.

Table 10: Reasons for affinity toward selected countries

Summary category		Subcategories	Germany	Italy	Austria	Croatia
Macro drivers	Lifestyle	People and mentality	Hardworking, thrifty, disciplined, persistent, accurate, organized, serious, formal, reliable, punctual, polite, kind, open, diligent, helpful; progressive mentality	Temperament; lively, relaxed, open, honest, kind, unique, warm, fun, pleasant, positive people	Kind, open, hospitable, honest, helpful, polite, disciplined, spontaneous people; progressive mentality, similar mentality	Relaxed, kind, helpful, open and cooperative people; Balkan temperament; similar mentality; more sincere relationship with people
		Lifestyle in general	Many social events, diverse lifestyle, quality of life, football, motorsports	Hedonistic lifestyle (*dolce vita*), fashion, customs, motorsports, sports	-	Relaxed lifestyle; positive attitude toward life
		Language	Knows the language, easy communication	Easy communication, lyrical language, easy to learn	Easy communication	Similar language, easy communication (no barriers)
		Cuisine	-	Tasty food and beverages	-	Good food
	Scenery	Landscape: difference and diversity	Beautiful nature and scenery, popular tourist destination	Beautiful scenery and landscape, beautiful seaside, many parks, popular tourist spot	Beautiful nature, scenery and mountains	Beautiful seaside, popular tourist destination
		Climate	-	Warm climate, sunny land	-	Pleasant climate
		Architecture	-	Beautiful, old cities, beautiful buildings	Vienna is charming; tourist attractions	-
	General impression	General perception of country	Orderly, tidy, safe, exemplary country	-	Orderly and tidy country	Orderly country
	Culture	History	Rich history	Cradle of history	-	Common country and history, nostalgia, memories of the past
		Culture and tradition	Rich culture	Literature, music, rich culture	Rich culture	-
		Cultural (dis)similarity	-	Geographical proximity, neighboring country	Cultural proximity	Cultural proximity; similar way of thinking
	Politics	Political situation	High level of democracy, immigrant policy	Relationship with Slovenians improving; pension benefits	-	-
	Economics	Economical situation	Developed, successful, advanced, progressive country, high living standard, stable and disciplined economy, technically advanced industry, rich supply, high quality of goods	-	Employment opportunities, higher salaries, business cooperation, technically advanced, high living standard, rich supply of products and services	-
Micro drivers	Stay abroad	Lived there / long-term stay	Memories of living and working there	Pleasant memories of living there	-	-
	Travel	Holiday experiences	Trips, holidays	Shopping, trips, holidays	Shopping, trips, holidays	Summer holidays
		Geographical distance	-	Physical proximity, neighboring country, lives near the border	Physical proximity, neighboring country	Physical proximity, neighboring country, lives near the border
	Contact	Friends	Has friends there	-	Has friends there	-
		Relatives	Has relatives there	-	-	Has relatives there

Scenery is an important macro driver for consumer affinity toward Italy and Croatia. According to our interviewees both countries have beautiful scenery and nature, and are popular tourist destinations. Italy and Croatia are also appreciated because of their warm and pleasant climate. Additionally, Italy is admired because of its architecture, ancient cities and picturesque buildings. It is referred to as a cradle of history with a rich cultural heritage (literature, music, art). Croatia is appreciated because of the fact that Slovenia and Croatia used to be part of Yugoslavia. Memories of past times and nostalgia are still present in the

interviewees' minds. Cultural proximity is also important, e.g., David (38, Central Slovenia) likes Croatia because:

> The mentality of people [Croats] is similar to ours [Slovenians] and to the way I perceive myself. I find it easy to get along with the people because I think in a similar way. This is the key reason. There's a kind of common thread to all this, to attitude toward life. The relationships are more sincere and intense.

Interviewees living close to the Italian or Austrian border pointed out cultural similarity as well, e.g., Tea (51, W Slovenia): "We [Slovenians] are kind of similar to the Italians, since we live near the border. We are kind of blended with Italians, we are more 'Italianized', aren't we?" Benjamin (36, Tri-border area), when speaking about reasons for affinity toward Austria, said: "First of all, proximity. Second, a very similar way of living and thinking. They are similar to us [Slovenians], especially in the part where we live. After all, the language as well."

In contrast to Croatia and Italy, the interviewees considered the economic situation in Germany and Austria to be more important than scenery. Germany was frequently admired because of its success and high level of technical development, as Beti (39, SE Slovenia) eloquently stated:

> If I think about the past, I admire Germany's success today compared to the devastating situation after World War II. Slovenia's far from that kind of success … there's something about Germany and its achievement … it's sustainable because of their seriousness and wise economy.

Interviewees value Austria because of its employment opportunities, higher salaries and diverse supply of products and services. Both Austria and Germany are perceived as orderly and tidy countries.

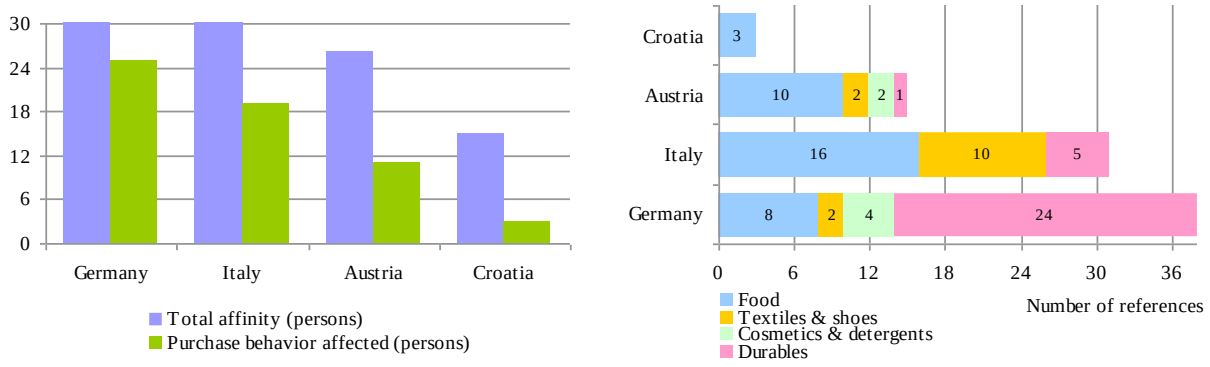
Micro sources of consumer affinity consist of three categories: stay abroad, travel and contact. Personal experience of traveling to a country or staying there for a longer period of time is an important source of affinity feelings (Oberecker et al., 2008, p. 34). Indeed, personal experience is a crucial driver of affinity for all four countries (only one interviewee whose affinity country is Italy had no personal experience). Traveling to all four countries was mentioned by a large majority of our interviewees. Additionally, six interviewees also stayed/lived in Germany and three in Italy for a longer period of time, whereas several interviewees had contact with the affinity countries via friends or relatives.

2.3.2 Effects of consumer affinity on purchase behavior

Figure 7 shows that the influence of consumer affinity on purchase behavior is the strongest in the case of Germany. This effect is also strong among interviewees who harbor affinity feelings toward Italy, moderate for Austria, whereas it is very small in the case of Croatia. There is an interesting distinction between consumer affinity toward Germany and Italy. Consumer affinity toward Germany is mostly reflected on durable goods and less on food. Consumer affinity toward Italy is most obvious in the category of food products, followed by the category of clothes and shoes, whereas it is low in the category of durable products. In the

case of Austria, consumer affinity is most noticeable in the food category and very slight in all other categories. For Croatia, we observed consumer affinity only in the food category.

Figure 7: Effect of affinity on purchase behavior by person and product category



We discovered that the interviewees' decision to buy durable goods is a more rational cognitive process as compared to the purchase of nondurable goods. This is understandable because durable products usually represent a higher proportion of consumer disposable incomes. Additionally, durables are not purchased frequently, so the decision to buy them is well thought out. Before they make their decision, the interviewees tend to seek additional information such as opinions and experience of other people (friends, relatives, sales assistants, internet forums and blogs), technical details about the product, after-sales service and warranty period. The interviewees also rely on their past positive or negative experience with a certain durable product. At the same time the interviewees also consider other extrinsic cues, e.g., price, the reputation of the brand, its country of origin and country of assembly. Nevertheless, a number of interviewees stated that they bought a certain durable product simply because it is German. They trust German products, e.g., Patricija (49, Central Slovenia): "As far as household appliances are concerned, I definitely trust Germans the most." Furthermore, they believe that the fact the product is German will assure them high quality, reliability and satisfaction. Ingrid (25, NE Slovenia) said: "My past experience with purchase of German-made products […] they are an example of durable quality." In fact, all 24 of the 30 interviewees who favor German durables perceive them to be of high quality. As Anita (46, W Slovenia) explained: "We also have a Passat [German car] and we say that 'obviously Hans will always roll' … he doesn't lack a single thing." This is not surprising, since a frequently cited reason for affinity toward Germany is in fact Germany's high economic development (technically advanced industry and high quality of goods). At this point, we find it very difficult to explain whether the preference to buy German is based on consumer affinity toward that country or whether it is shaped by product-country image which also contains widely shared cultural stereotypes (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 525). For example, Dominik (33, NE Slovenia) prefers German-made durables even though Germany is not listed as his affinity country: "With regard to the shopping of products, I, of course, value Germany as a stereotypical country with high-quality products …" We conclude that country of origin definitely has an effect on preference to purchase German durables. On the one hand, interviewees buy German durables because they like Germany and feel a sense of

attachment to it (consumer affinity). Besides that, Germany has all the prerequisites (economically developed, educated and precise workforce) to produce excellent technical products of high quality (product-country image) (see Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999, p. 525).

Italian durable goods, on the other hand, are not highly appreciated. Only five interviewees said they buy Italian durables which they consider to be of high quality. All the other interviewees (even the consumers who listed Italy as an affinity country and purchase Italian food) said they do not buy Italian durables and five interviewees mentioned that they associate Italian origin with low quality. For example Stela (41, NE Slovenia), when asked whether she would prefer an Italian refrigerator to a Chinese one, said:[7]

> In this case I'd rather buy a Chinese refrigerator. The Italians are kind of relaxed which is what I actually like about them. But I'd prefer a Chinese refrigerator because I think they [the Chinese] have a better feeling for business. They'd sell their soul to the devil in order to do business, so I have a feeling that their refrigerator would be of higher quality than the Italian one. Italians are kind of easy-going and even though I like them very much, I don't consider them being too precise.

We did not observe any consumer affinity with regard to Austrian durables with the exception of one interviewee who owns an Austrian kitchen which she considers to be of very high quality.

The purchase of nondurable products seems to be a more emotional decision, especially the category of food which is connected with esthetics and sensations such as smell, sight, taste and touch. These everyday products compose a lower proportion of interviewees' income, so there is more leeway for making a purchase decision based on feelings. The reasons for buying food differ among interviewees. Some buy it because they have positive associations when thinking about a country, e.g., Stela (41, NE Slovenia):

> There's a shop called Toscana … I could virtually buy the whole store because I adore it so much and because Italy is such a fine and sunny country. If somebody was to ask me whether I'd shop there or in Mercator, I'd definitely prefer Toscana.

Others buy food because it reminds them of their personal experience of living in that country, e.g., Valentin (30, SE Slovenia):

> Actually, since I came back from Germany, I've been purchasing Tschibo coffee, which I liked and got used to while I was there. Now, it's available here [in Slovenia] and I buy it because it reminds me of the time I spent in Germany. Also, it's affordable and I like the taste, so I started buying it. […] Now we also have Backwerk in Slovenia. When I was in Germany, I really liked buying pretzels because you can't buy such fine pretzels here. And Backwerk is a German bakery and they have really good pretzels.

Others have positive associations toward a country because of their childhood memories, even though they never lived in that country, e.g., Lucija (29, NE Slovenia):

> I have warm memories of when I was a child and we used to shop in Austria. They had those small pink and white candies called Mini Mint. My grandmother used to buy them. And I still buy them today. When I see the Mini Mints in Slovenian shops, I recall our trips to Austria. And I still buy them because they remind me of Austria.

[7] Stela actually listed Italy as an affinity country and this affinity is reflected in the purchase of food products, but not on durables. Even more interestingly, China is her animosity country.

These sensory experiences and pleasant memories do not apply exclusively to food, but also to other product categories, e.g., Sergej (59, Central Slovenia) recalled the unique smell of German washing powder which still brings him memories of his childhood:

> I remember when my mother … when I was still very small … she got laundry detergent from Germany. Somebody used to bring it to her in these big cardboard boxes. And everybody used to ask me: "How come your clothes smell so nice?" I'd reply: "I don't know, my mom does the laundry, I don't have a clue which detergent she uses …" […] Really something unique … and after all this time, I remember that, and to this day I buy high-quality detergents [made in Germany]. And you don't have to put two scoops, you put only one and it's enough …

The reasons for affinity toward Italy lay mainly in the lifestyle and scenery category (the esthetics component was frequently mentioned, e.g., warm, sunny, hedonism, *dolce vita*, cuisine, architecture). Not surprisingly, affinity toward Italy is mainly manifested in the category of food which is in fact part of the lifestyle driver. Most of the interviewees who favor Italian food also consider it to be of high quality. We were also able to observe consumer affinity in the category of food for the other three countries; however it was not so strongly manifested (in frequency of purchase and positive product judgment) as it was in the case of Italy. However, there are some exceptions to that. David (38, Central Slovenia), for example, perceives Croatian food to be of high quality:[8]

> I have an extremely high opinion of the Croatian food industry and that is why I enjoy buying Croatian products … because I'm absolutely sure that they're tasty, high-quality and traditionally good … I consider the label 'made in Croatia' a sign that I'll most probably be satisfied with the food product I buy.

An interesting discovery is that Germany's superior economic development is not profoundly reflected on consumers' willingness to purchase German food products. In general, interviewees did not seem to have positive associations when thinking about food originating from Germany and the majority said they do not buy it. Two interviewees commented that the high level of development can translate into mass production of artificial food which they perceive to be of lower quality, e.g., Viktor (74, SE Slovenia) explained:

> As far as food is concerned, I'd say that food from our country, Slovenia, as well as Austria is of high-quality, but not food from Germany … it's already too developed … you know, how it is … artificial ingredients, chemicals … so I definitely have more trust in Slovenia and Austria.

Consumer affinity in the category of apparel and/or footwear is most obvious in the case of Italy. For example, Anita (46, W Slovenia) buys most of her clothes in Italy:

> There's a shop where I usually buy […] it's a shop in Trieste. I know that if I go there, I'll find at least three pieces of clothing that'll suit me … I could search in all the shops in Koper and Ljubljana, but I can't find something that fits me well … that suits me.

One third of the interviewees who listed Italy as an affinity country favored Italian clothes and/or shoes, half of whom consider Italian products to be of high quality. Since Italy is traditionally known for its superior design and fashion industry, we assume that preference to buy Italian-made products is a combination of both consumer affinity as well as positive product-country image in the apparel and footwear industry. Valentin (30, SE Slovenia) acknowledged the excellence of Italian design:

[8] In David's case, his affinity toward Croatia is not at all reflected in the purchase of Croatian durable goods.

> I really like Italian. My physical constitution is slim and they [Italians] have really very very good models. I'll always buy Nara Camicie shirts. No matter what, I'll buy them […]. Certain [Italian] brands … I love their design.

Consumer affinity toward Croatia in this product category is not mentioned at all, whereas there were only two references each for Austria and Germany. In the latter case, both interviewees consider German products to be of high quality, e.g., Zoja's (74, SE Slovenia) high opinion of German textiles: "Certain products from Germany … especially household items such as linen. I think they are of high quality. Not that we [in Slovenia] don't have good things, but certain products from Germany are really better that ours."

2.4 Consumer animosity in Slovenia

In total, the interviewees specified 48 countries, among which they distributed 196 votes. Table 11 shows that Hungary is the top animosity country, closely followed by Croatia, Italy and the USA. The most surprising finding of our research is the fact that Hungary ranked first among animosity countries. We perceived Hungary as Slovenia's only neighboring country, toward which Slovenians are neutral. We would have expected to discover greater animosity toward Slovenia's other three neighboring countries, since it has already had certain disputes with them.

Table 11: List of animosity countries

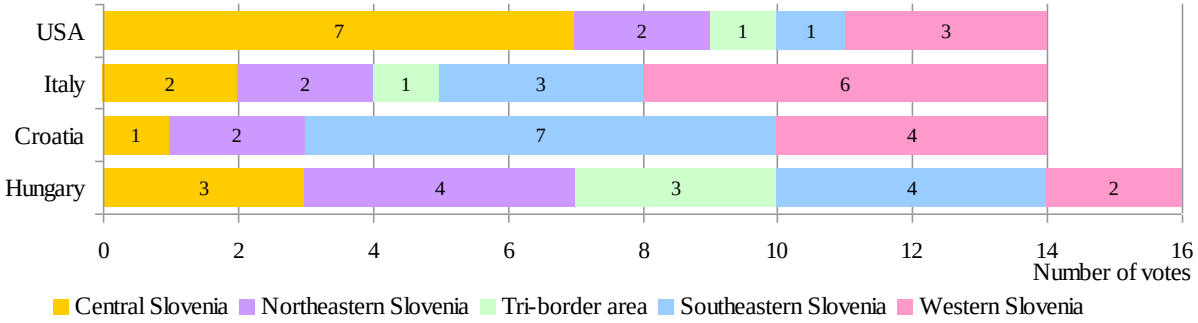
Country	No. of votes	Country	No. of votes	Country	No. of votes	Country	No. of votes
Hungary	16	Egypt	5	Azerbaijan	2	Lithuania	1
Croatia	14	Germany	5	France	2	Macedonia	1
Italy	14	Austria	4	Morocco	2	Malta	1
USA	14	Czech Republic	4	Norway	2	Mexico	1
Romania	13	Greece	4	Syria	2	North Korea	1
Turkey	9	Iran	4	Tunisia	2	Somalia	1
China	8	Poland	4	Ukraine	2	Sudan	1
India	8	Serbia	4	United Kingdom	2	Sweden	1
Bulgaria	6	Bosnia & Herzegovina	3	Belarus	1	Taiwan	1
Israel	6	Iraq	3	Brazil	1	Thailand	1
Russia	6	Pakistan	3	Denmark	1	United Arab Emirates	1
Afghanistan	5	Albania	2	Finland	1	Vietnam	1

Figure 8 shows there are, with the exception of Hungary, large differences in the distribution of animosity countries between Slovenian regions in our sample.[9] Hungary is an animosity country in all five regions and the distribution of votes is quite balanced.[10] Croatia is most disliked in southeastern (7 out of 16 people) and western (4 out of 18 people) Slovenia.

[9] A table with a full distribution of votes according to region is presented in Appendix C.
[10] Interestingly, Hungary appears as an affinity country only in the tri-border area (3 out of 13 people).

Interestingly, not a single interviewee mentioned Croatia as an animosity country in the tri-border area. Italy and the USA are animosity countries in all five Slovenian regions. Italy is most disliked in western Slovenia (6 out of 18 people), whereas the USA is most disliked in central Slovenia (7 out of 20 people).

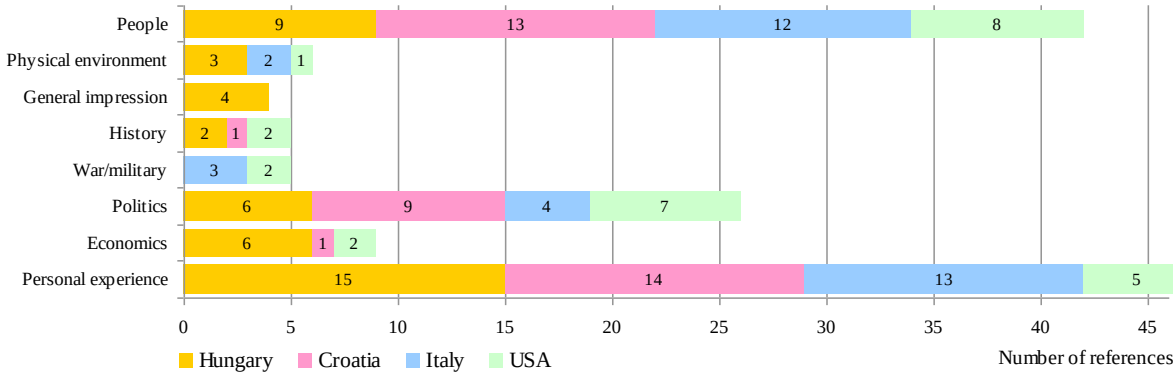
Figure 8: Distribution of votes for top four animosity countries by region



2.4.1 Reasons for consumer animosity

When asked to name animosity countries and sources of their negative feelings, the interviewees were free to list as many countries and reasons as they wished. Consequently, we obtained a comprehensive and diverse set of arguments. While classifying the reasons for animosity into categories, we considered the dimensions that were previously used in existing literature, i.e., war/military and economics dimension (e.g., Klein et al., 1998; Mostafa, 2010; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004), politics and people dimension (e.g., Nes et al., 2011; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007) and negative personal experiences (Hoffmann et al., 2011). Furthermore, the data we obtained from the interviews led us to form three new categories, namely physical environment, general impression and history. At this point, we turn our attention to a more detailed analysis of reasons for animosity toward the top four countries. A summary of reasons for animosity toward Hungary, Croatia, Italy and the USA is presented in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Reasons for animosity toward selected countries by number of references



Based on the interviewees' references, personal experience (combined with at least one other reason) is the main driver of animosity toward Hungary, Croatia and Italy. The second most

important reason is the people category. The responses regarding the people dimension were very diverse so, for the purpose of clarity, we introduced three subclasses as can be seen in Table 12.[11] The third most often mentioned reason lies in politics and, in the case of Hungary, economics. Additionally, the general impression category proved to be useful for classifying the intangible reasons of animosity toward Hungary (e.g., bad country, everything is grey and black). On the other hand, personal experience is not the most frequently mentioned driver in the case of the USA, since it is physically much more distant than the previously mentioned three neighboring countries. Consequently, the interviewees' opinion is mainly shaped by the influence of mass media and, to some extent, stereotypes. The most frequently mentioned reason for disliking the USA was the people category, followed by the (foreign) politics category.

Table 12: Reasons for animosity toward selected countries

Category	Subcategories	Hungary	Croatia	Italy	USA
People	People and mentality	Closed people, unpredictable, bad manners, they overcharge their goods/services, unusual mentality, temperament and behavior, more and more (gypsy) immigrants from Hungary in the EU	Selfish, arrogant, envious, self-sufficient, greedy, unpleasant, dishonest, unfriendly, inhospitable people; bad character, feeling of superiority compared to others; disregard others; immigrants do not learn Slovenian; inappropriate behavior and attitude toward Slovenians	Arrogant, cunning, inaccurate, sloppy, lazy, inadaptable, nervous, impatient, unreliable, unappealing, silly, whiny people; strange gypsy nation; wild, southern temperament; aggressive drivers; inappropriate behavior; corny and overly feminine men	Arrogant, careless, sloppy, self-sufficient, insincere, foolish, stupid people; feeling of superiority compared to others; character of people; hypocrites
	Lifestyle in general	Young people passive (legacy of socialism) and incapable of adapting to new and changed system	The further south you travel the lazier the people	-	Lavish, consumerism, instant culture, unrealistic portrayal of life, unattractive lifestyle
	Language	Hard to communicate, do not speak foreign languages, unattractive language, how they speak	Hard to communicate; they expect Slovenians to adapt to them	Hard to communicate; they expect Slovenians to adapt to them	The English language dominates, everybody has to adapt to them
Physical environment		Untidy and dirty country, untidy nature	-	Dirtiness, lack of hygiene	Concrete; many people, feeling of claustrophobia
General impression		Unappealing, strange vibration, gypsy country, old-fashioned, unsafe, bad, grey and black	-	-	-
History		Iron curtain	Always treated the Slovenians as servants	-	No history; imperialistic past
War/military		-	-	World War II (fascism, mobilization, bombing, hunger) and occupation	War industry; actively create conflicts and wars; killing machine
Politics		Politically unstable system; current domestic political situation which is getting worse; corruption and bribery of civil servants	Corruption, bribery of police officers, constant problems with all neighbors, border issues, gained territory at our expense; take care of themselves only	Berlusconi and right-wing politics, loose immigration policy, socio-political role of Italy, twisting of historical facts, political opportunism	Aggressive politics, superpower, the rest of the world is inferior to them (not concerned about others), support Israel; their means do not justify the ends
Economics		Low-quality goods, low economic development, low living standard, inadequate services and choice in restaurants	Higher prices compared to other countries	-	Concerned for their own capital only, exploit and hinder development of others, unequal criteria for different nations
Personal experience		Traveled there and did not like it; Hungarians wanted to mislead her	Traveled there; negative previous experience; bad memories of performing military service there	Traveled there; unpleasant previous experience	Traveled there, contact with people

[11] Although the three subcategories of people were proposed for the affinity construct (Oberecker et al., 2008), we found them to be useful also for the purpose of subcategorizing the animosity construct.

As far as personal experiences are concerned, these differ among interviewees, e.g., spending a longer period of time in the animosity country, short trips or visits, negative experience when traveling there or contact with people (the latter is particularly relevant for the USA). For example, Viktor (74, SE Slovenia) does not think fondly of the period he spent in Croatia:

> I served in the army in Croatia for two years, and there I realized what sort of nation they [Croats] are. We often say for ourselves [Slovenians] that we are envious of each other. The Croats don't say this about themselves, but I know that they are far worse than we are. They have their own way … they are dishonest people.

Even after more than half a century, Viktor's resentment toward Croatia is still present:

> I don't go to Croatia, even though we live close to the border. Other people shop in Samobor [Croatia], but I never visit Croatia. I hold a grudge against them. I got to know them in the two years I spent there and God forbid I'd have to live there.

Sara (48, NE Slovenia) simply did not enjoy her trip to Budapest:

> Hungary was unattractive. We went to Budapest once and I didn't like it at all. Both Vienna [Austria is her affinity country] and Budapest have similar architecture, but I disliked Budapest. I don't know how to describe that feeling other than to say that there was some kind of strange vibration there. If I were to compare Vienna and Budapest, I can hardly believe that they were both Austro-Hungarian cities. They [Hungarians] are kind of lame to me.

Janez (32, SE Slovenia) remembers the negative experience whilst in Italy:

> I was there three times […] the first time they mugged my friend. And then their behavior at the police station … they treated him as if it was his own fault, as if he had deliberately planned this. I think of them [Italians] negatively. They are a gypsy nation.

Interviewees frequently stressed Croats' inappropriate behavior toward Slovenians, e.g., Martin (35, W Slovenia) remembers his:

> […] negative personal experience when I went to Croatia. And this happened many times. We got ripped off. For example, you go to a pizzeria and they charge a different price than the one that is written in the menu. And when you complain, they say: "Well, we have different prices, they are above the counter. Those prices are valid, and not the ones on the table." What will you do? You start arguing with them and they say "Call whoever you want. I don't give a f***." That is what they say to you. [*Do you think they have such an attitude toward all tourists?*] Especially toward Slovenians. In their eyes you are not a tourist. You are a *Slovenian*.

Tea (51, W Slovenia) evoked her unpleasant memories:

> I wouldn't go to Croatia now, not even to the seaside. I haven't been there for ten years. We were there on holiday and we had negative experiences for two years in a row. When we came back, my husband and I said: "I won't set foot across the border for ten years", and we actually haven't since.

Stela (41, NE Slovenia) recalled her conversation with an American woman:

> Americans are self-sufficient. They think they needn't know much about others because, after all, they are the greatest. And others are not important to them. An American woman, I don't know exactly whether she was from California or New York, once asked me where I come from. I told her I was from Slovenia. And she asked me whether Slovenia was a place in California. They are kind of silly. I mean, California, come on, I was completely stunned. Actually, they are really stupid. I have a feeling they think they don't need to know anything, the whole world speaks English … they have everything they need and they don't have to know anything about others. On the other hand, everybody wants to go to Europe.

Negative sentiments toward people may stem from their mentality and behavior. Hungarians are perceived as closed, unpredictable and bad-mannered. Croats are viewed as selfish,

arrogant, envious, self-sufficient, greedy, inhospitable and unfriendly. Simon (64, W Slovenia) dislikes the Croats:

> First of all, for me, the people are, they are very … even when I go skiing, when I see them in Austria … such arrogant, such presumptuous people … you don't often have a chance to meet people like that. Four of them together … and there is already an alarm … when they are in a gondola or anywhere else … as if they were the only ones in this world.

Italians are thought to be arrogant, cunning, sloppy, impatient, unreliable, whiny, aggressive and fast drivers. Sara (48, NE Slovenia) said:

> The Italians are one of a kind. For me, a prototype of an Italian is the poor guy they've been lately constantly talking about … the captain of Costa Concordia. To me, all Italians are like him, even though I'm aware that not all are like that. […] They are kind of unreliable, charlatans … like this captain. I mean, one look at him is enough to say that you'll not cruise anywhere with him. Also, the Italians don't strike me as real men. An Italian is the kind of man that is too corny. And also the people … on the outside everything looks nice, but there's nothing in the inside.

Rudolf (36, Central Slovenia) is not fond of Italians either: "I don't like them because they are a bit too loud, their southern temperament doesn't suit me very much." He also has a negative opinion of Americans: "As I see it, they are the most two-faced nation in the world. They are the biggest hypocrites. How should I put it … everything they do is acceptable, but this does not apply to others." Other descriptions the interviewees used to portray Americans included adjectives such as arrogant, self-sufficient, foolish, stupid and careless.

Negative sentiments toward people are also driven by lifestyle in general. This component of the people category is most obvious in the case of the USA. We presume that the reason lies in greater cultural dissimilarity between Slovenia and the USA compared to the other three animosity countries. Flora (26, Tri-border area) emphasized the cultural differences:

> Maybe I have this image of consumerism and instant culture that is in dissonance with my life philosophy. Also generally, I feel very European. Maybe because of that I don't feel a connection … and I have already been to the USA, but …

Patricija (49, Central Slovenia), on the other hand, is concerned:

> […] because I believe they negatively influence our youth who are fascinated by American lifestyle and adopt many unhealthy habits. I think they bring a lot of bad things because they paint an unrealistic picture of life in their movies and literature. They always have their happy ends, but it's not like that in real life. And our adolescents take that literally.

Language, the third component of the people category, may be a bridge to communication, but also a barrier. In the former case, it is a window to the world and can be a source of affinity. In the latter case, it hinders communication and encourages people animosity. One of the sources of animosity toward Hungary is undoubtedly the language itself, which seems so odd and unfamiliar to some of our interviewees. Olivija (49, SE Slovenia) has negative feelings: "mostly because of the language. I don't know how to express myself … for example, if I see them speak on TV, I immediately switch the channel. […] You see, Hungarian is kind of weird." Alenka (43, Tri-border area) also does not: "like their speech, their … how should I put it … I don't like their language, it kind of turns me off. It repels me."

As far as the other three animosity countries are concerned, the communication is not hindered because of the unfamiliar language but, rather than that, because of the attitudes of inhabitants who expect that others will adapt to them. Valentin (30, SE Slovenia) shared his thoughts with us:

> I find it irritating because they [Croats] always claim they don't understand us [Slovenians]. But when they come to Slovenia they always expect that everybody will speak and understand Croatian. I think it's quite funny because the languages are pretty similar. If we understand them, why wouldn't they understand us? And that's really stupid.

Simona (33, W Slovenia) had similar thoughts: "We, Slovenians, have to adjust everywhere, don't you think so? Nobody adapts to us. If an Italian comes to Slovenia, we have to speak Italian with them. This is ridiculous. I don't know … I just don't get that."

Politics was the second and third most important driver of animosity toward the USA and the other three countries. The recent changes in Hungary's domestic politics did not go unnoticed among our interviewees. At the beginning of 2012, when we began conducting our interviews, the Hungarian government, led by center-right Prime Minister Viktor Orban, adopted a new constitution and passed several laws and controversial measures, all of which are a target of severe criticism by domestic opposition and international public (BBC News, 2012). These events also triggered quite a few negative reactions from our interviewees, thus leading to situational animosity according to the typology by Jung et al. (2002). Rudolf (36, Central Slovenia) expressed the change in his perception:

> Well, up until recently, I had quite a good opinion of Hungarians. But since this Orban guy has come, their president or whatever he is, and started messing with their politics … I have a couple of friends in Hungary and they say the situation is getting worse by the day.

Ingrid (25, NE Slovenia) shares a similar opinion:

> Especially now, it [Hungary] has an even more negative connotation, ever since they elected a majority government that has the power to change the constitution on their own, violates the rights of citizens, disregards minorities […] the Slovenian minority and also other minorities in the country or the opposition for that matter […] because this domestic politics issue is such a serious matter.

Contrary to the recent situation in Hungary, negative perceptions of American politics are of a more or less stable nature. America, as a strong economy and political/military superpower, and its foreign policy has been a source of divided opinions throughout the world and Slovenians, as citizens of the international arena, are no exception. Our interviewees shared with us their anti-American sentiments, e.g., Gabriela (37, Central Slovenia): "I'm not keen on Americans and their politics, their aggression and at times pure idiotism … they kind of annoy me." Similarly, Patricija (49, Central Slovenia) expressed her disapproval by stating: "this is mostly because of their politics of interfering in other countries, because I think they don't have the right to do so." American political aggressiveness is closely associated with their history, military interventions and war industry. For example, David (38, Central Slovenia) is not fond of America: "because of their imperialistic past or present which I don't like … concretely, the USA, as one of the world's currently most exposed superpowers ..." Rudolf's (36, Central Slovenia) comment gives us an impression of how he perceives America's politics:

> They meddle in everything. They were lucky because their country wasn't torn apart in World War II. Their economy was at a peak at that time, mainly because of their demand for that [war goods] … and they exploit that. They have had an upper hand ever since. The only ones that could probably kick their asses are the Chinese or Indians. And it actually serves them right. Because they [Americans] have been actively attempting to make sure that there is always a situation going on somewhere in the world and this obstructs others from developing in the desired direction. Instead, they have to deal with Americans and this annoys me … I can't stand them [Americans]. They are in search of conflicts … or to put it otherwise … I'd rather say they *create* conflicts.

Daniel (48, SE Slovenia) is also critical of American actions and resents them:

> […] especially because of their politics, war industry and wars they inflict. In this sense, I have a negative opinion of them and that is why I never wish to travel to America. Because they seek to find a reason for war. Also, some time ago I got this history book where I came across the expression 'fair war'. It's not fair that a 100 kilogram man bullies a 50 kilogram man … or if there were a hundred of them … The Americans have a significant technological advantage over others and you can see that, in essence, they are a killing machine. Their power is disproportionate to their opponents' power.

Rivalry between neighboring countries can also be a source of animosity (Klein et al., 1998, p. 90). In the case of Croatia and Italy, it can clearly be observed through traditional political disputes which are intertwined with historical events. Interviewees pointed out constant issues with Croatia concerning the border. Simon (64, W Slovenia) asserted his opinion:

> I also don't like their politics regarding the maritime border. Because the Croats have so much sea, and here they are fussing about these measly two kilometers and causing us trouble. It is a question what will happen with this arbitration, probably nothing good. […] Actually, we also lost Trieste and other territory because of Croatia. Croats have forgotten this. Because Dalmatia, from Zadar onwards, and Rijeka, and everything, the islands, all this was Italian. It was part of Italian Istria. But what happened? When we split … before, it used to be Yugoslavia, okay … but when we separated, the Italians kept a part of Slovenia, from Trieste, to Venetian Slovenia, and so on. The Croats didn't lose anything. They got to keep Istria and Dalmatia. So, on that account they didn't lose a single thing, no sea, no islands, not even a square meter. Slovenia, on the other hand, lost whole Friuli, whole Trieste and everything else, and now they [Croats] are plotting against us. I think that's unfair.

Zoja (74, SE Slovenia) thinks that Croats are bad neighbors and said:

> Well, politicians should stick together. It's all right that they are on the same side; however, they should also take into account other nations, and not just their own. They have conflicts with all neighboring countries. That is not okay because you should behave like a good neighbor.

Our interviewees also had strong opinions of Italy's politics. They expressed their discontent with Italy's opportunistic politics and twisting of certain historical events. Simon (64, W Slovenia) commented:

> Well, Italians are Italians … Italians always find a way in politics. All the wars they fought, even though they lost them, they came out as winners from all of them. They celebrate Victory Day more often than we do even though they were defeated in all their wars. But they are resourceful, they always managed to find an ally and before the war was over, bam, they switched sides. What did they do in World War II? First they were with the Nazis, and then they quickly joined the Anglo-Americans in order to have a comfortable future. And what about us? F*** it, we got screwed after the war.

Rudolf (36, Central Slovenia) further disregards Italians because:

> […] they change their mind like the wind blows. I don't like people that alter their decisions just because something is difficult to endure at times. […] I also resent their right-wing politicians. I get the urge to do something bad to them. They annoy me … their politics is consciously mocking history, or to put it otherwise, they are bending historical events. Two weeks ago, there was a photograph on the Internet. It showed one group of people shooting another during World War II. And below the picture, it was written 'Partisans shooting Italians'. But it was just the other way

> around. And everything our politicians did was to send them a note of protest, come on. [*So, you think that we could have reacted more strongly?*] Of course, we could. Actually, it was our duty.

Rudolf did not experience World War II, but Natalia (84, W Slovenia) did and her memories of those times are still very vivid. She described the war period as:

> Terrible. Bombing. We used to live in Solkan, where Nova Gorica is today. And they [Italians] were determined to tear down that bridge. You know, where that fine bridge is. And they kept shooting. A railroad is there and our house was very close to it. And they completely … we would come to the house and there were no more windows, the other time the door was blown out. You know, when the bombs were falling and everything was … We moved up into the hills, to a village. We had to hide. A peasant gave us one room and my mother helped her with the farm. […] The times were tough. Oh, and the Italians … they didn't give us anything. We were starving, we had to steal. We got ten decagrams of bread per person a day.

Interestingly, Natalia does not feel anger toward the Italians and their involvement in World War II. The 1975 Treaty of Osimo enables her to receive remuneration in the form of a monthly pension and through this act, she feels that her lost equity has been restored:

> I like it [Italy] only because they give me money. As long as they give me money, I have nothing against it. But when they stop … You see, for three years I worked there, I get 320 euros and I've been receiving them for more than 30 years. How could I not like them?

Natalia's reflection is in line with the qualitative research of Podoshen and Hunt (2009, p. 316), who found that many Jewish Americans felt their equity was restored when Germany paid reparation money to Israel.

A few of our interviewees lead us to believe that animosity toward Italy is present in Slovenia in a stable form. Jung et al. (2002, p. 527) suggest that a person need not have had personal experience for animosity to become stable. Animosity can be transmitted to younger generations via formal or informal channels such as personal experience of others and stories. Such storytelling causes animosity to become part of the collective memory which lingers in the minds of many people (Podoshen & Hunt, 2009, pp. 311, 320). Indeed Viktoria (30, W Slovenia) explained to us:

> I resent its [Italy's] socio-political role in the sense ... for example, during my childhood I used to hear many stories about the Italian occupation and how they oppressed Slovenians. I also resent the fact that they haven't admitted their role to this day and that they totally ignore these historical facts. This is something that I unconditionally disapprove of.

Simon (64, W Slovenia) told us that his feelings of dislike are a matter of upbringing:

> Look, I will be completely frank. Italy, Italians… we simply don't like them because we from Primorska region never liked them, even though in Slovenia they sometimes equate us with them [Italians] because we are in the vicinity of Italy and Italians. I don't know… we were probably brought up in that way.

Finally, our interviewees also devoted some thoughts to Italy's domestic political arena, e.g., Rudolf (36, Central Slovenia):

> Well, Italians are annoying … and I mean this literally. Look at Berlusconi. How can they tolerate him? He is … on the one hand, he is the man. He gets out of everything and turns everything into his own advantage … and those wussies always support him. They are such crybabies, come on …

Natalia (84, W Slovenia) also despises Berlusconi:

> At the moment … seven charges have been brought up against him. Now, he has to travel around with his lawyers and defend himself. That underage girl … He is a skirt chaser. But he is a millionaire … but he created his wealth by stealing. He used to be a poor fellow. He made his

> living by playing the accordion on ships. With tourists. And now he is the richest Italian. How do you think he managed that? He didn't pay taxes, he evaded taxes. All the profit he has, he stuffed everything into his own pockets. And his children and everybody.

The economic dimension of animosity was found to be most important in the case of Hungary. The main reason lies in their state of development. As Ingrid (25, NE Slovenia) stated: "I perceive them as underdeveloped with respect to their economic situation." Zoja (74, SE Slovenia) also commented: "Well, Hungary has had its share of problems in the past. Consequently, the pace of their development is slower." As a consequence of low development and living standard, their offer of goods and services is also limited. During her trip to Hungary Patricija (49, Central Slovenia) was not at all satisfied because:

> […] their service was inadequate. Their confectionery wasn't a real confectionary. They served drinks in dirty cups. I imagine you can't even get normal food, but just their traditional specialties … It was so unappealing to see them roast those chickens outside. There was a foul odor all across the street.

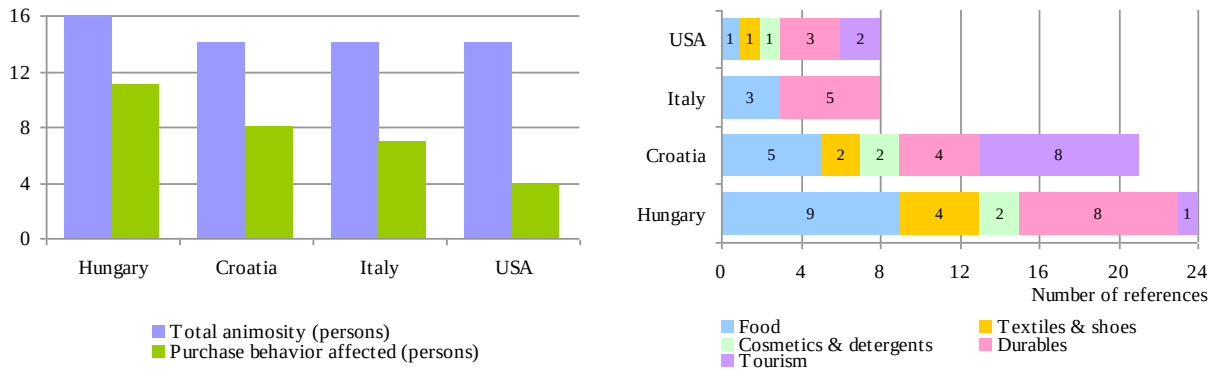
Economic reasons for animosity toward the USA were mentioned only twice; however, they are much different than the ones for Hungary. An illustration is provided by Kristijan (55, Central Slovenia):

> I dislike America because they are interested in their capital only. They don't care about others. In these crises situations, the rich should give up some of their wealth and give it to the poor." [*Did they do that?*] "No, they didn't." [*What did they do?*] "They stuffed everything into their own pockets… exploitation. Each person should get something, so that an individual could survive.

2.4.2 Effects of consumer animosity on purchase behavior

Figure 10 shows that animosity affects purchase behavior of at least half the interviewees in the case of Hungary, Croatia and Italy. Interviewees manifest their feelings of animosity toward Hungary mainly in the food and durables product category. Animosity toward Croatia is mostly present in unwillingness to travel to that country. Namely, the majority of interviewees whose animosity country is Croatia do not consider it as a desired holiday destination. Animosity toward Italy results mostly in the avoidance of purchasing durable goods from that country. In the case of USA consumer animosity is not strongly manifested. It is highest in durables, while the other categories are relatively unimportant.

Figure 10: Effect of animosity on purchase behavior by person and product category



2.4.2.1 Effects of consumer animosity toward Hungary on purchase behavior

With the exception of one interviewee, all the others who refrain from purchasing Hungarian food associate it with low quality. Interviewees frequently emphasized their unwillingness to buy Hungarian meat products. The fact that meat and likewise products are perishable goods makes the interviewees especially careful when buying them, and the majority prefers to buy domestic meat products, e.g., Olivija (49, SE Slovenia) said: "The meat I buy must be Slovenian. Definitely. I went to buy turkey steaks in Tuš. They had Hungarian turkey steaks. I said to myself 'thank you and good-bye'. I didn't buy them." Sebastjan (34, SE Slovenia) provided us with a picturesque description of his opinion of Hungarian meat industry:

> They [Hungarians] are famous for their meat products. I imagine this enormous farm of tormented pigs. From that point of view … well, I immediately get this association of a huge mass and of poor sanitary conditions. And I actually have prejudice against all their products.

Sara (48, NE Slovenia) also has prejudice against all Hungarian products and said:

> I wouldn't want to have anything from Hungary even though some of their products are probably quite fine. But the thought of having something from Hungary is not too appealing. […] When I buy jams and ice creams, I rely on certain brands that assure me of high quality. But I always check whether the product was manufactured in Hungary or the Czech Republic. Unfortunately, there is a big difference [in quality and taste].

Similarly, when asked whether she would buy Hungarian chocolate, Olivija (49, SE Slovenia) was very reluctant:

> I really don't know whether I would buy Hungarian ... No, no, I wouldn't. It's the same as those cookies, I don't know in which store they bought them, but really, the taste was fine but that was all ... it was full of saturated fats or how should I call it ... just poison. No, I most definitely wouldn't buy it.

Finally, the reason to refrain from purchasing Hungarian food can partly lie in the fact that its taste is too different from the one Slovenians are accustomed to. Patricija (49, Central Slovenia) said she avoids Hungarian food: "We didn't like the food we tried because its taste doesn't match our usual diet. They have their typical food. It's quite hot and differs from our usual food."

In the hypothetical scenarios the interviewees were faced with, it was found that they avoid purchasing Hungarian durables and associate them with low quality. When Benjamin (36, Tri-border area) was asked whether he would consider buying a Hungarian refrigerator, he replied:

> Well, if it was absolutely necessary, if it was a matter of sheer survival, I don't know, then probably yes. But it would only be a temporary solution. As soon as I pulled through, as soon as I bounced back on my feet, I would search for an alternative.

We are not certain whether the perception of low quality is really a result of animosity feelings or negative product-country image. The fact that interviewees have such a poor opinion of Hungarian durables could easily be attributed to Hungary's negative product-country image since it is not a well-known producer of durable goods. According to Pharr (2005, pp. 36, 40), country-specific beliefs or cognitions are influenced by both the level of economic development (exogenous antecedent) and animosity (endogenous antecedent). Our research leads us to believe there is also a connection between animosity and level of

economic development. Many of our interviews pointed out economic reasons (low economic development) for feeling animosity toward Hungary (see Table 12). In summary, we conclude that economic reasons lead to feelings of animosity which further lead to perceived low quality and result in unwillingness to buy products from Hungary.

Other Hungarian products, such as clothes and shoes are also not highly valued by the interviewees. For instance, Sofija (46, Tri-border area) said:

> I don't buy anything there [in Hungary]. My friends shop in Hungary and occasionally I join them, but just for a trip. But some of my friends buy all their clothes there, they buy clothes for the whole family. I, on the other hand, don't. I consider them to be of lower quality.

An interesting case is Rudolf's (36, Central Slovenia), whose disapproval of Hungary's domestic political situation is so strong that it resulted in the boycott of all Hungarian products regardless of their quality:

> There aren't really a lot of Hungarian products here [in Slovenia]. But in any case, Hungarian salami is always good. However, I don't buy Pick salami anymore … Lately, I've been boycotting Hungarian products. I know that actions of just one person have hardly any effect. But I don't think they [Hungarians] deserve to be supported in that way.

2.4.2.2 Effects of consumer animosity toward Croatia on purchase behavior

Croatia is the number one tourist destination for Slovenians. Indeed, in 2010, among all European countries, more than one out of two Slovenian tourists selected Croatia as their holiday destination. In that year there were almost 5.9 million overnight stays of Slovenians in Croatia (Official Travel Guide by Slovenian Tourist Board, 2011). Despite its popularity, we found that several interviewees prefer other destinations, e.g., Zala (25, NE Slovenia) shared with us: "I went there [to Croatia] last year, just for a couple of days. And I used to go there when I was a kid. But usually, I spend my holidays in Slovenia or go somewhere else abroad."

Shoham et al. (2006, pp. 97, 102) found that services are much more difficult to disentangle from the people who produce them. Consequently, consumer animosity is more personal and may also lead to the denigration of quality of services. Patricija (49, Central Slovenia) is aware of Croatia's beauty (given by nature), but at the same time she pointed out her dissatisfaction with the quality of services (provided by people):

> I've been to Croatia many times. I'd still go there, but much further south, to Dalmatia. The seaside is beautiful in Dalmatia, but the offer [of product and services] is still quite limited, even though they've shown some progress in the last couple of years. However, a beautiful seaside and fresh air are not enough ... They have to do more. Their people, also, have to contribute something in order to make the atmosphere more pleasant ... especially considering today's competition. So, Dalmatia yes, but I certainly wouldn't go to Istria. I also don't like Zagreb because the people are quite arrogant and they have a negative attitude toward Slovenians.

Martin (35, W Slovenia) also had previous negative experience in Croatia, which caused him to stop traveling there. These negative experiences stem from the fact that Croats discriminate against Slovenians:

> I don't go [to Croatia] unless it's absolutely necessary. I wouldn't want to spend my holidays in Croatia. I prefer to pay a bit more and go to Greece. Actually, I spend less money than in Croatia, but in Greece I am treated as a *tourist* [and not as a *Slovenian*].

Simon (64, W Slovenia) has been boycotting Croatia and said: "ever since the countries have become independent I don't go there anymore. I used to go to Krk [island in Croatia] but not anymore. Not even to the seaside in Croatia … nothing." Tea (51, W Slovenia) noticed that Slovenians are treated differently than other tourists and has also been boycotting Croatia for ten years: "I'd rather give my money to the Greeks, I'd rather give my money to the Spanish, but my money won't go to Croatia." Tea explained that she spent a vacation in Croatia with her colleagues from work who are Bosnian by origin but live in Slovenia:

> They were treated differently than my husband and I who are Slovenians. I told my colleague that the euros we spend in Croatia are of the same value as theirs. So, how come there is a different treatment? She replied that she also noticed the difference in hospitality. I told her that they [Croats] won't be seeing me anymore. They've been earning from Slovenians for so many years, but they won't be living off my money anymore. So, I'll go to Italy. I will rather go to Italy.

Some Slovenians are still accustomed to buying Croatian products because they have always been widely available, especially when Slovenia and Croatia were both part of the same country. Many Slovenians are emotionally attached to Croatian products because they grew up with them and have pleasant memories. Other Slovenians buy certain Croatian brands because they trust them and are used to buying them. Ingrid (25, NE Slovenia), who labeled Croatia as an animosity country, nevertheless purchases certain Croatian brands. She is used to buying these brands and they remind her of her childhood: "I will always buy Čokolino [Croatian chocolate cereal] even though I am aware that I have other options." This is in line with Rice and Wongtada (2007, p. 62), who posit that it is possible for consumers to "overlook animosity if their relationship with the brand is strong". Other interviewees, however, are not sentimentally attached to Croatian products. Furthermore, they appreciate the fact that market economy has made their choice set more diverse. When asked whether she would buy a Croatian chocolate, Patricija (49, Central Slovenia) replied:

> No, I'd rather buy Belgian chocolate given that I have that option. Nowadays, I can afford to pick a product based on quality and taste, but in socialism there was no alternative other than to buy Yugoslav products and perhaps a small selection of products from other countries. There was simply no other choice.

We found that interviewees generally prefer domestic food products. The reasons lie in the fact that they have more trust in Slovenian food producers, but there were also frequent ethnocentric tendencies.[12] When faced with a decision to choose among Slovenian or Croatian (or any other foreign country for that matter) food products they prefer the domestic alternative. Zala (25, NE Slovenia) explained:

> The other day, I was just about to buy a herbal cheese spread. I noticed by chance that the product was Croatian. I put it back and took the Slovenian instead, even though I had previously always been buying the Croatian one. But when I noticed that it was Croatian I changed it. Even though the Slovenian spread was a bit more expensive, I decided to buy it. [*Did you put the Croatian spread back because you think it is of low quality? Or do you think it is of high quality?*] No, I think the quality is good. I also like the taste, but I decided to purchase the Slovenian spread.

[12] Thirty-one out of 82 interviewees displayed consumer ethnocentrism in at least one product category.

Patricija (49, Central Slovenia) prefers "Slovenian products to Croatian because I will definitely support us and not our Croatian neighbors." When asked whether she considers Croatian products to be of low quality she replied: "Well, it's hard to say because I don't even try them anymore. I buy our dairy products, I don't buy theirs." Valentin (30, SE Slovenia) strictly avoids Croatian products.[13] With regard to Croatian food he said: "I wouldn't buy Croatian. Why would I support their economy if we have a poor relationship with them?" When asked whether he perceives Croatian products to be of low quality, he answered:

> No, I don't think so. For example, since Kolinska [Slovenian company] has been acquired by the Croats I don't buy Cockta anymore. I also don't drink Coca-Cola. You see, Coca-Cola for the Slovenian market is bottled in Croatia. I rather buy Pepsi, which is bottled in Rogaška. As far as chocolates are concerned I don't mind eating Kraš chocolates as long as I receive them as a gift. But I, personally, would never buy them.

Our interviewees did not have a high opinion of Croatian durables. As was the case with Hungary, Croatia is not a traditional producer of durable goods. Thus, the interviewees are not familiar with such products and they found it difficult to imagine a scenario in which they could asses the quality of a Croatian refrigerator or consider purchasing it.

2.4.2.3 Effects of consumer animosity toward Italy on purchase behavior

In contrast to Hungary and Croatia, Italy is an established producer of durable goods. Several Italian brands such as Candy and Zanussi (household appliances) and Fiat or Lancia (automobiles) are well-known and widely recognized among consumers worldwide. In our research, consumer animosity toward Italy is manifested mainly in the avoidance of purchasing Italian durable goods. All the interviewees who refrain from purchasing such goods perceive them to be of low quality. Even though durables are not culture- and people-specific goods, our findings suggest that the low perceived quality is connected to the frequently mentioned characteristics of Italians, i.e., that they are inaccurate, sloppy and lazy. When faced with the situation to select between different refrigerators that differ only by country of origin, Martin (35, W Slovenia) explained that the Italian and Croatian refrigerators would be his second to last and last choice: "The Italian one would at least be pretty. Otherwise, it would be produced in the same careless manner as the Croatian one." Simona (33, W Slovenia) does not like Italians and says: "I know I wouldn't buy the Italian one [refrigerator]. Because they are … because they get on my nerves." Rudolf (36, Central Slovenia) shared with us his opinion of Italian cars:

> For instance, I'd never drive an Italian car. I'd never buy an Alfa Romeo. A friend of mine once said to me that if I ever lost my job, I should retrain as a mechanic because Alfas need constant repair. I wouldn't buy a Fiat. It seems to me that every time they assemble one of these cars, they do it more quickly. They say: "let's finish it five minutes faster than the previous one." And everything is so slapdash, hurried and cheap. I don't trust them.

Nevertheless, there is a group of interviewees who trust Italian durables and do not think their quality is any lower than that of Slovenian or German durables. For instance, when asked to choose between a German and Italian refrigerator, both having the same characteristics, Simon (64, W Slovenia) replied:

[13] Valentin (30, SE Slovenia) and Viktor (74, SE Slovenia) boycott all Croatian products and services.

> I would flip a coin and decide. Italian products are very fine. Years ago, we used to own only Italian durables. Other exports [to Yugoslavia] were limited, so for instance, we had Italian Candy. I have a washing machine Candy and it's excellent. Zanussi is also great. There have never been any problems.

Consumer animosity was found to influence interviewees' purchase behavior with regard to Italian food in only three cases. We found that all three interviewees who avoid buying Italian food also associate it with low quality. Sara's (48, NE Slovenia) dislike of Italians translates into the avoidance of all Italian food products:

> I don't buy Italian olive oil. Ever since that affair when it was discovered that they poured something in it ... They are so unreliable, so sloppy. Italians are … and also Italian products … I don't buy them. If I had to choose between two products of the same quality, I wouldn't buy the Italian one because I always have this idea that they are kind of cheating. […] If there was something new available, for example from France [her affinity country] I would definitely taste it, for instance, French ice cream. I'd experiment with the French ice cream, but I wouldn't take my chances with the Italian one.

Ingrid's (25, NE Slovenia) reasons for eschewing Italian food are different from Sara's. When asked whether she would ever consider buying Italian food, she replied: "Hardly likely. I am aware of the conditions in which it was produced and the mass industry. Only if the food is from the south where the production is less extensive than in northern Italy, Po Plain and similar."

2.4.2.4 Effects of consumer animosity toward the USA on purchase behavior

Consumer animosity toward USA did not have a strong effect on interviewees' purchase behavior with the exception of only one interviewee (Daniel, 48, SE Slovenia) who told us that he boycotts all American products because he disagrees with American foreign policy: "Actually, there are not a lot of American products available here, not as many as Chinese. In principle, I would not buy them [American products], especially if I had an alternative." Furthermore, Daniel also has no desire to ever travel to America. Other interviewees did not have such staunch attitudes and the influence of consumer animosity on their purchase behavior was quite weak.

We were able to detect only some slight consumer animosity in the durables product category, e.g., David (38, Central Slovenia) explained he would never purchase an American refrigerator

> […] because I have this strange negative association when I think about American refrigerators. [*Why?*] I don't know, I don't know, maybe because of American movies. I am not too fond of those big refrigerators. That is not my style. I find it wasteful. I don't believe they are energy efficient. [*What if it had the same characteristics as the other refrigerators?*] Look, maybe it says that they are the same, but I simply don't believe it.

We assume that consumer animosity does not manifest itself strongly in purchase behavior due to two reasons: (1) there are not many American products available in Slovenia, so consumers found it difficult to imagine a (hypothetical) situation in which they would eschew them; (2) while animosity toward our neighboring countries is almost exclusively based on personal negative experience, animosity toward the USA is mainly based on the influence of media. Consequently, animosity toward the USA is less personal and its effect on purchase

behavior is less intense. This is in line with Shoham et al. (2006, p. 94), who argue that closer contact between people makes the animosity more personal whereas anger toward a physically distant entity would likely result in a more abstract form of animosity.

2.5 Consumer ethnocentrism

Out of 82 people we interviewed, we found that 31 (37.8%) have ethnocentric tendencies in at least one product category.[14] Since we conducted in-depth semi-structured interviews, consumer ethnocentrism was not measured with the CETSCALE. Our judgment whether an interviewee is ethnocentric was based on Shimp and Sharma's (1987, p. 280) definition of consumer ethnocentrism. At this point, we must emphasize that statements regarding consumer ethnocentrism were provided solely by the interviewees, i.e., they were not initiated by us. Interviewees were classified into the category of ethnocentric consumers only if they themselves articulated statements such as "supporting Slovenian economy", "keeping domestic jobs", "solidarity toward workers". For instance, Nives (26, Central Slovenia) explicitly illustrated her ethnocentric tendencies by claiming:

> I don't know why we should import food, especially because we know that Slovenian food is good and of high quality. And in some sense, I think we should support the Slovenian economy. You see, a plausible question is whether we, as Slovenians, will exist in a couple of years if we keep buying only foreign products. Companies that are successful and are situated in Slovenia support the Slovenian economy and contribute to public funding … and we know that public funds provide … look, it's a vicious circle.

Leon (62, NE Slovenia) stressed the importance of solidarity as the main reason for purchasing Slovenian products:

> I know that I will help our fellow countryman earn his income. In this sense, we have to be somewhat nationalistic, a bit egoistic and selfish … because first, we have to take care of our fellowmen, of our surroundings. We benefit most from that.

Consistent with previous research (e.g., Verlegh, 2007, pp. 368–369; Vida & Dmitrović, 2009, p. 61), we found a positive impact of consumer ethnocentrism on domestic product evaluations. Indeed, Henrik (44, NE Slovenia) emphasized the high quality of Slovenian durables: "It's probably true that I would give priority to Gorenje. First of all, the quality is indisputable, and after all, we should also support domestic producers and show some solidarity." Furthermore, in line with previous research (e.g., Klein, 2002, p. 357; Klein et al., 1998, p. 96; Nguyen et al., 2008, pp. 88, 94), Karin (26, Tri-border area) denigrates the quality of foreign products:

> First of all, we have to support our producers. We all know what will happen if they close down our dairies and bakeries. There will be no jobs left, and second, our milk is of higher quality than some milk from Lidl which comes from who knows where and is completely tasteless.

The highest and lowest consumer ethnocentrism was observed in central Slovenia and southeastern Slovenia (see Appendix D). Furthermore, it seems that males, interviewees with completed secondary education and those with above average income are more inclined toward consumer ethnocentrism.

[14] Consumer ethnocentrism is most widespread in the food (18 references) and durables (24 references) product category. Both categories are offered by Slovenian producers and enjoy a reputation of high-quality products.

2.6 Discussion and concluding remarks of the qualitative research

Our qualitative analysis provided us with some very interesting insights. The intensity of feelings among interviewees varies between the analyzed countries. Even though Hungary emerged as an animosity winner, the feelings of animosity are not so powerful. Thus, the interviewees were sparing with words and their thoughts were often vague, short and scant. We sensed a much stronger and emotional animosity in the case of the other three animosity countries, which is also evident from the substantial collection of interviewees' quotes. Hungary is also the only country, for which we discovered situational animosity stemming from the current domestic political situation. Our findings are consistent with Jung et al. (2002, pp. 525, 528), who argue that animosity is a dynamic concept which stems from various sources and is constantly being updated through different events and experience. On the other hand, we also detected a stable component of animosity toward Hungary, especially because of its perceived low economic development, and interviewees' unfamiliarity with Hungarians (different customs and strange language).

As far as economic reasons for animosity are concerned, we discovered two important things: (1) contrary to previous research (e.g., Klein, 2002, p. 353; Russell & Russell, 2006, p. 324), our findings suggest the economic dimension is not really an important driver of animosity. It was present mostly in the case of Hungary and almost negligible for other countries; (2) in our research, the economic dimension revealed itself in a new perspective. In the case of Hungary, economic animosity was found because of its low economic development and not because of the perceived economic threat or unfair trading practices as it was suggested in literature. In our research, we discovered that economic development has an important influence both on consumer animosity and affinity. For Hungary, low economic development was a source of animosity. On the other hand, high economic development proved to be an important driver of consumer affinity toward Germany and Austria.

Animosity toward the remaining three countries was found to be of a more stable nature. Animosity toward Croatia and Italy is further fueled by occasional political/diplomatic incidents. Animosity toward Croatia is truly powerful and stems mainly from negative personal experiences with nationals from that country, negative perception of people and unsettled political issues. Animosity toward Croatia is especially obvious in southeastern and western Slovenia, where Croatia is a target of animosity only and was not mentioned as an affinity country by a single interviewee. Animosity feelings toward Italy are also very strong. Stable animosity toward Italy, especially in western Slovenia, is further also fueled by storytelling which is passed on from one generation to another. The interviewees do not resent Italy's role in World War II *per se*, as much as they resent Italy's *attitude* toward the role it played in the war. Interviewees express their anger because they perceive that Italy continuously denies and twists historical facts. In conclusion, it seems that World War II events are not an important source of animosity in our sample of interviewees. This finding is not consistent with previous studies (e.g., Klein et al., 1998, p. 96; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004, p. 31; Shin, 2001, p. 7) which discovered war-related animosity in their sample of respondents.

We found that feelings of animosity toward the USA are powerful even though interviewees had less personal experience with the country or its people. The animosity stems mainly from interviewees' negative perception of Americans and their disapproval of American foreign policy which they consider to be aggressive and going on for decades.

Our research showed that interviewees' purchase decisions may be influenced by different attitudes at the same time, i.e., consumer affinity, consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. Among other factors the final decision depends on the product category, the choice set and the intensity of a particular feeling. All three attitudes function differently, i.e., whereas consumer affinity and consumer ethnocentrism give us information about interviewees' preferred foreign or domestic alternative, consumer animosity simply gives us information about what they will not buy in a certain moment. As Rudolf (36, Central Slovenia) illustrated: "Country-of-origin information is the first filter. If the products are Chinese or Hungarian, they are currently not an option. They remain on the shelf." Since animosity is strong in his case, he first eliminates the undesired options and only then does he start deciding between other options.

Croatia is the only country where the strong reasons for animosity translated into a strong effect on purchase behavior. This is most obvious in tourism and travel-related services. Personal negative experiences whilst traveling to Croatia result in animosity which leads to avoiding Croatia as a tourist destination. Since tourism is closely connected to the people, i.e., providers of these services, the descriptions of the interviewees were very emotional and consequently their animosity is on a very personal level.

For Hungary, Italy and the USA, we observed an inverse relationship between intensity of reasons for animosity and intensity of its manifestation in purchase behavior. In the case of Hungary the feelings of animosity were not so strongly expressed, but the effect of animosity on purchase behavior was quite powerful. It seems that interviewees perceive Hungarian products to be of very low quality, thus the decisive stance against buying their products. Conversely, feelings of animosity toward the USA were strongly expressed; however, they hardly affect purchase behavior. This may be due to the fact that interviewees do not perceive American goods to be of low quality. In addition, resentment toward America is directed toward an abstract entity which is not part of their everyday life.

In the case of Italy, feelings of animosity were also intense, but they failed to have a great influence on purchase behavior. It seems that purchase behavior is much more affected by affinity than by animosity, especially in the food, clothes and shoes product category. An interesting observation is that the majority of our interviewees do not buy Italian durables regardless of whether they perceive Italy as an affinity, animosity or neutral country. In any case, Italian durables are associated with lower quality because of the characteristics of Italian people. The interviewees who feel affinity toward Italy labeled the Italians as 'relaxed', whereas the interviewees who feel animosity toward Italy labeled the Italians as 'lazy'. These descriptions are merely two sides of the same coin. Thus, the argumentation for refraining

from purchase of Italian durables provided by the interviewees does not differ regardless of whether Italy was listed as an affinity or animosity country. Both adjectives used to describe Italians imply that their casual stance prevents them from producing high quality durable goods.

Leclerc, Schmitt and Dubé (1994, p. 264) distinguish between hedonic products (e.g., certain food products, perfumes) and utilitarian products (e.g., computers). The former involve sensory stimuli and are typically judged in terms of how much pleasure they provide, whereas the latter primarily involve extrinsic cues and are judged in terms of how well they function. Interviewees often associated Italy with esthetics and sensory pleasure and this perception matches their preferred choice of Italian products (food, clothes). On the other hand, we noticed a mismatch between the cultural stereotype of Italy (e.g., *dolce vita*) and preferences to buy Italian durables. Based on this discussion, we assume that unwillingness to buy Italian durables is connected with Italy's negative product-country image in the category of durable products. Apart from that, our research showed that, in most cases, the interviewees' first choice is either Slovenian or German durable goods. Slovenia, with its affirmed producer of durables, Gorenje, is a preferred alternative mainly because of: (1) reliable after-sales services and (2) ethnocentric tendencies. Germany, one of our affinity winners, is highly ranked because it has a strong image of a traditional producer of high-quality durable goods. In the eyes of our interviewees, the decision to buy German is always a safe choice.

We assume there is a connection between several regions and affinity/animosity countries. Interviewees from southeastern and western Slovenia referred to Croatia as an animosity country only, while interviewees from the tri-border area listed Croatia as an exclusively affinity country. Italy received affinity and animosity votes in all regions. Our sample of interviewees suggests there is a mixture of ambivalent feelings toward Italy and Croatia, since both countries ranked in the top four affinity, as well as animosity countries. This love-hate relationship is especially evident in the case of Italy, as we observed three interviewees from western Slovenia who referred to it as an affinity and animosity country at the same time.

We did not discover any other apparent connections between demographic characteristics and consumer affinity and consumer animosity. We will examine demographic antecedents of consumer animosity in the subsequent statistical analysis. In our qualitative study, we intentionally avoided any kind of generalization. The main purpose of the qualitative research was to identify animosity targets, discover reasons for animosity and gain a better understanding of the concept of animosity in Slovenia. The obtained information will help us to develop our own scale for measuring consumer animosity in the quantitative part of our research. Based on the collected quantitative data, we intend to examine the relationships between variables, in line with our conceptual model which is presented in the next chapter. This form of triangulation, i.e., the mixing of in-depth interviews and survey data will give us more information and provide us with more conclusive evidence (Bregar, Ograjenšek & Bavdaž, 2005, p. 167) whether animosity is present in the minds of Slovenian consumers and to what extent it influences their purchase behavior.

3 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH OF CONSUMER ANIMOSITY IN SLOVENIA

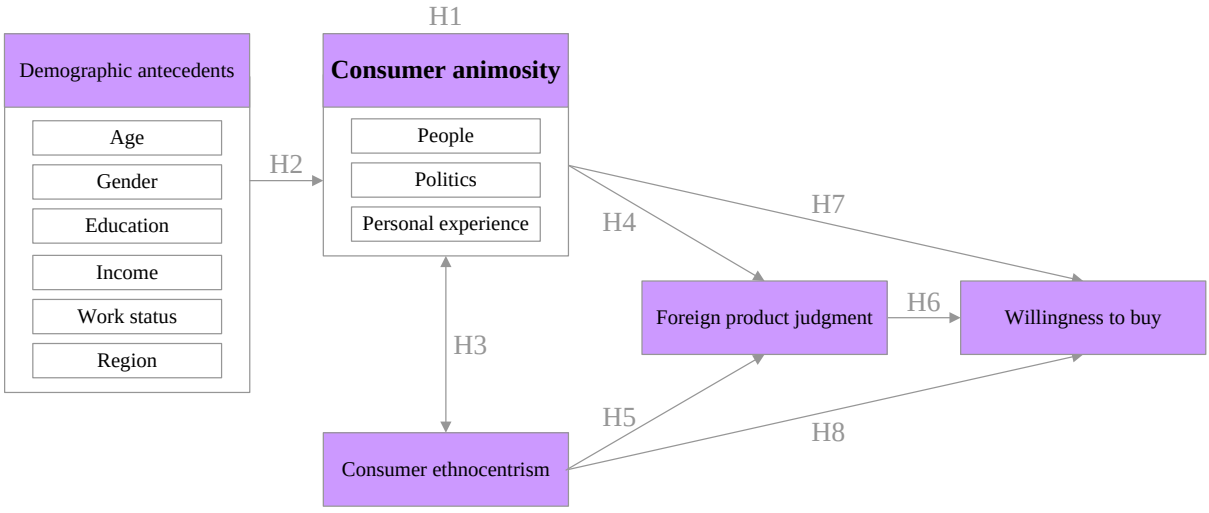
Based on the findings of our exploratory qualitative study, we proceeded with the development of the quantitative study of consumer animosity in Slovenia. The objectives of the quantitative research are the following:

1. To develop a specific scale for measuring consumer animosity in Slovenia. We take into consideration that sources of animosity vary depending on the specific context and thus adopt an emic approach.
2. To empirically substantiate there are different reasons which fuel animosity of Slovenian consumers toward target countries.
3. To determine the demographic characteristics of Slovenians who harbor feelings of animosity toward target entities.
4. To examine the influence of consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism on foreign product judgment.
5. To empirically test whether consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism have an impact on Slovenians' willingness to buy products from the target country.

3.1 Conceptual model and research hypotheses

Based on the literature review described in Chapter 1 and findings from the qualitative research presented in Chapter 2, we propose the conceptual model for the study (depicted in Figure 11). Our conceptual model is founded on the original model by Klein et al. (1998, p. 92) (see Figure 3); however, we have adapted it by: (1) including additional country-specific dimensions of consumer animosity, (2) considering demographic antecedents of consumer animosity, (3) examining the relationship between consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism, (4) investigating the relationship between consumer animosity and foreign product judgment, and (5) excluding the foreign product ownership construct from the model.

Figure 11: Conceptual model and research hypotheses



The findings of our qualitative data analysis revealed three potential sources of animosity among Slovenian consumers, namely people, politics and personal experience. Our findings are consistent with the research by Nes et al. (2011, p. 4), who discovered the *people* and *politics* dimension of animosity in their qualitative research. The *personal experience* dimension was found to be relevant in the study by Hoffmann et al. (2011, p. 239), who posited that negative personal experience influences general animosity. Apart from that, the authors discovered that antithetical political attitudes have an effect on general animosity. Thus, we propose the following hypotheses:

H1: Consumer animosity among Slovenians stems from various sources.

H1a: Dislike of people from the target country is a source of consumer animosity.

H1b: Disapproval of animosity country politics is a source of consumer animosity.

H1c: Negative personal experience is a source of consumer animosity.

In order to gain a profile of consumers harboring animosity feelings toward selected foreign countries, we include demographic antecedents of consumer animosity in the model. We decided to test six different potential antecedents of animosity. These are: age, gender, education, income, work status and region. Our argumentations are deliberately brief and concise because a detailed description of the contradictory findings regarding the relationship between various demographic variables and consumer animosity is presented in section 1.3.5.1.1.

In line with previous research (Klein, 2002; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007; Shah & Halim, 2011) we hypothesize there is a positive relationship between *age* and consumer animosity. Consistent with extant research (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009a; Matić & Puh, 2011; Shah & Halim, 2011), we posit that *gender* is a significant predictor of consumer animosity. Empirical evidence on the relationship between education and consumer animosity is scare and contradictory. In accordance with Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007) and Bahaee and Pisani (2009a), we hypothesize that *education* is a significant predictor of consumer animosity. Although existing literature (Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Shah & Halim, 2011; Urbonavicius et al., 2010) did not find *income* to be a significant predictor of consumer animosity, we hypothesize that the two may be related, which is in line with Bahaee and Pisani (2009a, p. 206), who found that middle class respondents possessed fewer animosity feelings. There are only two studies examining the relationship between *occupation/work status* and consumer animosity. Klein and Ettenson (1999) did not find any relationship between occupation and consumer animosity, whereas Bahaee and Pisani (2009a, p. 207) discovered a connection between work status and consumer animosity. In line with the latter, we propose that work status predicts consumer animosity. Based on Shah and Halim (2011, p. 206) and the findings of our qualitative research, we predict that the level of consumer animosity varies across *regions*. For example, Croatia was not mentioned as an animosity target in the tri-border area, but received many animosity votes in southeastern and western Slovenia, hence we predict that levels of animosity will be different depending on the region of respondents' residence and posit that region is a significant predictor of consumer

animosity. In summary, the group of demographic variables is presented with the following hypotheses:

H2: Demographic characteristics of Slovenian consumers are significant predictors of consumer animosity.

H2a: Age is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2b: Gender is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2c: Education is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2d: Income is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2e: Work status is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2f: Region is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

Additionally, we examine the relationship between consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism. Although consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism emerged as separate and distinct constructs in the original animosity model of foreign product purchase, the authors acknowledged that they can be related (Klein et al., 1998, pp. 91, 95). Subsequent research investigated the relationship and found a positive connection between the two constructs (e.g., Funk et al., 2010; Hoffmann et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2010b; Jiménez & San Martín, 2010; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Rose et al., 2009; Urbonavicius et al., 2010). We propose the following hypothesis:

H3: Consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism are positively related.

Whereas Klein et al. (1998, p. 96) did not discover any impact of animosity on foreign product judgment, later research (e.g., Guido et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2010a; Mostafa, 2010; Shoham et al., 2006; Urbonavicius et al., 2010) found a negative relationship between consumer animosity and foreign product judgment. Based on our qualitative research, we posit that the relationship may in fact be negative:

H4: Consumer animosity has a negative effect on foreign product judgment.

The relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and product judgment is well researched. There is plenty of evidence in literature (e.g., Klein, 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Nguyen et al., 2008; Verlegh, 2007) suggesting the negative effect of consumer ethnocentrism on foreign products quality judgments. Based on these findings, we hypothesize:

H5: Consumer ethnocentrism has a negative effect on foreign product judgment.

Various studies found a positive relationship between product judgments and willingness/intention to buy (e.g., Guido et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2010a; Mostafa, 2010; Rose et al., 2009; Shoham et al., 2006). Similarly, we hypothesize:

H6: Foreign product judgment has a positive effect on willingness to buy foreign products.

There is abundant empirical evidence regarding the positive relationship between consumer animosity and willingness to buy products from the offending country (e.g., Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Funk et al., 2010; Hinck, 2005; Klein et al., 1998; Leong et al., 2008; Maher & Mady, 2010; Mostafa, 2010; Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007; Rose et al., 2009; Shin, 2001; Shoham et al., 2006). Accordingly, we posit:

H7: Consumer animosity has a direct negative effect on willingness to buy products from the animosity country.

Ethnocentric consumers consider purchasing of imported products to be wrong (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p. 280). Various empirical studies showed that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively associated with willingness to buy foreign products (Bandyopadhyay, Wongtada & Rice, 2011; Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Vida & Dmitrović, 2009; Yoo & Donthu, 2005). Finally, in line with the recommendations of Vida and Rojšek (2009, p. 83) to examine the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on willingness to buy in the context of Slovenia, we hypothesize:

H8: Consumer ethnocentrism has a direct negative effect on willingness to buy products from the foreign country.

3.2 Quantitative research methodology

The majority of the existing studies measured consumer animosity with a structured questionnaire. This technique of data collection is frequently used since it provides an efficient way of collecting responses from a large sample (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 361). In order to measure consumer animosity, we utilized a questionnaire which was developed on the basis of the findings of extant literature and prior qualitative research. In the following sections, we describe the methodological aspects of the quantitative study. More specifically, we explain the selection of target countries and product/services categories, operationalize the variables and provide a description of the questionnaire design and data collection.

3.2.1 Selection of target countries and product/services categories

As noted earlier, the purpose of qualitative research was to discover the most frequent animosity targets. This is in line with Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007, p. 99) who cautioned that it is undesirable to predetermine target countries of animosity. The authors recommend prior exploratory research in order to identify the targets and gain a better understanding of the animosity concept. Based on the findings of preliminary research, we decided to include three top animosity countries in the quantitative part of our research, namely *Hungary*, *Croatia* and *Italy*. Although the USA ranked high on animosity votes, we decided to dismiss it from subsequent research because the results revealed that animosity toward the USA does not strongly impact interviewees' purchase of American goods.

Previous research has measured the consequences of consumer animosity on various product/services types (see Table 2). The findings of the exploratory study suggest two relevant categories in the Slovenian setting, i.e., food products and tourism services. Although we found that animosity toward all three countries affects interviewees' purchase intentions of durable goods originating from the target country, we decided not to include this product category in our quantitative research. Croatia and Hungary are not well-known producers of durables and consequently such products are not available in Slovenian shops. Thus, it would be difficult for respondents to imagine a hypothetical situation of purchasing such products.

To summarize, we introduce the *food product* category (e.g., dairy and meat products, fruit, vegetables) into further research. Food items originating from the selected animosity countries are well-known and widely available on the Slovenian market. Additionally, we select the *tourism services* category (e.g., summer holidays, winter holidays, weekend packages) for further quantitative research. Tourism services are especially interesting in the Croatian context because interviewees frequently mentioned that they avoid or even boycott Croatia as a tourism destination. However, the choice of tourism services may also be relevant in the case of animosity toward Hungary and Italy. All three countries are neighboring countries, thus being relatively easily accessible to Slovenians. Since services are closely connected to the culture and more difficult to detach from the providers of these services, there is a possibility that animosity will manifest itself in the denigration of their quality and avoidance of such services from the target country (Shoham et al., 2006, pp. 97, 102).

3.2.2 Operationalization of variables

In this study, we examine four main constructs: consumer ethnocentrism, consumer animosity, quality judgment (i.e., foreign products/services judgment) and willingness to buy (see Table 13). Consumer ethnocentrism was measured by a 7-point Likert scale, running from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Consumer animosity, quality judgment and willingness to buy were measured with the same scale; however, the respondents had an additional option of specifying 0, meaning '*I do not know*'.

The original CETSCALE for measuring *consumer ethnocentrism* consists of 17 items (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Shortened versions of the CETSCALE have also been widely used in subsequent research (e.g., Josiassen, 2011; Ouellet, 2007; Verlegh, 2007; Vida & Reardon, 2008) and their validity was confirmed in many different settings. We decided to measure consumer ethnocentrism with four items which were taken from the original CETSCALE and modified for the Slovenian context. Next, we measured *consumer animosity* in Slovenia with ten statements. The selection of statements is based entirely on the findings of the previously conducted qualitative research. Whenever possible, we obtained the items from existing literature and adapted them for the Slovenian context, otherwise we developed them by ourselves.

Table 13: Operationalization of studied constructs

Item	Variable label[15]	Adapted from / Based on
Consumer ethnocentrism		
We, Slovenians, should not let other countries get rich off us.	CET1	Shimp & Sharma (1987)
Slovenians who buy mainly foreign-made products hurt the Slovenian economy and cause unemployment.	CET2	Shimp & Sharma (1987)
It may cost me more in the long run but I prefer to buy products made in Slovenia.	CET3	Shimp & Sharma (1987)
We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within Slovenia.	CET4	Shimp & Sharma (1987)
Consumer animosity		
I do not like this country.	CA_country_1	Klein (2002)
I do not like people from this country.	CA_country_2	Klein et al. (1998)
I do not like the mentality of the people from this country.	CA_country_3	Nes et al. (2011)
The people from this country have a bad attitude toward Slovenians.	CA_country_4	Qualitative research
I find it difficult to communicate with people from this country.	CA_country_5	Qualitative research
I disapprove of the domestic politics of this country.	CA_country_6	Hoffmann et al. (2011)
This country twists historical facts.	CA_country_7	Qualitative research
This country's foreign policy is opportunistic.	CA_country_8	Qualitative research
My experiences with people from this country are negative.	CA_country_9	Nes et al. (2011)
I have had bad experiences when I traveled to this country.	CA_country_10	Hoffmann et al. (2011)
Judgment of foreign food products		
Food products (e.g., dairy and meat products, fruit, vegetables, etc.) originating from country …		
… usually offer good value for money.	PJ_FOOD_country_1	Klein et al. (1998)
… are generally of high quality.	PJ_FOOD_country_2	Ouellet (2007)
… are generally better than the same products originating from other countries.	PJ_FOOD_country_3	Darling & Arnold (1988)
… seem to be satisfactory.	PJ_FOOD_country_4	Ouellet (2007)
… are generally cleverly designed and attractive.	PJ_FOOD_country_5	Vida & Reardon (2008)
Judgment of foreign tourism services		
Tourism services (e.g., summer holidays, winter holidays, weekend packages, etc.) in country …		
… usually offer good value for money.	PJ_TOUR_country_1	Klein et al. (1998)
… are generally of high quality.	PJ_TOUR_country_2	Ouellet (2007)
… are generally better than tourism services in other countries.	PJ_TOUR_country_3	Darling & Arnold (1988)
… seem to be satisfactory.	PJ_TOUR_country_4	Ouellet (2007)
… are generally attractive.	PJ_TOUR_country_5	Vida & Reardon (2008)
Willingness to buy foreign food products		
I am willing to buy food products from this country.	WTB_FOOD_country_1	Putrevu & Lord (1994)
It is very likely that I will buy food products from this country next year.	WTB_FOOD_country_2	Putrevu & Lord (1994)
Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to buy food products from this country.	WTB_FOOD_country_3	Darling & Arnold (1988)
Generally, I avoid buying food products from this country.	WTB_FOOD_country_4R	Klein et al. (1998)
Willingness to buy foreign tourism services		
I am willing to spend holidays in this country.	WTB_TOUR_country_1	Putrevu & Lord (1994)
It is very likely that I will spend holidays in this country next year.	WTB_TOUR_country_2	Putrevu & Lord (1994)
Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to spend holidays in this country.	WTB_TOUR_country_3	Darling & Arnold (1988)
Generally, I avoid spending holidays in this country.	WTB_TOUR_country_4R	Klein et al. (1998)

[15] Since we measure consumer animosity for three countries, all variable labels contain the abbreviation of the country, i.e., HU for Hungary, CR for Croatia and IT for Italy. The same description applies to all country-specific variables.

Quality judgment of food products and tourism services from Hungary, Croatia and Italy was measured by means of five items. Finally, *willingness to buy* food products and tourism services from the selected countries was measured by means of four items. The fourth statement is labeled 'R', which refers to a reverse-worded item. The items for measuring foreign product judgment and willingness to buy were obtained from existing literature and adapted for the Slovenian setting. All the items measuring the described constructs are shown in Table 13.

In the final part of the questionnaire, we asked the respondents about their demographic background. We collected data on their gender (GENDER), year of birth (YEAR_BIRTH), highest level of completed education (EDUCATION), work status (WORK), region of residence (REGION), and the estimated monthly income of their household (INCOME). Respondents who indicated that their monthly income is average were asked to answer an additional question (AVE_INCOME).

3.2.3 Questionnaire design and data collection

Questionnaire design is extremely important because it affects the response rate as well as the reliability and validity of collected data. Saunders et al. (2009, p. 362) suggest that these can be maximized by taking the following steps: (1) careful design of questions, (2) attractive layout of the questionnaire, (3) unambiguous explanation of the purpose of the questionnaire, (4) pilot testing, and (5) meticulously planned and executed administration.

We considered the proposed recommendations and adopted the following measures. The wording of questions was carefully selected and the items were clear, short and understandable. In order to make the questionnaire attractive and easy to read, we paid attention to the use of different font styles and colors. Each set of questions contained brief instructions on how to answer them. Furthermore, the response options were clearly explained at the beginning of each group of statements or questions. Moreover, we provided the respondents with a concise introduction in which we listed our names, the name of our institution, explained the purpose of research, ensured them anonymity, and informed them about the approximate duration of the questionnaire (15 minutes) and how their input would be valuable to us.

Prior to data collection, we established *face validity*. After having meticulously translated the questionnaire into Slovenian and carefully adapted the wording of items to the Slovenian context, we conducted a pilot test on a set of 30 respondents. This exercise enabled us to check whether all the items were correctly interpreted and understood. Apart from a few suggestions for minor improvements, the respondents did not report any serious issues. We took into consideration the comments of test respondents and made the necessary improvements in the measurement instrument. The English version of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix E.

The basic measurement instrument was an **online questionnaire** created with 1ka survey design software. We thoroughly planned the process of data collection by employing additional types of questionnaires in order to reach diverse respondents with regard to age, education, work status, income, and especially region of residence. Since there is a population that does not use the internet, a number of questionnaires were delivered to respondents by hand and collected later, whereas several questionnaires were posted to respondents who returned them by post on completion. We also administered a few questionnaires using the telephone, and finally, in some cases, we physically met with the respondents and asked the questions face-to-face (Saunders et al., 2009, pp. 362–363).

We used a non-probability sampling technique, more specifically *snowball sampling*. We sent the questionnaire to a number of relatives, friends and colleagues and ask them to fill in the questionnaire and to forward it to their friends and family. On the one hand, this technique is cost- and time-efficient. On the other hand, it can cause problems of bias because respondents tend to identify other respondents who are similar to themselves, leading to a homogeneous sample (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 240). The fact that we have different social circles mitigates this problem to a certain extent. Apart from that, we attempted to achieve a more heterogeneous sample with the help of different types of questionnaires as described in the previous paragraph and by posting our questionnaire on several different internet forums which target different populations and regions.

3.3 Results of quantitative research

This section provides the findings of our quantitative study. First, we briefly describe the results of data collection. Then, we present the demographic characteristics of the sample, describe and explain the transformation of selected variables. Next, we focus on the four constructs presented in the conceptual model (see Figure 11) and provide descriptive statistics for each construct. We examine the dimensionality of constructs by conducting exploratory factor analysis. For each construct, we calculate Cronbach's alpha which is the most common measure of scale reliability (Field, 2009, p. 674). Finally, we test the hypotheses for three countries, one product and one service category.

3.3.1 Characteristics of the sample

The data were collected during the period between May 6th and May 24th 2012. As noted earlier, the primary means of data collection was an online questionnaire; however, we also employed other modes of data collection. We delivered and later collected a total of 71 printed questionnaires. Twenty-one printed questionnaires were posted to respondents who returned them by post on completion. Lastly, we conducted five structured telephone interviews and eight face-to-face interviews. We later entered all the printed questionnaires into the database by ourselves. Upon the expiration of the time designated to data collection, we retrieved a total of 418 questionnaires having the status 'completed'. Twelve questionnaires were excluded from further analysis due to excessive missing values. Another

two questionnaires were dismissed because of extreme values, thus our final sample consists of 404 usable questionnaires. Since the snowball sampling technique does not yield information about the total number of people asked to complete the questionnaire, we cannot calculate the response rate.

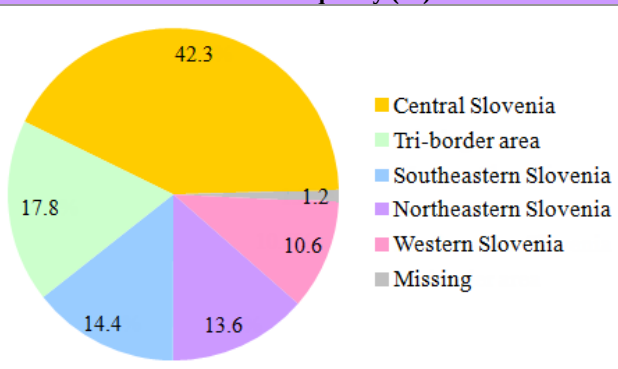
Table 14: Demographic characteristics of respondents

Demographic characteristics		Frequency	Relative frequency (%)
Age groups (years)	15–19	13	3.2
	20–29	119	29.5
	30–39	94	23.3
	40–49	77	19.1
	50–59	55	13.6
	60–69	29	7.2
	70–79	17	4.2
	Missing	0	
Gender	Female	244	60.4
	Male	156	38.6
	Missing	4	1.0
Education	Elementary school or less	20	5.0
	3- or 4- year vocational school	105	26.0
	Secondary school	68	16.8
	Junior college	91	22.5
	University education or more	117	29.0
	Missing	3	0.7
Income	Below average	89	22.0
	Slightly below average	54	13.4
	Exactly average	91	22.5
	Slightly above average	104	25.7
	Above average	64	15.8
	Missing	2	0.5
Work status	Work in household or on farm	4	1.0
	Self-employed	19	4.7
	Employed – management position	35	8.7
	Employed – non-management position	207	51.2
	Unemployed	17	4.2
	Retired	43	10.6
	Student	73	18.1
	Missing	6	1.5
Statistical region	Central Slovenia	156	38.6
	Coastal-Karst region	17	4.2
	Drava region	18	4.5
	Gorenjska region	19	4.7
	Gorica region	10	2.5
	Koroška region	4	1.0
	Lower Sava region	22	5.4
	Mura region	72	17.8
	Notranjska-Karst region	16	4.0
	Sava Valley region	15	3.7
	Savinja region	14	3.5
	Southeastern Slovenia	36	8.9
	Missing	5	1.2

Table 14 presents the demographic characteristics of our survey respondents. We transformed the respondents' year of birth into their age (AGE) and then formed seven response categories in order to show the distribution of age by groups (AGE_GROUP) more clearly. Due to a larger number of younger respondents in the sample, the distribution of age is right-skewed. The age ranges between 15 and 77, whereas the mean age is 39.5. With regard to gender distribution, there are more females (60.4%) in the sample than males (38.6%). The educational background of respondents encompasses all levels of education; however, more than half have completed at least college education. The questionnaire contained two questions about respondents' monthly income (see Appendix E). For the sake of clarity, we merged the responses into one variable (NEW_INCOME) and formed five income categories. Almost half of the respondents indicated that their household's monthly income is either exactly average or slightly above average. Finally, most respondents (51.2%) are employed at non-management positions; however, the sample is diverse and also comprises other work statuses.

The response options regarding the region of residence included 12 statistical regions of Slovenia. Table 14 shows that our sample consists of respondents coming from all regions. However, as expected, Central Slovenia is most strongly represented (38.6%) since it is the most populous area. For the purpose of further analysis, we transform the initial 12 statistical regions into five new categories (NEW_REGION). This was done in order to obtain comparable results with the qualitative part of our research. Table 15 illustrates the distribution of respondents by the five newly formed regions. It is important to point out that from this point onwards, any reference to regions pertains to the new designation of regions.

Table 15: Distribution of respondents by newly formed regions

Statistical region	New region	Frequency	Relative frequency (%)
Central Slovenia	Central Slovenia	171	
Sava Valley region			
Drava region	Northeastern Slovenia	55	
Gorenjska region			
Koroška region			
Savinja region			
Mura region	Tri-border area	72	
Lower Sava region	Southeastern Slovenia	58	
Southeastern Slovenia			
Coastal-Karst region	Western Slovenia	43	
Gorica region			
Notranjska-Karst region			
Missing	Missing	5	

3.3.2 Statistical analysis of the constructs studied

This section provides the findings of reliability analyses conducted for consumer ethnocentrism, quality judgment and willingness to buy.[16] We then devote some attention to the validity of measurement. Lastly, we focus on descriptive statistics and present the scale item values, composite scale values and standard deviations.

[16] Dimensionality and reliability of consumer animosity are presented in section 3.3.3 since the results of the analysis are relevant for testing Hypothesis 1.

3.3.2.1 Reliability and validity of measurement

The measurement scales we applied for consumer ethnocentrism, quality judgment and willingness to buy are all based on previous research (see Table 13), which has supported their reliability, validity and unidimensionality. We assessed each construct's dimensionality with exploratory factor analysis using the *Principal Component Analysis* extraction method. The factor analysis of quality judgment and willingness to buy was conducted on each combination of foreign country and product/services category. Table 16 presents the factor loadings for consumer ethnocentrism, whereas Table 17 shows the factor loadings for quality judgment and willingness to buy. For each of the constructs, we extracted only one component, suggesting that all items representing the same construct loaded fairly well onto one single factor (factor loadings are sufficiently high). Although exploratory factor analysis is not an explicit test of unidimensionality (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988, p. 189), the results of our factor analyses lead us to believe that each set of items measures one single construct.

Table 16: Factor loadings and reliability for consumer ethnocentrism

Construct (factor)	Item	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
Consumer ethnocentrism	We, Slovenians, should not let other countries get rich off us. (1)	0.604	0.737
	Slovenians who buy mainly foreign-made products hurt the Slovenian economy and cause unemployment. (2)	0.826	
	It may cost me more in the long run but I prefer to buy products made in Slovenia. (3)	0.715	
	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within Slovenia. (4)	0.829	

Saunders (2009, p. 156) defines reliability as the extent to which analysis procedures will yield consistent findings. Therefore, the aim of reliability analysis is to identify items that will provide the most reliable measure. In order to assess internal consistency reliability of the items in the scale, we calculate Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for each construct. The coefficient ranges between 0 and 1. There is no consent on minimum acceptable alpha values and opinions on cut-off points differ. Ferligoj, Leskošek and Kogovšek (1995, p. 157) recommend the following guidelines for coefficient alpha values:

- $\alpha \geq 0.80$ exemplary
- $0.70 \leq \alpha < 0.80$ very good
- $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.70$ moderate
- $\alpha < 0.60$ barely acceptable

Table 16 shows that Cronbach's alpha for consumer ethnocentrism is 0.737 which indicates a very good value of the coefficient. The first half of Table 17 shows alpha values for judgment of food and tourism services from Hungary, Croatia and Italy. All values are well above 0.8 suggesting high internal consistency of the scale. The second half of Table 17 shows that alpha coefficients for willingness to buy food and tourism services from the selected countries are somewhat lower, but also very reliable.

Validity refers to the ability of a questionnaire to measure what it is supposed to measure (Saunders, 2009, p. 372). *Content validity* is assumed to be established when the scale has been constructed according to the literature (Alegre, Lapiedra & Chiva, 2006, p. 338). The items used to measure consumer ethnocentrism, product judgment and willingness to buy were all taken from the international marketing literature. Their reliability and validity have already been widely confirmed by previous research. Part of the relevant items to measure consumer animosity was taken from literature, and prior studies have already provided support for their validity. The rest of the items were developed based on the findings of our exploratory qualitative research. We assume they are valid since according to Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007, p. 114), engaging in exploratory qualitative research to ensure comprehensiveness and relevance of reasons for animosity feelings contributes to content validity of subsequent measures.

Table 17: Factor loadings and reliability for quality judgment and willingness to buy

Construct (factor)	Item	Hungary		Croatia		Italy	
		Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
Judgment of foreign food products	Food products originating from country …						
	usually offer good value for money. (1)	0.796	0.878	0.825	0.879	0.814	0.841
	are generally of high quality. (2)	0.883		0.875		0.849	
	are generally better than the same products originating from other countries. (3)	0.755		0.752		0.729	
	seem to be satisfactory. (4)	0.860		0.842		0.855	
	are generally cleverly designed and attractive. (5)	0.802		0.810		0.647	
Judgment of foreign tourism services	Tourism services in country …						
	usually offer good value for money. (1)	0.808	0.901	0.869	0.909	0.847	0.883
	are generally of high quality. (2)	0.909		0.893		0.851	
	are generally better than tourism services in other countries. (3)	0.735		0.797		0.712	
	seem to be satisfactory. (4)	0.885		0.873		0.883	
	are generally attractive. (5)	0.861		0.837		0.803	
Willingness to buy foreign food products	I am willing to buy food products from this country. (1)	0.888	0.833	0.892	0.779	0.889	0.814
	It is very likely that I will buy food products from this country next year. (2)	0.877		0.877		0.874	
	Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to buy food products from this country. (3)	0.713		0.666		0.712	
	Generally, I avoid buying food products from this country. (4R)	0.777		0.663		0.741	
Willingness to buy foreign tourism services	I am willing to spend holidays in this country. (1)	0.794	0.788	0.902	0.884	0.822	0.804
	It is very likely that I will spend holidays in this country next year. (2)	0.784		0.886		0.809	
	Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to spend holidays in this country. (3)	0.804		0.841		0.801	
	Generally, I avoid spending holidays in this country. (4R)	0.749		0.818		0.741	

3.3.2.2 Descriptive statistics

For the purpose of hypothesis testing, we compute composite scales by averaging the scale items for each construct. In this way, we can ensure comparability across constructs with a different number of items. Composite scales for consumer animosity are not calculated in this section. We deal with this issue in the next section in which we intend to examine the multidimensional nature of consumer animosity (Hypothesis 1).

Consumer ethnocentrism was measured by means of four items on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Table 18 shows the mean and standard deviation for all items measuring this construct. The respondents agreed most with the statement that Slovenians should not let other countries get rich off them (5.38). The mean value of the remaining three items is slightly above the neutral response option 4 (undecided). The scale value of consumer ethnocentrism, computed as the mean of scale items, is 4.66, suggesting that respondents do not harbor highly ethnocentric tendencies.

Table 18: Descriptive statistics of consumer ethnocentrism items

Construct	Scale item	Mean	Standard deviation
Consumer ethnocentrism (CET)	We, Slovenians, should not let other countries get rich off us. (1)	5.38	1.659
	Slovenians who buy mainly foreign-made products hurt the Slovenian economy and cause unemployment. (2)	4.34	1.786
	It may cost me more in the long run but I prefer to buy products made in Slovenia. (3)	4.55	1.799
	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within Slovenia. (4)	4.35	1.986
	Composite scale	**4.66**	**1.808**

Mean values of items measuring quality judgment and willingness to buy are presented in Table 19. *Quality judgment of food products and tourism services* was measured by five statements on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The composite values for all three countries are fairly close to the neutral point. Hungary received the lowest overall average score in the evaluation of food products (3.90), whereas Croatia's (4.46) and Italy's (4.48) quality judgments were almost identical and somewhat above the neutral point. The first four items were most strongly supported in relation to food originating from Croatia, whereas the fifth statement referring to clever design and attractiveness achieved the highest mean value in the case of Italian food products (5.18). The lowest scores for all countries are observed for item 3 which compares the quality of food originating from the target country with that of other countries.

The composite scale values indicate that respondents rated the quality of foreign tourism services more favorably than the quality of food products. These values are above the neutral point for all three countries. Once more, Hungary received the lowest scores for all items, but its composite scale value (4.28) is not much lower than overall mean values of Croatia (4.50) and Italy (4.72). In the case of Hungary, respondents expressed strongest support for the statement that its tourism services seem satisfactory (4.53), whereas Croatia (5.08) and Italy

(5.26) received the highest recognition with regard to attractiveness of their tourism services. Again, the lowest mean values for all countries are recorded for item 3.

Table 19: Descriptive statistics of quality judgment and willingness to buy items

Construct	Scale item	Hungary		Croatia		Italy	
		Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Judgment of foreign food products (PJ_FOOD_country)	Food products originating from country …						
	usually offer good value for money. (1)	3.91	1.385	4.44	1.452	4.31	1.488
	are generally of high quality. (2)	3.70	1.348	4.41	1.360	4.21	1.382
	are generally better than the same products originating from other countries. (3)	3.42	1.340	3.89	1.412	3.87	1.378
	seem to be satisfactory. (4)	4.38	1.488	4.94	1.365	4.83	1.381
	are generally cleverly designed and attractive. (5)	4.10	1.408	4.64	1.313	5.18	1.357
	Composite scale	**3.90**	**1.394**	**4.46**	**1.380**	**4.48**	**1.397**
Judgment of foreign tourism services (PJ_TOUR_country)	Tourism services in country …						
	usually offer good value for money. (1)	4.50	1.341	4.51	1.612	4.61	1.349
	are generally of high quality. (2)	4.17	1.278	4.31	1.441	4.66	1.324
	are generally better than tourism services in other countries. (3)	3.69	1.292	3.84	1.477	4.13	1.353
	seem to be satisfactory. (4)	4.53	1.402	4.76	1.495	4.93	1.309
	are generally attractive. (5)	4.51	1.466	5.08	1.468	5.26	1.302
	Composite scale	**4.28**	**1.356**	**4.50**	**1.499**	**4.72**	**1.327**
Willingness to buy foreign food products (WTB_FOOD_ country)	I am willing to buy food products from this country. (1)	4.57	1.708	5.18	1.521	5.07	1.596
	It is very likely that I will buy food products from this country next year. (2)	4.35	1.799	5.12	1.648	5.06	1.726
	Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to buy food products from this country. (3)	3.25	1.487	3.84	1.583	3.82	1.601
	Generally, I avoid buying food products from this country. (4R)	4.75	1.969	5.26	1.735	5.14	1.846
	Composite scale	**4.23**	**1.741**	**4.85**	**1.622**	**4.77**	**1.692**
Willingness to buy foreign tourism services (WTB_TOUR_ country)	I am willing to spend holidays in this country. (1)	4.58	1.927	5.66	1.622	5.27	1.756
	It is very likely that I will spend holidays in this country next year. (2)	2.75	1.618	5.14	1.946	3.51	1.863
	Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to spend holidays in this country. (3)	2.80	1.582	4.86	1.962	3.69	1.885
	Generally, I avoid spending holidays in this country. (4R)	4.83	2.072	5.65	1.796	5.28	1.938
	Composite scale	**3.74**	**1.800**	**5.33**	**1.832**	**4.44**	**1.861**

Willingness to buy food products and tourism services was measured by a four-item scale with response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Item 4 in both sets of statements is reverse-coded. The overall scale results suggest that respondents are willing to buy food products from all three countries, but this tendency is strongest in relation to Croatian food (4.85). In fact, Croatia received the highest mean scores for all items,

followed by Italy and Hungary. While products originating from Hungary, Croatia and Italy are not the respondents' first choice (item 3), they do not avoid buying these products either (item 4).

Regarding willingness to buy tourism services, Croatia received the highest mean values for all four items and is an absolute winner in this category. Italy occupies the second place and is followed by Hungary. It is interesting to observe a relatively large difference between the countries' composite scales. Hungary's composite mean value (3.74) suggests that respondents are not inclined to purchase its tourism services. In fact, respondents stated it is unlikely they will spend their holidays in Hungary next year (item 2). The overall mean value of Italy (4.44) is somewhat above the neutral point, whereas Croatia's (5.33) results suggest that respondents are quite strongly willing to purchase its tourism services.

Consumer animosity was measured on a ten-item scale with response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). It can be observed that animosity toward all three countries is fairly low (see Table 20). In the case of Hungary, only two statements were rated above the neutral point, i.e., difficult communication (4.37) and disapproval of domestic politics (4.15). It seems that animosity toward Croatia and Italy is mostly based on politics since all statements regarding political issues (disapproval of domestic politics, twisting of historical facts, opportunistic foreign policy) have mean values higher than 4. Additionally, the mean value 4.17 (see item 4) suggests that respondents slightly disapproved of Croatians' attitude toward Slovenians.

Table 20: Descriptive statistics for consumer animosity items

Scale item	Hungary		Croatia		Italy	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
I do not like this country. (1)	2.44	1.625	2.51	1.756	2.36	1.600
I do not like people from this country. (2)	2.31	1.528	2.51	1.695	2.45	1.612
I do not like the mentality of the people from this country. (3)	2.81	1.613	3.26	1.982	3.03	1.798
The people from this country have a bad attitude toward Slovenians. (4)	3.08	1.551	4.17	1.930	3.88	1.772
I find it difficult to communicate with people from this country. (5)	4.37	2.117	2.16	1.500	3.70	2.052
I disapprove of the domestic politics of this country. (6)	4.15	1.613	4.14	1.666	4.20	1.534
This country twists historical facts. (7)	3.90	1.516	4.63	1.749	4.76	1.684
This country's foreign policy is opportunistic. (8)	3.76	1.393	4.29	1.672	4.25	1.567
My experiences with people from this country are negative. (9)	2.32	1.453	2.63	1.734	2.43	1.516
I have had bad experiences when I traveled to this country. (10)	2.14	1.368	2.52	1.755	2.17	1.425

For questions concerning quality judgment, willingness to buy and consumer animosity, the respondents were offered an option to indicate 0, meaning '*I do not know'*. The zero values are treated as missing values and are thus not taken into account in further analyses. However, we consider it informative to show the frequencies of zero response options by item (see

Table 21). Of particular interest is the large number of '*I do not know'* responses for quality judgment of Hungarian food and tourism services. Approximately one quarter of respondents is not at all familiar with this country's products and services. Consequently, the frequencies of zero values for willingness to buy Hungarian products and services are substantially higher than those of Croatia and Italy. With regard to consumer animosity, respondents were least familiar with all three countries' political issues (items 6, 7 and 8); however, as has already been mentioned, this lack of information is most apparent in the case of Hungary.

Table 21: Frequencies of response option 'I do not know'

	Hungary					**Croatia**					**Italy**				
	PJ		**WTB**		**CA**	**PJ**		**WTB**		**CA**	**PJ**		**WTB**		**CA**
	Food	Tour	Food	Tour		Food	Tour	Food	Tour		Food	Tour	Food	Tour	
Item 1	104	152	63	50	31	40	15	8	5	9	38	60	14	19	11
Item 2	106	155	77	66	32	37	20	16	19	7	38	64	23	40	11
Item 3	110	154	78	66	51	44	29	10	12	14	42	69	18	31	13
Item 4	108	152	59	46	60	31	17	9	10	9	37	65	16	19	18
Item 5	116	140	-	-	42	34	15	-	-	10	38	57	-	-	10
Item 6	-	-	-	-	100	-	-	-	-	76	-	-	-	-	74
Item 7	-	-	-	-	105	-	-	-	-	52	-	-	-	-	58
Item 8	-	-	-	-	124	-	-	-	-	89	-	-	-	-	101
Item 9	-	-	-	-	46	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	20
Item 10	-	-	-	-	60	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	16
Total	**544**	**753**	**277**	**228**	**651**	**186**	**96**	**43**	**46**	**281**	**193**	**315**	**71**	**109**	**332**

Legend: PJ = Product judgment, WTB = Willingness to buy, CA = Consumer animosity, Tour = Tourism services

3.3.3 Hypothesis testing

In this section, we statistically test the eight hypotheses presented at the beginning of the chapter. Given that we study different foreign countries and product/services categories, we test the hypotheses for all combinations. We employ several different statistical tests and procedures, i.e., exploratory factor analysis, simple linear regression, independent samples t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiple linear regression.

H1: Consumer animosity among Slovenians stems from various sources.

H1a: Dislike of people from the target country is a source of consumer animosity.

H1b: Disapproval of animosity country politics is a source of consumer animosity.

H1c: Negative personal experience is a source of consumer animosity.

Consumer animosity was measured by means of a multi-item scale consisting of ten statements. We hypothesized that these statements represent three different dimensions, i.e.,

people animosity, political animosity and personal animosity.[17] For testing Hypothesis 1, we rely on exploratory factor analysis which helps us to reduce a group of indicators to a smaller and more manageable set of factors (Field, 2009, p. 629). It can be useful for conducting a preliminary analysis when there is insufficient theory about the relationship between indicators and the underlying constructs (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988, p. 189). The analysis was carried out with the extraction method *Principal Component Analysis* and with the *Varimax with Kaiser normalization* rotation method.

According to Field (2009, p. 657), a factor analysis requires the variables to correlate fairly well, whereas variables that correlate with no others should be eliminated. The correlation matrix showed that items 7, 9 and 10 were problematic (correlations lower than 0.3) in the case of Hungary, thus we excluded them from the analysis. Similarly, item 5 for Italy correlated weakly with other items and that is why we also dismissed it. Both KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy) and Bartlett's test suggest the appropriateness of using factor analysis. The KMO values were 0.844 for Hungary, 0.911 for Croatia, and 0.885 for Italy. For all three countries, we found that Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, KMO values for individual variables on the diagonal of the anti-image correlation matrix were above the required minimum of 0.5 and the off-diagonal elements in the matrix were low (Field, 2009, p. 659).

The number of factors was determined on the basis of the scree plot by determining the point of inflexion of the curve. We selected three factors to be extracted; however, had we followed Kaiser's criterion and retained only factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, only two factors would have been extracted. Jolliffe (1972, p. 170), on the other hand, argued that this criterion is too stringent and suggested retaining all factors with eigenvalues greater than 0.7. In the case of Hungary, the third factor with eigenvalue 0.715 indeed exceeded the suggested cut-off point so we retained it. In the case of Croatia and Italy, the eigenvalues of the third factor were somewhat lower (0.602 and 0.625). However, based on the scree plot, we were able to identify three factors (see Appendix F). Thus, the three factors we retrieved are **people, political and personal animosity**. The three factors explain 80.6% of total variance for Hungary, 75.5% for Croatia and 78.0% for Italy.

Table 22 shows how the items loaded onto the three extracted factors for Hungary and Table 23 shows the same for Croatia and Italy. Animosity toward all three countries consists of the same dimensions. The only item that loads differently is item 4 which is part of people animosity in the case of Hungary, whereas it is a part of political animosity in the case of Croatia and Italy. In addition, as has already been explained, some statements had to be removed from the analysis. The final measurement scale for consumer animosity toward Hungary and Italy consists of seven and nine items, respectively. We did not exclude any items measuring consumer animosity toward Croatia, thus the corresponding measurement scale consists of ten items. Cronbach's alpha measures reported in Tables 22 and 23 suggest

[17] We refer to animosity based on personal experience as 'personal animosity'.

that the composite measures of the consumer animosity dimensions are highly reliable for the three countries. Furthermore, the tables reveal high loadings of variables onto the identified factors for all countries studied.

Table 22: Dimensions of consumer animosity toward Hungary

Dimension/ Factor	Scale item	Hungary	
		Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
People animosity	I do not like this country. (1)	0.879	0.897
	I do not like people from this country. (2)	0.914	
	I do not like the mentality of the people from this country. (3)	0.827	
	The people from this country have a bad attitude toward Slovenians. (4)	0.673	
Political animosity	I disapprove of the domestic politics of this country. (6)	0.854	0.725
	This country's foreign policy is opportunistic. (8)	0.838	
Personal animosity	I find it difficult to communicate with people from this country. (5)	0.951	-

Table 23: Dimensions of consumer animosity toward Croatia and Italy

Dimension/ Factor	Scale item	Croatia		Italy	
		Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha	Factor loading	Cronbach's alpha
People animosity	I do not like this country. (1)	0.773	0.891	0.875	0.876
	I do not like people from this country. (2)	0.780		0.839	
	I do not like the mentality of the people from this country. (3)	0.755		0.686	
Political animosity	The people from this country have a bad attitude toward Slovenians. (4)	0.492	0.820	0.649	0.847
	I disapprove of the domestic politics of this country. (6)	0.764		0.785	
	This country twists historical facts. (7)	0.826		0.833	
	This country's foreign policy is opportunistic. (8)	0.763		0.827	
Personal animosity	My experiences with people from this country are negative. (9)	0.774	0.856	0.761	0.860
	I have had bad experiences when I traveled to this country. (10)	0.811		0.864	
	I find it difficult to communicate with people from this country. (5)	0.776		-	

Based on the exploratory factor analysis, we **confirm Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c for Hungary, Croatia and Italy**, thus providing an **overall confirmation for Hypothesis 1**.

H2: Demographic characteristics of Slovenian consumers are significant predictors of consumer animosity.

H2a: Age is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2b: Gender is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2c: Education is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2d: Income is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2e: Work status is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

H2f: Region is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

We employed simple linear regression (method *Enter*) for testing Hypothesis 2a. The results for all combinations of countries and animosity dimensions are presented in Table 24. We found that age (b = 0.011, p = 0.034) is a significant predictor of personal animosity toward Croatia. Although it is shown that the older the respondents, the more animus they are toward Croatia, the explanation power of the model is very small. Age accounts only for 1.2% of the variation in levels of personal animosity toward Croatia, thus indicating poor fit of the model. Each additional year increases the level of personal animosity toward Croatia by only 0.011. For all other countries, we found no empirical support for age being a significant predictor of any of the animosity dimensions. On the basis of this discussion, we **fail to find support for Hypothesis 2a**.

Table 24: Results of simple linear regression for Hypothesis 2a

Outcome variable / **Predictor variable**		**People animosity**			**Political animosity**			**Personal animosity**		
		Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy
	R square	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.002	**0.012**	0.002
Constant	b-value	2.518	2.584	2.495	3.889	4.313	4.096	4.074	**1.993**	2.576
	Sig.	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.000
Age	b-value	0.004	0.004	0.003	0.001	-0.001	0.004	0.007	**0.011**	0.004
	Sig.	0.490	0.459	0.601	0.928	0.888	0.436	0.349	**0.034**	0.399

We conducted independent samples t-test to determine whether gender is a significant predictor of consumer animosity (Hypothesis 2b). The results are mixed and the most relevant findings are presented in Table 25 (for more details see Appendix G). We found that on average, males exhibit significantly higher levels of people animosity toward Hungary (t = -3.428, p = 0.001), Croatia (t = -2.492, p = 0.013) and Italy (t = -3.756, p = 0.000) than females. Furthermore, males harbored statistically significant higher levels of political animosity toward Hungary (t = -2.248, p = 0.026), but not toward Croatia (t = -0.964, p = 0.336) and Italy (t = -1.172, p = 0.242). Lastly, on average, males exhibited higher levels of personal animosity toward Hungary (t = -2.589, p = 0.010) and Italy (t = -2.492, p = 0.013), but not toward Croatia (t = -0.683, p = 0.495). Thus, we can only **partially confirm Hypothesis H2b**.[18]

For testing Hypotheses 2c, 2d, 2e and 2f, we employed analysis of variance (ANOVA). The basic assumption of ANOVA is that variances between groups are similar. This assumption is tested with Levene's test. If the test is not significant ($\alpha > 0.05$), homogeneity of variances can be assumed and the results are interpreted from the main ANOVA summary table. However, if Levene's test is significant ($\alpha < 0.05$), the assumption of homogeneity of variances is not met and results should be interpreted from the Robust test of equality of means (Welch's F) (Field, 2009, pp. 381–384). The most relevant information, i.e., the

[18] Mean values of statistically significant differences between genders are presented in section 4.2.

t-values, F-ratios and corresponding significance values for all combinations of demographic variables, consumer animosity dimensions and countries are presented in Table 25. Since it would be too cumbersome to present all the results of 36 ANOVA tests and 9 t-tests in this section, we reveal the detailed outputs from PASW with regard to testing Hypotheses 2b, 2c, 2d, 2e, 2f in Appendix G.

We found that levels of people animosity toward Hungary (F = 4.051, p = 0.003), Croatia (F = 3.151, p = 0.014) and Italy (F = 4.500, p = 0.002) are significantly different between groups of respondents with different educational backgrounds. However, we did not find empirical support for education to be a significant predictor of political animosity toward any of the target countries. There is a significant effect of education on levels of personal animosity toward Italy (F = 4.934, p = 0.001), whereas this does not apply to Hungary and Croatia. Thus, we find only **partial support for Hypothesis H2c**.[19]

Table 25: Results of t-test for Hypothesis 2b and ANOVA for Hypotheses 2c, 2d, 2e and 2f

Outcome variable / Predictor variable		People animosity			Political animosity			Personal animosity		
		Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy
Gender	t-value	**-3.428**	**-2.492**	**-3.756**	**-2.248**	-0.964	-1.172	**-2.589**	-0.683	**-2.492**
	Significance (2-tailed)	**0.001**	**0.013**	**0.000**	**0.026**	0.336	0.242	**0.010**	0.495	**0.013**
Education	F-value	**4.051**	**3.151**	**4.500**	0.774	2.060	2.380	1.232	0.966	**4.934**
	Significance	**0.003**	**0.014**	**0.002**	0.543	0.086	0.052	0.297	0.426	**0.001**
Income	F-value	2.355	1.020	1.108	0.195	0.511	1.090	2.139	1.544	0.907
	Significance	0.054	0.398	0.355	0.941	0.728	0.364	0.078	0.189	0.460
Work status	F-value	0.799	0.688	0.902	0.725	1.416	0.803	1.997	1.186	0.918
	Significance	0.571	0.660	0.493	0.630	0.209	0.568	0.096	0.313	0.482
Region	F-value	0.891	2.126	0.933	0.128	2.036	1.146	0.695	1.959	1.512
	Significance	0.472	0.077	0.445	0.972	0.089	0.335	0.596	0.100	0.198

Based on the results presented in Table 25, we did not find income, work status and region of residence to be a significant predictor of any dimension of consumer animosity. Thus, we **fail to find support for Hypotheses H2d, H2e and H2f**. Having tested all the sub-hypotheses, we conclude that **Hypothesis 2** can be only **partially confirmed**.

H3: Consumer animosity and consumer ethnocentrism are positively related.

Hypothesis 3 was tested with Pearson's correlation coefficient. The results are presented in Table 26. We found a statistically significant positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity in six cases (people animosity toward Hungary and Italy, political animosity toward all three countries, and personal animosity toward Italy). However, all the corresponding correlation coefficients are below 0.3, suggesting a weak

[19] Mean values of statistically significant differences between education groups are presented in section 4.2.

correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity. Furthermore, a large percentage of variation that the two variables have in common is left unexplained (Connolly, 2007, p. 95). Nevertheless, the correlations are positive and statistically significant at the 0.05 significance level, thus we **partially support Hypothesis 3**.

Table 26: Pearson's correlation coefficients for Hypothesis 3

		People animosity			**Political animosity**			**Personal animosity**		
		Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy
Consumer ethnocentrism	Pearson's correlation	**0.191**	0.086	**0.196**	**0.168**	**0.156**	**0.199**	0.036	0.094	**0.181**
	Significance (2-tailed)	**0.001**	0.092	**0.000**	**0.007**	**0.008**	**0.001**	0.497	0.065	**0.000**

In order to test Hypotheses 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8, we applied multiple linear regression using the method *Enter*, in which all predictors are forced into the model simultaneously. The first step was to check the correlation matrix for multicollinearity. None of the predictors were problematic since their correlation values were all lower than 0.8 (Field, 2009, pp. 212, 224; Kennedy, 2003, p. 209). The next step was to examine the Model Summary output. The R^2 values along with other important information are presented in Table 27 and Table 28. Additional information is illustrated in the Appendix (in Appendix H for Hypotheses 4 and 5, in Appendix I for Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8). The Durbin-Watson statistics in all 12 models range between 1 and 3, and are close to 2, suggesting that errors in the regression are independent (Field, 2009, p. 237). Finally, we checked whether the ANOVA results are significant.

H4: Consumer animosity has a negative effect on foreign product judgment.

In Hypothesis 4, we tested the impact of three dimensions of consumer animosity on quality judgment of food and tourism services separately for each country. We tested whether quality judgment of food products/tourism services (outcome variables) is predicted by people, political or personal animosity and consumer ethnocentrism (predictor variables).

Table 27 shows the results for Hypotheses 4 and 5 (multiple linear regression enabled us to test both hypotheses at once). We can see that the proportion of variance explained by all six models is relatively small and that the model of quality judgment of Italian tourism services has the highest explanation power ($R^2 = 0.282$) among them. Quality judgment of Hungarian food products is predicted by people (b = -0.263, p = 0.000) and political (b = -0.138, p = 0.036) animosity toward Hungary, whereas quality judgment of Croatian food products is predicted by people (b = -0.171, p = 0.009) and personal (b = -0.187, p = 0.005) animosity toward Croatia. Similarly, in the case of Italy, people (b = -0.216, p = 0.000) and personal (b = -0.209, p = 0.001) animosity were found to have a significant effect on quality judgment of Italian food products. Quality judgment of Italian tourism services is also predicted by people (b = -0.318, p = 0.000) and personal (b = -0.147, p = 0.019) animosity toward Italy. The only significant predictor of quality judgment of Hungarian tourism services is people animosity (b = -0.370, p = 0.000), whereas quality judgment of Croatian tourism services is

predicted by people animosity (b = -0.293, p = 0.000) and consumer ethnocentrism (b = 0.136, p = 0.010). The most important predictor is people animosity since the standardized beta values for this dimension are the highest in all six models. Table 27 shows that *people animosity is the only dimension of consumer animosity that significantly predicts quality judgment of food products as well as tourism services for all three countries*. Thus, we can only **partially support Hypothesis 4**.

H5: Consumer ethnocentrism has a negative effect on foreign product judgment.

Although consumer ethnocentrism has a statistically significant effect (p = 0.010) on quality judgment of Croatian tourism services, it can be observed that the standardized beta value of consumer ethnocentrism (β = 0.142) is substantially lower than that of people animosity toward Croatia, suggesting that consumer ethnocentrism is not an important predictor of the outcome variable. Apart from that, the regression coefficient (b = 0.136) of consumer ethnocentrism is low and positive (we predicted a negative relationship). Furthermore, the effect of consumer ethnocentrism on quality judgment of food/tourism services was not significant in all other instances, thus we **cannot find support for Hypothesis 5**.

Table 27: Results of multiple linear regressions for Hypotheses 4 and 5

Outcome variable / Predictor variable		Quality judgment of food products			Quality judgment of tourism services		
		Hungary	**Croatia**	**Italy**	**Hungary**	**Croatia**	**Italy**
	R square	0.179	0.203	0.251	0.239	0.216	0.282
Constant	b-value	4.982	5.171	5.642	5.249	5.087	5.686
	t-value	15.511	18.679	21.844	16.056	16.584	21.560
	Significance	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
People animosity	b-value	**-0.263**	**-0.171**	**-0.216**	**-0.370**	**-0.293**	**-0.318**
	Beta (standard.)	**-0.317**	**-0.246**	**-0.297**	**-0.450**	**-0.372**	**-0.432**
	t-value	**-4.059**	**-2.615**	**-3.634**	**-5.610**	**-4.061**	**-5.238**
	Significance	**0.000**	**0.009**	**0.000**	**0.000**	**0.000**	**0.000**
Political animosity	b-value	**-0.138**	0.001	0.067	-0.082	-0.090	0.084
	Beta (standard.)	**-0.159**	0.002	0.084	-0.096	-0.099	0.104
	t-value	**-2.115**	0.019	1.251	-1.237	-1.287	1.543
	Significance	**0.036**	0.985	0.212	0.218	0.199	0.124
Personal animosity	b-value	-0.008	**-0.187**	**-0.209**	0.009	-0.013	**-0.147**
	Beta (standard.)	-0.015	**-0.240**	**-0.268**	0.016	-0.015	**-0.186**
	t-value	-0.204	**-2.848**	**-3.411**	0.219	-0.182	**-2.353**
	Significance	0.838	**0.005**	**0.001**	0.827	0.856	**0.019**
Consumer ethnocentrism	b-value	0.046	0.047	-0.065	0.065	**0.136**	-0.021
	Beta (standard.)	0.054	0.055	-0.081	0.077	**0.142**	-0.025
	t-value	0.846	0.987	-1.463	1.165	**2.595**	-0.453
	Significance	0.399	0.324	0.145	0.246	**0.010**	0.651

H6: Foreign product judgment has a positive effect on willingness to buy foreign products.

H7: Consumer animosity has a direct negative effect on willingness to buy products from the animosity country.

H8: Consumer ethnocentrism has a direct negative effect on willingness to buy products from the foreign country.

Table 28 presents the results of testing Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8. The outputs for all three hypotheses are presented together because multiple linear regression allows us to test all the hypotheses at once. The outcome variable is willingness to buy, whereas the predictor variables are people, political and personal animosity, consumer ethnocentrism and quality judgment. The explanation power of the models presented in Table 28 is substantially higher than that of the models in Table 27. Accordingly, the R^2 values of the willingness to buy models are all above 0.400 with the exception of Hungary ($R^2 = 0.261$). It can be seen that quality judgment is the most important predictor (see β values in Table 28) of willingness to buy food originating from Hungary (b = 0.694, p = 0.000), Croatia (b = 0.572, p = 0.000) and Italy (b = 0.643, p = 0.000). People animosity also enters as a predictor of willingness to buy food originating from Hungary (b = -0.190, p = 0.005), Croatia (b = -0.249, p = 0.000) and Italy (b = -0.221, p = 0.001). Finally, consumer ethnocentrism predicts willingness to buy food from all three countries (Hungary: b = -0.233, p = 0.000; Croatia: b = -0.148, p = 0.000; Italy: b = -0.243, p = 0.000). Personal animosity does not predict willingness to buy foreign food, whereas political animosity (b = 0.172, p = 0.002) is a significant predictor only in the case of willingness to buy Croatian food.

Quality judgment again appears as the most important predictor of willingness to buy foreign tourism services in all three models. Other predictors which significantly affect willingness to buy tourism services are people animosity (Hungary: b = -0.174, p = 0.048; Croatia: b = -0.249, p = 0.001; Italy: b = -0.326, p = 0.000), political animosity[20] (Croatia: b = 0.144, p = 0.048; Italy: b = 0.151, p = 0.026) and personal animosity (only in the case of Croatia: b = -0.274, p = 0.000).

Based on the previous discussion, we **confirm Hypothesis 6** for both food products and tourism services across all three countries. People animosity is again the only dimension of consumer animosity that predicts willingness to buy food and tourism services from the target countries, thus we find **partial support for Hypothesis 7**. Finally, we **partially support Hypothesis 8** since consumer ethnocentrism predicts willingness to buy food products from the animosity countries, whereas the impact of consumer ethnocentrism on willingness to buy tourism services from the target countries is not significant.

[20] The political dimension of consumer animosity appears to be an anomaly in our analysis since its relationship with willingness to buy is positive.

Table 28: Results of multiple linear regressions for Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8

Outcome variable / Predictor variable		Willingness to buy food products			Willingness to buy tourism services		
		Hungary	**Croatia**	**Italy**	**Hungary**	**Croatia**	**Italy**
	R square	0.474	0.497	0.476	0.261	0.459	0.402
Constant	b-value	2.864	3.128	3.085	1.765	3.880	2.670
	t-value	6.128	8.415	6.797	2.840	8.617	4.819
	Significance	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.000	0.000
People animosity	b-value	**-0.190**	**-0.249**	**-0.221**	**-0.174**	**-0.249**	**-0.326**
	Beta (standard.)	**-0.185**	**-0.326**	**-0.246**	**-0.171**	**-0.258**	**-0.329**
	t-value	**-2.848**	**-4.303**	**-3.492**	**-1.989**	**-3.244**	**-4.135**
	Significance	**0.005**	**0.000**	**0.001**	**0.048**	**0.001**	**0.000**
Political animosity	b-value	0.065	**0.172**	0.082	0.021	**0.144**	**0.151**
	Beta (standard.)	0.061	**0.195**	0.083	0.020	**0.129**	**0.138**
	t-value	0.999	**3.101**	1.466	0.257	**1.989**	**2.235**
	Significance	0.319	**0.002**	0.144	0.797	**0.048**	**0.026**
Personal animosity	b-value	-0.008	-0.075	0.065	0.017	**-0.274**	-0.078
	Beta (standard.)	-0.012	-0.087	0.068	0.026	**-0.252**	-0.074
	t-value	-0.207	-1.284	1.005	0.358	**-3.652**	-1.007
	Significance	0.836	0.200	0.316	0.721	**0.000**	0.315
Consumer ethnocentrism	b-value	**-0.233**	**-0.148**	**-0.243**	-0.001	-0.025	-0.065
	Beta (standard.)	**-0.222**	**-0.159**	**-0.244**	-0.001	-0.022	-0.059
	t-value	**-4.294**	**-3.561**	**-5.233**	-0.011	-0.467	-1.162
	Significance	**0.000**	**0.000**	**0.000**	0.991	0.641	0.247
Quality judgment	b-value	**0.694**	**0.572**	**0.643**	**0.525**	**0.511**	**0.523**
	Beta (standard.)	**0.561**	**0.519**	**0.518**	**0.423**	**0.416**	**0.388**
	t-value	**10.108**	**10.507**	**9.910**	**5.807**	**8.111**	**6.620**
	Significance	**0.000**	**0.000**	**0.000**	**0.000**	**0.000**	**0.000**

3.3.3.1 Overview of hypothesis testing results

Given that the testing of our eight initial hypotheses for three dimensions of consumer animosity, food products and tourism services across three foreign countries yielded a large amount of information, we present an overview of the results of 126 tested sub-hypotheses in Tables 29, 30, 31, 32 and 33.[21]

[21] 'Yes' indicates that we found statistical support for a particular sub-hypothesis, whereas 'no' indicates lack of support and rejection of a sub-hypothesis.

Table 29: Results of testing Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c

H		Hungary	Croatia	Italy
1a	People animosity	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**
1b	Political animosity	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**
1c	Personal animosity	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**

Table 30: Results of testing Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2c, 2d, 2e and 2f

H	Outcome / Predictor	People animosity			Political animosity			Personal animosity		
		Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy
2a	Age	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
2b	Gender	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	no	no	**yes**	no	**yes**
2c	Education	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	no	no	no	no	no	**yes**
2d	Income	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
2e	Work status	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no
2f	Region	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no	no

Table 31: Results of testing Hypothesis 3

H		People animosity			Political animosity			Personal animosity		
		Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy
3	Cons. ethnocentrism	**yes**	no	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	no	no	**yes**

Table 32: Results of testing Hypotheses 4 and 5

H	Outcome / Predictor	Quality judgment of food products			Quality judgment of tourism services		
		Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy
4	People animosity	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**
	Political animosity	**yes**	no	no	no	no	no
	Personal animosity	no	**yes**	**yes**	no	no	**yes**
5	Consumer ethnocentrism	no	no	no	no	no	no

Table 33: Results of testing Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8

H	Outcome / Predictor	Willingness to buy food products			Willingness to buy tourism services		
		Hungary	Croatia	Italy	Hungary	Croatia	Italy
6	Quality judgment	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**
7	People animosity	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**
	Political animosity	no	no	no	no	no	no
	Personal animosity	no	no	no	no	**yes**	no
8	Consumer ethnocentrism	**yes**	**yes**	**yes**	no	no	no

4 DISCUSSION

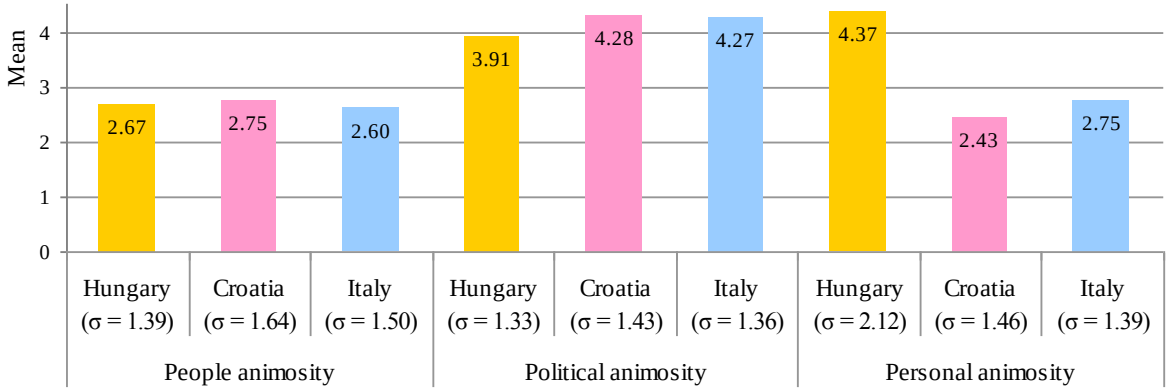
This chapter is intended to outline the main findings of both the quantitative and qualitative part of our research and provide a summary of dimensions, antecedents and consequences of consumer animosity in Slovenia. After that, we discuss managerial implications of consumer animosity in the Slovenian context and explain the main contributions of our research. Finally, we acknowledge the limitations of our study and suggest avenues for future research.

4.1 Dimensions of consumer animosity in Slovenia

Based on the extant consumer animosity literature and findings of our qualitative research, we assumed that consumer animosity in Slovenia stems from various sources, especially from negative personal experiences, disapproval of politics and dislike of people in the identified target countries, i.e., Hungary, Croatia and Italy. This assumption was later confirmed in the quantitative study. Testing of Hypothesis 1 provided statistical support for our predictions and we identified three dimensions of consumer animosity, i.e., *people*, *political* and *personal* animosity. Our results are partly consistent with previous research. The people dimension was identified by Nes et al. (2011). Politics as an important reason for consumer animosity was also identified in research (e.g., Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Hoffmann et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2010a, 2010b; Russell & Russell, 2006). Similarly, personal animosity was found to be an important source of consumer animosity by several authors (Amine, 2008; Jung et al., 2002; Hoffmann et al., 2011; Podoshen & Hunt, 2009; Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). The original study of consumer animosity identified two dimensions of consumer animosity, i.e., war and economic animosity (Klein et al., 1998). These dimensions were confirmed in many different settings (Klein, 2002; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Shin, 2001), especially in earlier dated studies. In the Slovenian context, however, our qualitative research indicates that these two dimensions are not of particular importance.

Quantitative research showed that levels of animosity dimensions are quite low, indicating that Slovenians are on average not inclined toward feelings of animosity. Figure 12 shows the mean values of consumer animosity dimensions for the target countries. For Hungary, we found that the personal dimension of animosity is strongest ($\mu = 4.37$, $\sigma = 2.12$), followed by the political ($\mu = 3.91$, $\sigma = 1.33$) and people ($\mu = 2.67$, $\sigma = 1.39$) dimensions. The personal dimension was measured only with one item (difficult communication with Hungarians), whereas the other two items had to be excluded from the composite scale. Table 20 shows that the low mean values of items measuring negative experiences with Hungarians ($\mu = 2.32$, $\sigma = 1.45$) and negative experiences whilst traveling to Hungary ($\mu = 2.14$, $\sigma = 1.37$) are somewhat contradictory to our qualitative research, in which interviewees revealed that reasons for animosity are based on both difficult communication as well as negative personal experiences. A partial explanation for these conflicting findings may perhaps be attributed to the fact that Hungary received by far the most zero response options, which indicates that many respondents in our sample are not at all familiar with this country (see Table 21).

Figure 12: Mean values of consumer animosity dimensions by countries



The second dimension measuring political animosity toward Hungary consists of two items, i.e., disapproval of domestic politics and opportunistic foreign policy. The recent changes on Hungary's domestic political scene triggered many negative responses from our interviewees, suggesting the development of situational animosity. In quantitative research (see Table 20), we discovered that political animosity toward Hungary is predominantly based on disapproval of its domestic politics (μ = 4.15, σ = 1.61). Although the findings of both studies appear to be consistent and suggest that political animosity toward Hungary is situational-based, it would be necessary to engage in longitudinal research in order to reach more conclusive evidence on this phenomenon.

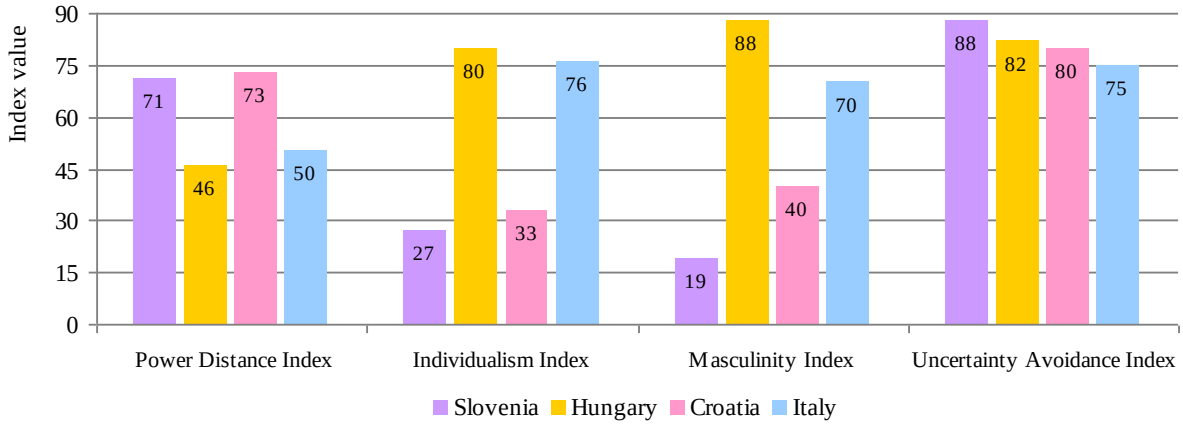
In the case of Croatia, political animosity had the highest composite mean value (μ = 4.28, σ = 1.43) compared to the other two dimensions. As can be seen in Table 20, all four items measuring political animosity had mean values above the neutral point: twisting of historical facts (μ = 4.63, σ = 1.75), opportunistic foreign policy (μ = 4.29, σ = 1.67), bad attitude toward Slovenians (μ = 4.17, σ = 1.93), and disapproval of domestic politics (μ = 4.14, σ = 1.67). 'Bad attitude toward Slovenians' was a frequently cited reason for animosity also in our qualitative research. Based on content analysis of qualitative data, this reason was included in the people category of animosity. Factor analysis of quantitative data showed that this item falls into the people category only in the case of Hungary, whereas it is part of political animosity in the context of Croatia and Italy. A possible explanation for this discrepancy is that respondents may have interpreted the same item differently for the selected countries. This supports the notion that each animosity setting is unique and depends on a specific situation or background.

Political animosity was the strongest among all dimensions also in the case of Italy (μ = 4.27, σ = 1.36). The highest item measuring political animosity was Italy's presumed twisting of historical facts (μ = 4.76, σ = 1.68), followed by opportunistic foreign policy (μ = 4.25, σ = 1.57), disapproval of domestic politics (μ = 4.20, σ = 1.53) and bad attitude toward Slovenians (μ = 3.88, σ = 1.77). These findings are consistent with qualitative research which showed that interviewees had strong opinions regarding Italy's post-World War II political

attitudes toward Slovenia and Slovenians. An additional aspect frequently exposed by interviewees was Italy's current political stance both in the international and domestic arena.

Figure 13 shows the values of dimensions of national culture for Slovenia and the countries studied (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). It is evident there are large differences between Slovenia and the foreign countries in all dimensions except for the uncertainty avoidance dimension. Although Slovenia and Croatia appear to be culturally similar (both have similar indexes values for power distance, individualism and uncertainty avoidance), the people animosity mean value was highest in the case of Croatia (see Figure 12). This finding is in line with Riefler and Diamantopoulos (2007, p. 111) who discovered that in spite of the cultural similarity between Austria and Germany, the latter ranked second as an animosity target among Austrian respondents. We presume that cultural dissimilarity may also contribute to feelings of animosity toward a specific country. This is most evident in the case of Hungary which greatly differs from Slovenia across all dimensions except in the uncertainty avoidance dimension.

Figure 13: Hofstede's cultural dimensions for Slovenia, Hungary, Croatia and Italy



Source: G. Hofstede et al., Cultures and organizations: software of the mind: intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival, 2010, pp. 57, 59, 95–97, 141, 143, 192–193.

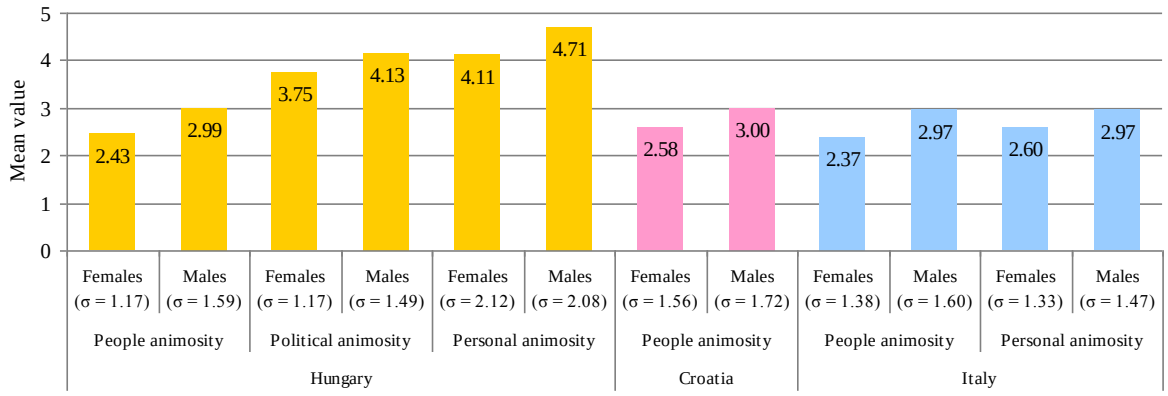
4.2 Antecedents of consumer animosity in Slovenia

We already explained that empirical evidence on the impact of demographic variables on consumer animosity is contradictory (see section 1.3.5.1.1). With regard to age as a demographic antecedent of consumer animosity, we found that all relationships were statistically not significant, with one exception, i.e., we found that age is a significant predictor of personal animosity toward Croatia. However, the importance of age in the model is miniscule; consequently, we did not find support for the hypothesis. Other studies (e.g., Funk et al., 2010; Klein et al., 1998) also found no relationship between the two variables.

In line with previous studies (Matić & Puh, 2011; Shah & Halim, 2011), we discovered that *males exhibit higher levels of consumer animosity than females*. More specifically, we found that gender had an impact on all three dimensions of consumer animosity toward Hungary.

Furthermore, males exhibited higher levels of people animosity toward Croatia and Italy as well as higher levels of personal animosity toward Italy. A comparison of the statistically significant differences between genders in levels of consumer animosity dimensions is shown in Figure 14.

Figure 14: Comparison of mean values of consumer animosity dimensions by gender



The ANOVA testing of Hypothesis 2c revealed that *education is a significant predictor of people animosity toward Hungary, Croatia and Italy and personal animosity toward Italy*. However, this test only tells us that statistically significant differences exist between groups, but it does not show us which groups have higher levels of animosity. To answer this question, we additionally conducted post hoc Hochberg's GT2 tests which are convenient when sample sizes are different (Field, 2009, pp. 374–375).

Table 34: Mean differences between education groups

Animosity dimension	Target country	Group 1	Mean value for Group 1	Group 2	Mean value for Group 2	Mean difference (Group 1 – Group 2)	Significance
People animosity	Hungary	University education or more	2.348	Elementary school or less	3.567	-1.219	0.014
		University education or more	2.348	3- or 4- year vocational school	2.976	-0.628	0.024
	Croatia	University education or more	2.347	Junior college	3.133	-0.786	0.006
	Italy	University education or more	2.188	Elementary school or less	3.648	-1.460	0.001
		University education or more	2.188	3- or 4- year vocational school	2.824	-0.636	0.017
Personal animosity	Italy	Elementary school or less	3.938	Secondary school	2.842	1.096	0.040
		Elementary school or less	3.938	Junior college	2.624	1.314	0.004
		Elementary school or less	3.938	University education or more	2.378	1.560	0.000
		3- or 4- year vocational school	3.073	University education or more	2.378	0.695	0.003

All the significant relationships between different education groups are presented in Appendix G (cf. Multiple Comparisons table). With regard to people animosity toward all three countries, we found that respondents who have acquired at least university education harbor significantly less people animosity compared to respondents with a lower degree of education. Furthermore, we found that respondents who have finished elementary school harbor more intense personal animosity feelings toward Italy compared to more educated respondents. The mean differences between these groups are presented in Table 34. Our findings that respondents with lower levels of education harbor more consumer animosity are consistent with research of Bahaee and Pisani (2009a, p. 206), who offer an explanation that more educated people are more aware of the global environment.

Income was found not to be a predictor of consumer animosity, which is in line with all the studies that dealt with this demographic antecedent (Bahaee & Pisani, 2009a; Klein & Ettenson, 1999; Shah & Halim, 2011; Urbonavicius et al., 2010). Work status was also a non-significant predictor of consumer animosity, which is consistent with the results obtained by Klein & Ettenson (1999). Finally, we did not find a relationship between respondents' region of residence and consumer animosity. Nakos and Hajidimitriou (2007, p. 66), who came to the same conclusions, suggest that regional differences may perhaps have been important in the past, but not anymore in the modern nation state. We find it somewhat surprising that we failed to discover significant differences in levels of consumer animosity across different Slovenian regions because the results of the qualitative study suggested that such differences indeed exist. As a matter of fact, we expected that animosity toward Croatia will be highest in southeastern and western Slovenia, whereas animosity toward Italy will be highest in western Slovenia. Results of quantitative research indicate that consumer animosity toward Croatia is quite low in the group of respondents from southeastern Slovenia. On the contrary, consumer animosity toward Croatia among western Slovenians was highest across all dimensions; however, the differences are not statistically significant. It is interesting to observe that animosity toward Italy among western Slovenians was highest for the political dimension, but lowest for the people and personal dimensions of consumer animosity. This could suggest that, although opposed to Italy's politics, geographical proximity to Italy and frequent contact with Italians diminish feelings of animosity among respondents from western Slovenia. However, our hypothesizing did not receive adequate statistical support.

4.3 Consequences of consumer animosity in Slovenia

Our results show that the people dimension of consumer animosity is a steadfast negative predictor of product judgment and willingness to buy food products and tourism services across all the countries studied. On the one hand, consumer animosity was found to have a direct negative effect on willingness to buy, which is in line with findings of the original authors (Klein et al., 1998) as well as other studies (e.g., Ettenson & Klein, 2005; Hinck, 2005; Shin, 2001). On the other hand, we discovered that consumer animosity affects willingness to buy indirectly through negative product judgment. Shoham et al. (2006) were the first to confirm this relationship and later research substantiated their findings (e.g., Guido

et al., 2010; Huang et al., 2010a; Mostafa, 2010; Urbonavicius et al., 2010). In our study, we found the *indirect effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy to be stronger than the direct effect*. In all the models we tested, we could observe that people animosity was the most profound predictor of quality judgment (see Table 27), which was, in turn, by far the most important predictor of willingness to buy (see Table 28). Based on the fact that consequences of consumer animosity were tested on food products and tourism services, the strong predictive value of people animosity does not come as a surprise to us since both categories are closely connected to people. Food products may be associated with cultural characteristics of people, whereas tourism services are provided by no other than people themselves.

Another interesting finding is the strength of the political dimension of consumer animosity. As reported earlier, political animosity was the strongest among all dimensions both in the case of Croatia and Italy; however, it does not act as a predictor of willingness to buy. A rather unexpected revelation was certainly the fact that we found a significant *positive* effect of political animosity on willingness to buy Croatian and Italian tourism services as well as Croatian food products. We find it very difficult to interpret the atypical behavior of this variable. On the other hand, in the case of quality judgment, we did not find such an unexpected relationship. As anticipated, we discovered an *inverse* relationship between political animosity and quality judgment of Hungarian food products.

Lastly, the personal dimension of consumer animosity was found to have an *indirect effect* via quality judgment on willingness to buy Croatian and Italian food products as well as Italian tourism services. The most interesting finding in our quantitative research was the truly genuine example of consumer animosity observed in willingness to buy Croatian tourism services regardless of their quality. Only in the case of Croatia was personal animosity found to have a *direct negative impact* on willingness to buy tourism services from that country. This finding is, at the same time, one of the major conclusions of our qualitative research.

Research has revealed that consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity are positively correlated (e.g., Huang et al., 2010b; Jiménez & San Martin, 2010; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Rose et al., 2009). Our empirical evidence also suggests a *positive relationship*, which was significant in six out of nine settings. However, the correlation coefficients between the two variables are quite low, suggesting a rather weak relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity. Empirical evidence has further revealed that consumer ethnocentrism negatively impacts foreign quality judgment (e.g., Klein, 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Nguyen et al., 2008). Our findings are not consistent with previous research since consumer ethnocentrism was not a predictor of quality judgment in our set of foreign countries and product/services categories. Additionally, an unusual discovery was that consumer ethnocentrism had a *positive* impact on quality judgment of Croatian tourism services. Nevertheless, the regression coefficient ($b = 0.136$) and the importance of this predictor ($\beta = 0.142$) in the model were rather low. We found that consumer ethnocentrism has a direct negative impact on willingness to buy food products originating from Hungary, Croatia and Italy, but not on willingness to buy foreign tourism services from these countries.

Respondents' avoidance of foreign food products is not a result of a low perceived quality. Rather than that, they simply choose not to buy products from the selected foreign countries. Fairly strong ethnocentric tendencies in the food products category were also identified in the qualitative part of our research.

4.4 Graphical summary of the main findings

In this chapter, we have so far discussed the dimensions, antecedents and consequences of consumer animosity in three different settings for two product/services categories. We outlined the main findings, explained the relationships between constructs and put forth the most interesting observations. For the purpose of clarity, we graphically summarize the results of our research for six different versions of target countries and product/services categories. The summary of our findings is presented in Figures 15, 16, 17, 18, 19 and 20, in which we outline only the confirmed hypotheses for each combination of country and product/service.

Figure 15: Model of consumer animosity toward Hungary for food products

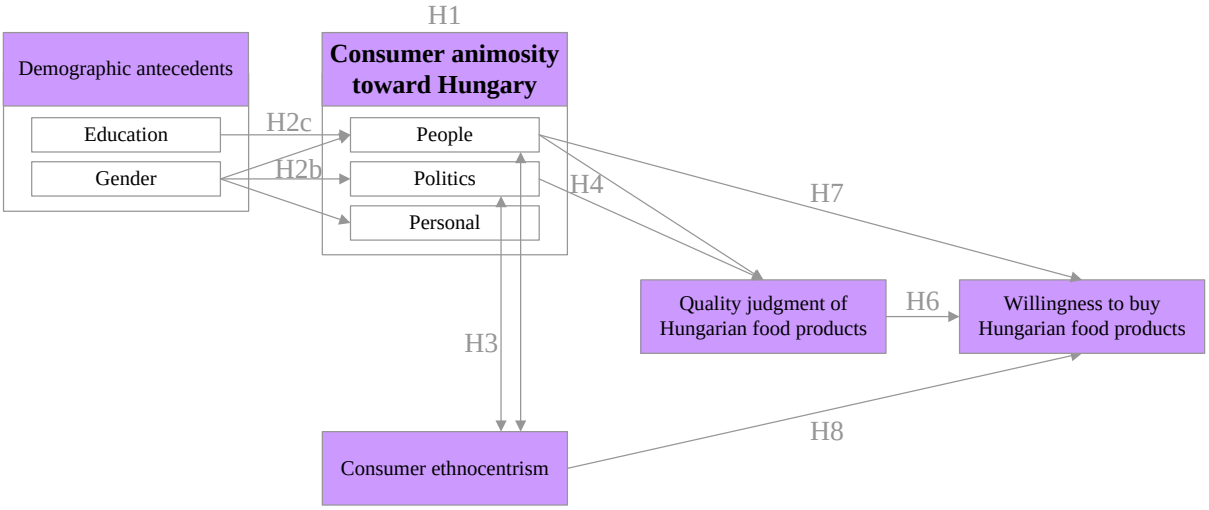


Figure 16: Model of consumer animosity toward Hungary for tourism services

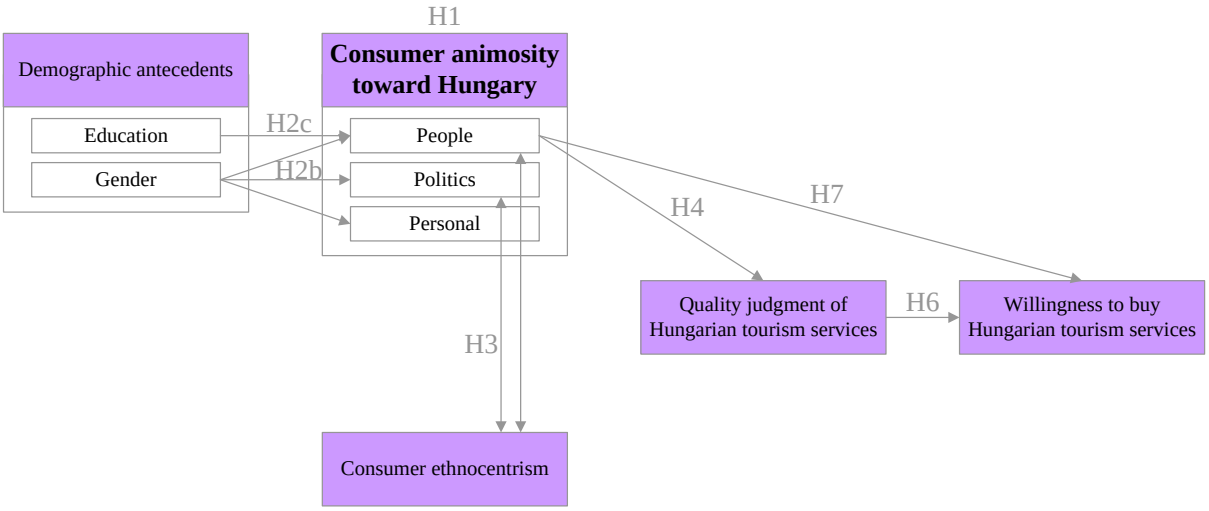


Figure 17: Model of consumer animosity toward Croatia for food products

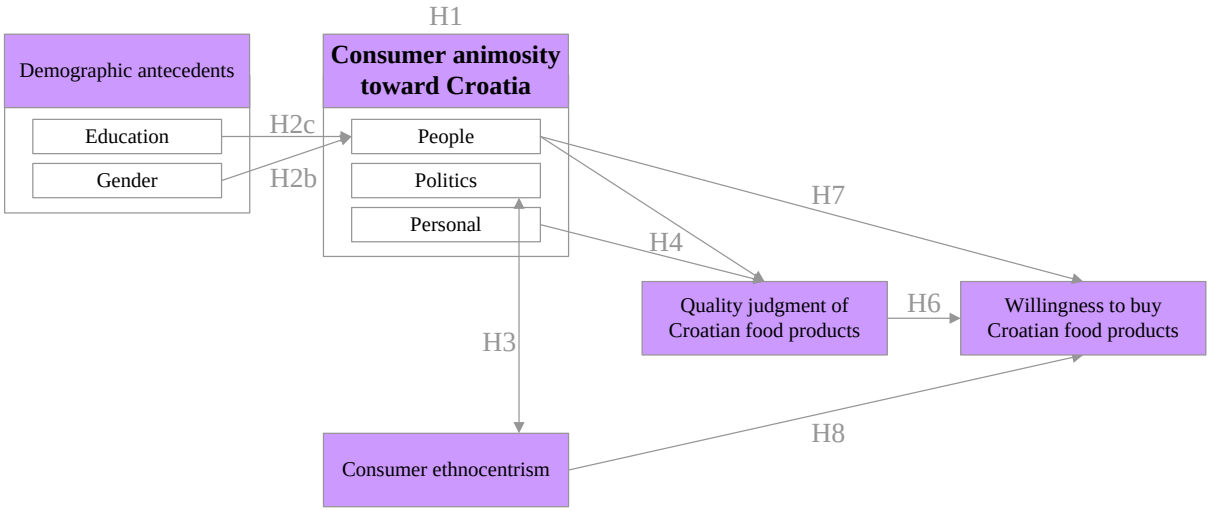


Figure 18: Model of consumer animosity toward Croatia for tourism services

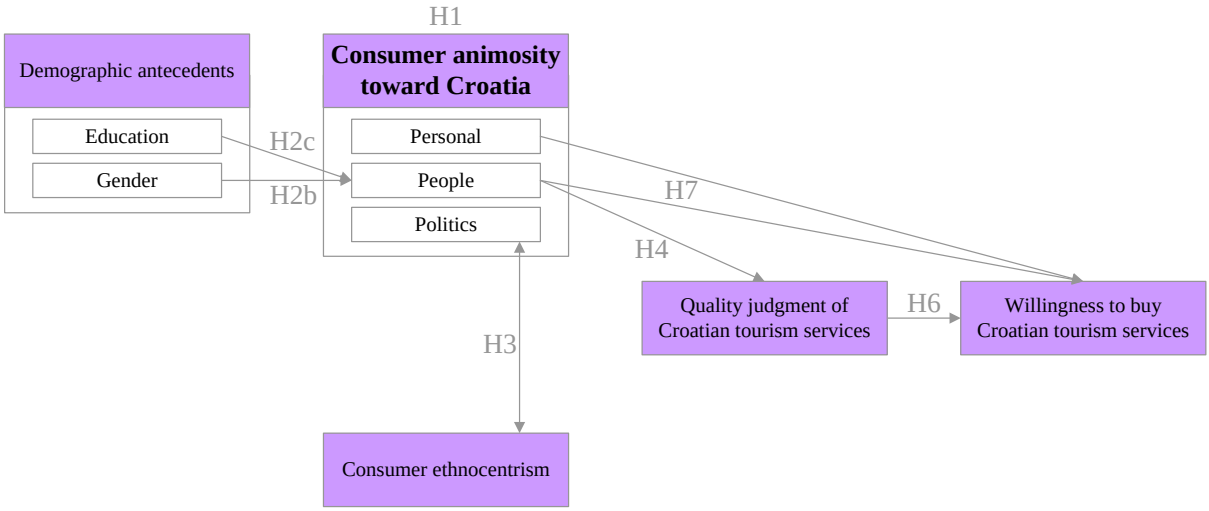


Figure 19: Model of consumer animosity toward Italy for food products

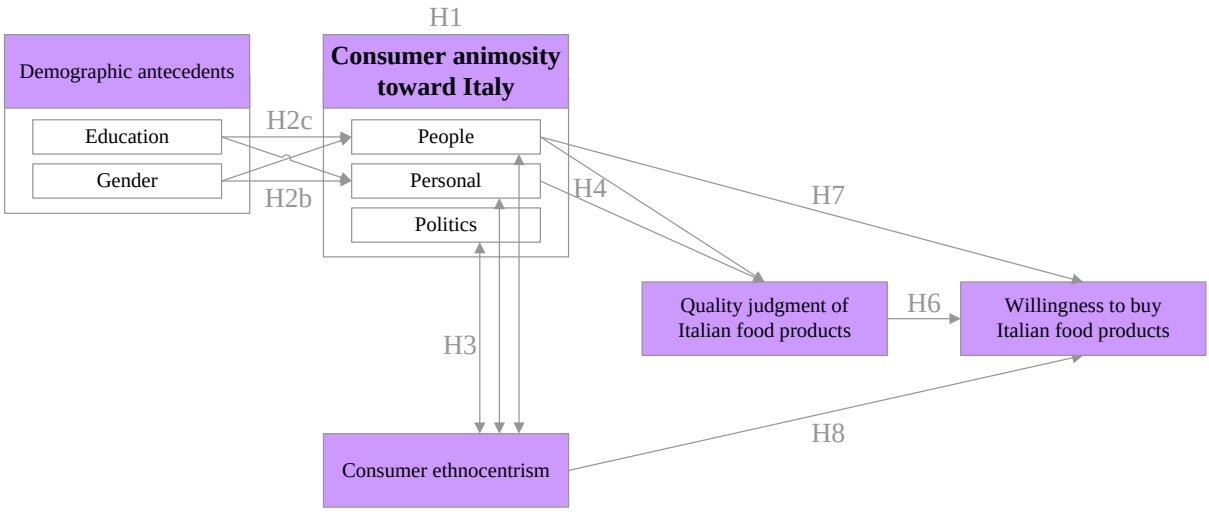
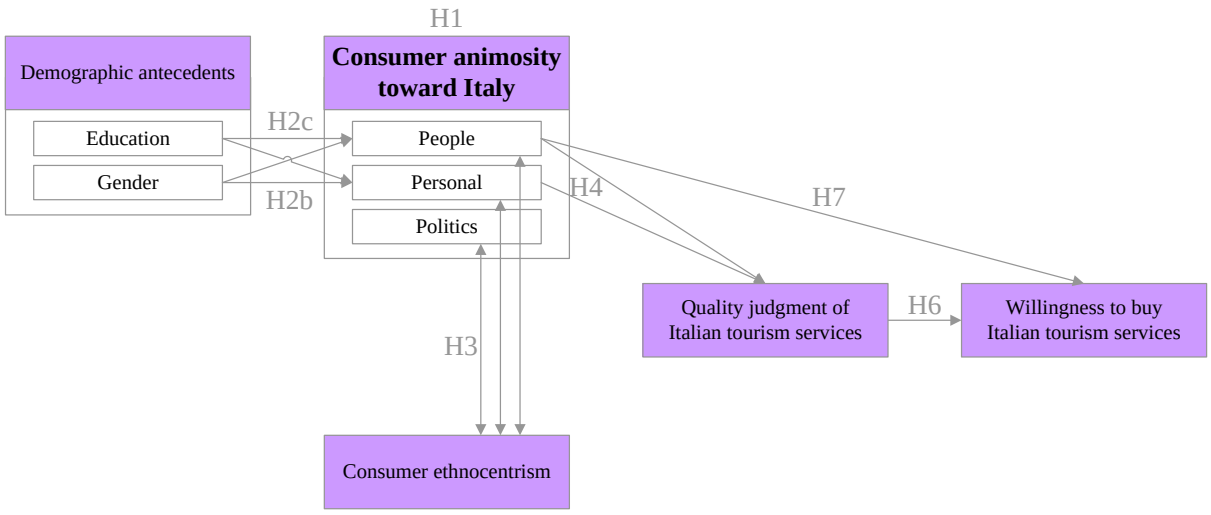


Figure 20: Model of consumer animosity toward Italy for tourism services



4.5 Managerial implications

The liberalization of trade in the past two decades has facilitated global business operations as national boundaries continue to disappear. Competition on domestic markets has forced many companies to seek out profitable opportunities and expand their business by reaching out to foreign markets. Nevertheless, doing business in a foreign market may prove to be a challenging task. Companies planning to sell their products and services in foreign markets must be aware of the risks and potential dangers of their operations. Cultural differences between nations, such as language, religion, customs and habits, as well as politics can be potential sources of conflict. Sometimes such conflicts can culminate into feelings of anger, contempt or even hatred. International marketing managers should be aware that there are segments of people who harbor animosity feelings toward a specific entity. Such negative feelings may have a profound effect on consumers' actual purchase decisions. Managers must be prepared to address such issues and devise efficient marketing strategies, which will help to mitigate the negative consequences of consumer animosity.

Our qualitative and quantitative research showed that consumers who harbor feelings of people animosity or ethnocentric tendencies are unwilling to buy food products and tourism services from Hungary, Croatia and Italy. Although consumer animosity is on average quite low, we discovered that males and less educated consumers exhibit higher levels of animosity. Foreign companies which seek to do business in Slovenia or want to attract Slovenian tourists should engage in additional research in order to identify the socio-psychological characteristics of consumers who hold negative sentiments and to devise specific strategies to target such consumers more efficiently.

Given that the influence of consumer animosity on willingness to buy food products from the three countries is mediated by negative quality judgment, marketing managers could perhaps downplay these negative consequences by emphasizing the high quality of their products and superior design and attractiveness compared to similar products originating from other

countries. The segment of consumers with high levels of animosity should be addressed in a different manner. Prevalent marketing tools such as price promotions and advertising efforts may be disregarded. When dealing with animus consumers, it is extremely important for foreign companies to deemphasize the origin of food products. These companies should try to create an impression that their food products are of local origin by using brand names and advertisements that appear to be Slovenian. Product endorsement by local celebrities and opinion leaders could also help foreign companies to bypass negative purchase intentions caused by consumer animosity. A convenient solution for disguising the actual country of origin could be the use of a "made in EU" label, rather than specific country labels. This strategy should be employed when a "made in Europe" label is perceived more positively by consumers than a national label (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001, pp. 118–119).

Consumer animosity, however, is not the only rationale that deters consumers from purchasing food products from the target country. For instance, a low perceived quality of Hungarian food products is not only a result of consumer animosity. It was found that Hungary suffers from a strong negative product-country image among Slovenians. In addition, Hungary appears to be unknown to many respondents. A possible solution to this problem would be to promote Hungary more strongly and familiarize Slovenians with Hungarian food, language and culture. Such efforts could perhaps alter Slovenians' perceptions of this country and yield favorable results for Hungarian companies in the medium to long term. Similarly, the Hungarian National Tourist Office should capitalize on the country's natural beauty and rich historical heritage and promote Hungary more strongly as an attractive tourist destination which is easily accessible due to its vicinity to Slovenia.

Implications for Croatian companies are somewhat different. Measures for mitigating the effect of consumer animosity on purchasing decisions regarding food were already addressed earlier. However, we need to emphasize that Croatian food products may trigger different affective processes among Slovenians. Apart from animosity, feelings of nostalgia may actually encourage Slovenians to purchase Croatian food products. Croatian companies that wish to be successful in the Slovenian market should identify segments of nostalgic Slovenians who are accustomed to purchasing Croatian food products and who still yearn for old times when Slovenia and Croatia used to be part of the same country. Producers and sellers of Croatian brands that are well-known among Slovenian consumers should continue building a strong image on the Slovenian market, whereas sellers of unrecognized brands would be better off concealing country-of-origin information.

Although Croatia is a very popular tourist destination, we found that some participants in our research hold personal animosity toward Croatia which stems from negative personal experiences whilst traveling to Croatia and/or being in contact with its inhabitants. These Slovenians are unwilling to spend their holidays in Croatia regardless of the quality of tourism services. This is a somewhat worrisome finding because such intense feelings of animosity may be difficult to overcome. Croatian tourism services providers should, therefore, put in considerable effort in promoting their hospitality and friendliness. On the other hand,

Slovenian tourism providers could take advantage of this position by encouraging Slovenians to spend their holidays at home.

Although we found that certain consumers hold negative personal and people-oriented sentiments toward Italy, we believe that affinity feelings toward Italy are more widespread among Slovenians and have a greater impact on their purchase behavior. We consider that Italian food companies would not significantly benefit from covering up the origin of their products. Italy is home to many famous food products such as pasta, pizza, mozzarella, parmesan and tiramisu. Numerous Italian companies are considered to produce food products of a high quality, thus enjoying a high reputation. Italian food companies should, therefore, emphasize and take advantage of such a favorable product-country image by targeting Slovenians who harbor feelings of affinity toward Italy.

Italy is known worldwide as a popular tourism destination and is often referred to as the cradle of history. However, some Slovenians harbor people and personal animosity toward Italy, which, in turn, affects their quality judgment of Italian tourism services as well as willingness to buy. In order to attract more Slovenian tourists, Italian tourism providers should emphasize the high quality of their services and geographical proximity to Slovenia and should consistently communicate amiability and hospitality.

Our final recommendation is intended for foreign companies that wish to internationalize by establishing a manufacturing unit abroad (Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975, p. 307). These companies should carefully consider the optimal entry mode into Slovenia. For instance, a viable option could be a joint venture agreement with a Slovenian partner. Such a solution would enable the foreign company to appear more local and help to circumvent the potential negative outcomes of consumer animosity as well as consumer ethnocentrism. Additionally, the foreign company should utilize public relations to enhance its reputation and communicate the benefits of its presence on the local market such as creation of new jobs and diverse choice set for consumers.

4.6 Contributions of research

The context-specific nature of consumer animosity requires the development of tailored solutions which will enable researchers to measure this construct. It is necessary to conduct qualitative research for the purpose of identifying the reasons for feelings of animosity (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007, p. 114). Following the authors' recommendations, we engaged in exploratory research of consumer animosity in Slovenia. In order to better understand the role of feelings, emotions and attitudes toward specific foreign countries, we additionally included the construct of consumer affinity in our qualitative research. Eighty-two in-depth interviews conducted across various Slovenian regions helped us to identify the most frequent animosity and affinity targets and the underlying reasons for such feelings. Furthermore, insights from qualitative research helped us to identify the most relevant products and services categories applied in the quantitative part of the study. Our research is,

therefore, the first to deal with the consumer animosity and affinity constructs in Slovenia. We illustrated that both consumer affinity and consumer animosity play an important role in foreign purchase behavior.

The second important contribution of this research is the quantitative study, in which we identified demographic antecedents and statistically confirmed three dimensions of consumer animosity, i.e., people, political and personal animosity. Moreover, we adapted the existing operationalization of consumer animosity and applied it to the Slovenian cultural environment. Additionally, we tested the impact of consumer animosity on foreign purchase behavior. Based on quantitative research, we were able to confirm that consumer animosity has a direct as well as indirect effect on foreign purchase behavior. More specifically, we have shown that people animosity has a consistent direct and indirect effect on willingness to buy foreign products and services, whereas the effect of the political and personal dimensions of consumer animosity has been found to vary across different settings. Our findings have been confirmed for food products and tourism services in the context of Hungary, Croatia and Italy.

Although extremely important, insofar that it helps us to determine relationships between constructs, statistical analysis cannot grasp all the feelings and contexts that play such an important role in studying consumer animosity. This is the reason why qualitative approach to studying consumer animosity is all the more important. Consumer animosity encompasses an extremely powerful affective dimension of country-of-origin effect, thus qualitative research proved to be a crucial element of our study, which helped us to better understand the complex nature of this phenomenon.

To sum up, this Master's thesis has offered both theoretical and methodological contributions. From the theoretical perspective, we investigated the consumer animosity construct in Slovenia, which had not been done before. From the methodological perspective, we created a framework for measuring and assessing the impact of consumer animosity on one category of products and one category of services across three different settings. Using mixed-methods research, i.e., by applying both quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques and analytical procedures (Saunders, 2009, p. 152), we obtained a plethora of information which enabled us to gain a deeper understanding of consumer animosity and its implications.

4.7 Limitations and avenues for future research

There are some limitations of our research that need to be addressed. The fact that we used the non-probability snowball sampling technique can result in a homogeneous sample, thus leading to sampling bias. As such, the sample is not truly representative of the whole population and does not permit us to generalize our findings to the population.[22] We, therefore, recommend future research to employ a probability sampling approach in order to achieve a representative sample which will enable valid inferences to be drawn.

[22] To the best of our ability, we attempted to avoid any kind of generalization throughout the Master's thesis.

The identified dimensions of consumer animosity may be somewhat unstable since one of the items loaded onto different factors, i.e., the item measuring 'bad attitude toward Slovenians', was not interpreted unambiguously by the respondents. In the context of Croatia and Italy, it was understood from the political perspective, whereas in the context of Hungary, it was considered as part of the people dimension. Consequently, this item loaded onto different factors. We recommend future research to design items in such a way to ensure identical interpretation regardless of the animosity target. An additional problem is that some items had to be excluded due to low between-item correlations. As a result, people animosity toward Hungary was measured with a single item. In future studies, attempts should be made to identify new dimensions of animosity and to measure the construct with more items. Furthermore, it might help to explain the unusual behavior of the political dimension of animosity, which predicts purchase behavior incorrectly.

A particularly insightful enhancement of our research would be to study more socio-psychological antecedents of consumer animosity. Such a research would provide additional information about consumers who are inclined toward feelings of animosity and would enable marketing managers to plan company strategies more accurately. Our quantitative research showed that there is a weak correlation between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer animosity and our qualitative research suggests that, apart from consumer ethnocentrism, other socio-psychological antecedents are also worth considering in future research. For example, nostalgia could provide a plausible explanation to why feelings of animosity toward Croatia are rather low. In fact, reminiscence about past times and events when Slovenia and Croatia used to be part of a common country still linger in many interviewees' minds. Urbonavicius et al. (2010) included nostalgia in their study of consumer animosity and indeed confirmed an inverse relationship between the nostalgia of Lithuanians and their animosity toward Russia. Since Slovenia has undergone similar political transformations in the recent past, an examination of consumer animosity from the suggested perspective could prove to be a useful complement to our research.

Consumer animosity toward Hungary was found to have been ignited by the current political situation, providing evidence that animosity can be situational-based. This assumption is in line with the argumentation of Jung et al. (2002, p. 525) that animosity is a dynamic concept which is constantly updated by different events. Longitudinal research should be undertaken in order to determine whether the levels of political animosity toward Hungary will alter at future points of time. Similarly, it will be interesting to observe whether levels of political animosity toward Croatia will decline due to Croatia's forthcoming accession to the European Union and stir feelings of solidarity and commonality of destiny between the two neighboring countries.

The qualitative analysis identified strong feelings of consumer affinity among our interviewees, which further predicted their purchase behavior. In fact, our research showed that interviewees' purchase decisions may be influenced by different feelings at the same time. For instance, we discovered that purchase of Italian food, apparel and footwear is more

intensely affected by consumer affinity than by consumer animosity. An especially interesting finding in the qualitative study was the mixture of ambivalent feelings toward Italy, i.e., the 'love-hate' attitude toward this country. We, therefore, suggest that future research investigates the relationship between consumer affinity and consumer animosity and tests the effect of both constructs on foreign purchase behavior. Furthermore, we recommend examining the effects of consumer affinity and consumer animosity on additional products and services categories. Finally, future research should once again examine the potential impact of region of residence on consumer affinity and consumer animosity.

CONCLUSION

The present Master's thesis focused on consumer animosity, a negative attitude toward foreign countries. Our main research problem was to understand and explain the reasons and motives which may lead Slovenian consumers to intentionally avoid (or even boycott) purchasing products and services from selected animosity targets. We addressed consumer animosity from the theoretical and practical perspectives. Since consumer animosity is country-specific and has not yet been investigated in Slovenia, this research provides an important new insight into this phenomenon.

In the first chapter, we presented an exhaustive review of extant international literature and provided a theoretical framework for understanding and studying consumer animosity in Slovenia. More specifically, we analyzed the various contexts in which other authors investigated consumer animosity, critically examined the development of the consumer animosity measurement scale and studied the demographic, socio-psychological and economic antecedents of consumer animosity. Moreover, we scrutinized various direct and indirect consequences of consumer animosity on foreign purchase behavior. Finally, we identified consumer ethnocentrism and consumer affinity as important constructs which can help us to better understand consumer animosity.

After examining the theoretical perspective, we focused on researching consumer animosity in the Slovenian context. Our research was of exploratory nature and consisted of a mixed-methods approach, i.e., in-depth semi-structured interviews and structured questionnaires. Combining interviews and survey data is a useful form of triangulation which enables us to verify the key findings and cast more light upon the researched topic (Bregar et al., 2005, p. 167). We first engaged in qualitative data collection and content analysis. The findings of qualitative research provided us with a solid foundation on which we built the second part of our empirical research, i.e., quantitative data collection and statistical analysis. We gathered quantitative data by using a multi-method approach whereby we applied several data collection techniques (Saunders et al., 2009, p. 152). In this way, we were able to reduce the problem of sampling bias to some extent and increase the heterogeneity of our sample.

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted across several Slovenian regions. The main idea was to explore interviewees' perspectives, thoughts, feelings and attitudes toward foreign countries. In this process, we were able to identify the most frequently mentioned affinity and animosity countries and reasons for such sentiments (Riefler & Diamantopoulos, 2007, p. 114). Additionally, we gathered detailed information on interviewees' purchasing habits with regard to products originating from their identified affinity/animosity countries. The information we obtained was rich and explanatory by nature, which enabled us to explore consumer animosity and affinity in great depth.

The main findings of qualitative research are as follows. Interviewees were much more willing to discuss their feelings of affinity than animosity toward foreign countries. The top affinity countries were Germany, Italy, Austria and Croatia. The reasons for feelings of affection were divided into two large groups, i.e., macro (lifestyle, scenery, general impression, culture, politics, economics) and micro (stay abroad, travel, contact) drivers (Oberecker et al., 2008, pp. 30–31). We found that consumer affinity influences purchase behavior and leads interviewees to deliberately select products (e.g., food, apparel, footwear, cosmetics, detergents and cleaning products, durables) from their favorite countries.

Although initially reluctant, the interviewees agreed to share with us their feelings of dislike toward foreign countries. Hungary, Croatia, Italy and the USA were the most frequently mentioned animosity targets. Reasons for animosity are many and we classified them into eight categories: people, physical environment, general impression, history, war/military, politics, economics and personal experience. Contrary to previous research (e.g., Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Shin, 2001), we found that war- and economic-related events are not very important sources of consumer animosity in Slovenia. Rather than that, we found the most relevant sources of animosity to be related to people, politics and (negative) personal experience. Furthermore, we have reasonable grounds to believe that the recent domestic political situation in Hungary triggered situational-based animosity. This finding is consistent with previous literature which has identified stable and situational animosity, depending on the locus of manifestation (Jung et al., 2002). Animosity toward Croatia, Italy and the USA was, on the other hand, found to be of a more stable nature.

Feelings of animosity have different effects on purchase behavior. Negative sentiments toward the USA were powerful, yet they failed to have a strong influence on purchase behavior, thus we excluded the USA from subsequent analyses. Animosity toward Hungary was not strongly expressed; however, negative sentiments affected interviewees' purchase behavior. Feelings of animosity, combined with Hungary's negative product-country image, resulted in interviewees' reluctance to purchase Hungarian-made products. Feelings of animosity toward Croatia were immense and strongly based on negative personal experience with its people. These feelings translated mainly into decisive avoidance of Croatian tourism services regardless of quality judgments. In fact, in several cases we observed complete boycott behavior with regard to spending holidays in Croatia. Finally, animosity toward Italy did not have a profound effect on interviewees' purchase behavior. It seems that willingness

to buy certain Italian products is much more affected by feelings of sympathy and attachment. Apart from that, Italy enjoys a positive product-country image, especially in the category of food products, apparel and footwear. Indeed, Italy has a strong image and is frequently associated with product categories involving attractive design (Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001, p. 54).

Lastly, we observed fairly strong ethnocentric tendencies among the interviewees, especially in the category of food products and durable goods. These interviewees are convinced that domestic products are of superior quality, which results in their preference for buying domestic alternative. In summary, our qualitative research confirmed that country-of-origin information triggers cognitive (quality judgment), affective (consumer affinity and consumer animosity) and normative responses (consumer ethnocentrism) in the minds of interviewees. Their purchase decisions are not always straightforward and depend on many factors, ranging from price, performance and quality attributes, to favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward the domestic and foreign countries.

In the second phase of our research, we engaged in quantitative research. Information obtained from qualitative research enabled us to design a scale for measuring consumer animosity. Moreover, based on findings of qualitative research, we selected target countries and product/services categories on which to measure consequences of consumer animosity. Countries that entered the quantitative analysis were Hungary, Croatia and Italy. We selected the food product category and tourism services category. Items that were included in the questionnaire were carefully selected based on the main findings of qualitative research. We adopted the emic approach, i.e., we specifically designed and adapted the first scale to measure consumer animosity in Slovenia. After collecting quantitative data, we performed exploratory factor analysis in order to extract relevant dimensions of consumer animosity. As expected, we identified three dimensions of consumer animosity in Slovenia: people, politics and personal experience.

We tested a set of demographic variables and identified gender and education as two statistically significant antecedents of consumer animosity. Males as well as less educated respondents were found to exhibit higher levels of animosity; however, on average, Slovenians do not harbor intense animosity feelings toward any of the neighboring countries included in our study. Consumer animosity was found to have indirect effects on foreign purchase behavior. In such an instance, negative quality judgment mediates the relationship between consumer animosity and unwillingness to buy. Likewise, consumer animosity was found to have a direct impact on unwillingness to buy, suggesting that consumer animosity negatively influences foreign purchase behavior above and beyond quality judgment. In our study, we discovered the indirect effect of consumer animosity on willingness to buy to be stronger than the direct effect. People animosity was found to be a consistent direct and indirect predictor of willingness to buy foreign food products and tourism services across all three animosity targets. Apart from that, personal animosity toward Croatia directly predicted respondents' unwillingness to purchase Croatian tourism services. The results of our research

also show that consumer ethnocentrism has a direct negative impact on willingness to buy foreign food products, rather than on foreign tourism services.

In the final chapter of the thesis, we provided a thorough interpretation of the results of our quantitative study by focusing on dimensions, antecedents and consequences of consumer animosity in Slovenia. Next, we determined and provided concrete implications for decision makers. Lastly, we described the contributions of our research, addressed its limitations and suggested avenues for future research.

In the Master's thesis, we showed that consumers often neglect rational processing of product cues. Instead, they rather rely on feelings, emotions and attitudes to guide them in their everyday purchase decisions. We conclude our work with a final note to business managers: whether positive or negative, consumers' feelings should by no means be overlooked. At the end of the day, they ultimately determine which products will be sold and which ones will remain on the shelves.

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APPENDICES

TABLE OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Guidelines for in-depth interviews

Section 1: Interviewees' affinity and animosity toward foreign countries

Objective: To identify the countries toward which interviewees harbor affinity feelings and reasons for such feelings.

1. Which foreign countries do you like the most? Why do you like them?

Objective: To identify the countries toward which interviewees harbor animosity feelings.

2. Which foreign countries are you not especially fond of?

Objective: To identify the reasons for animosity and the underlying reasons for such feelings.

3. Among the countries you mentioned, is there any one you particularly dislike?

Continue with the following question for each country the interviewee mentioned:

4. What specifically are the reasons for your negative sentiments toward this country? Please list the reasons from the most important to the least important.

If the interviewee fails to specify a concrete reason for his/her negative attitude toward the country, help him/her with additional questions, e.g.:

> Do you perhaps disagree with the politics in this country? Its religion? The customs and habits of its people? Do you have a negative opinion of the people from this country? Have you had negative experiences with people from this country?

We are now interested in where these reasons stem from.

5. Who or what has influenced the opinion you have formed about this country?

Help the interviewee by asking the following questions:

> Is your opinion based on your personal experiences (contact) with this country or its people? Or is your opinion based on experiences of your family members, friends, acquaintances or neighbors? Has the media (newspapers, television, Internet) influenced your attitude toward this country? Is your dislike of this country based on a past event or is it of a more temporary nature?

Section 2: Interviewees' purchasing habits, product categories and products' country of origin

Objective: To obtain a deeper understanding of interviewees' purchasing habits and purchasing decisions.

Next, we explain to the interviewee that we will ask him/her several questions about his/her purchasing habits.

6. When shopping, do you pay attention to the products' country of origin? Have you ever been in a situation when you decided **not to buy** a product only because it originates from a country you dislike? What about the opposite? Have you ever bought a product just because it originates from a country you like? Do you find it important to buy products from domestic companies? Why?

Pay attention to what the interviewee mentioned first – the animosity or the affinity country. We are interested in this information because we want to determine which of these feelings is more important when the interviewee considers purchasing foreign products.

7. Is a product's country of origin important to you? For which products is country-of-origin information most important to you?

If necessary, help the interviewee with the following questions:

> Is there any particular product from …… *(one of the countries the interviewee dislikes)* you would never consider buying? Think about the products you consume on an everyday basis.
>
> *When the interviewee recalls products such as food, beverages, apparel, footwear, cosmetics, detergents and cleaning products, etc. ask him/her some more questions:*
>
> Do you buy Slovenian food and beverages? What about foreign food and beverages? Where do the food and beverages you buy originate from?
> What about textiles and shoes?
> What about cosmetics and detergents?
> What influences your purchasing decision? When deciding to buy everyday products, what is your decision based on (brand, price, quality, country of origin, etc.)? Which of these information cues is most important to you?
> How important is quality to you? How do you recognize and evaluate quality? How do you infer the quality of a product? For example, what does a high/low price signal to you? What does a familiar/unfamiliar brand signal to you? Do you associate quality with a product's country of origin? Why?

What about durable products? *The interviewee should recall several durable products on his/her own, e.g., furniture, kitchen appliances, other appliances (e.g., hairdryer, iron, vacuum cleaner, drill machine, lawnmower), audio and video equipment, computer, bicycle, automobile, etc. Ask the interviewee some more questions about the durable products he/she mentioned.*

What influences your purchasing decision? When deciding to buy durable products, what is your decision based on (brand, price, quality, country of origin, etc.)? Which of these information cues is most important to you?
How important is quality to you? How do you recognize and evaluate quality? How do you infer the quality of a product? For example, what does a high/low price signal to you? What does a familiar/unfamiliar brand signal to you? Do you associate quality with a product's country of origin? Why?

Ask the interviewee to imagine the following situation:

If you were to buy a new refrigerator, which manufacturer/brand would you choose? Why?

Try to determine what influenced the interviewee to select a particular manufacturer/brand. Check whether he/she knows which country the selected refrigerator originates from. Help the interviewee to consider a few possible scenarios, for example:

(1) The interviewee decides between four refrigerators, all of which have the same characteristics except that they originate from different countries (Slovenia, one of the interviewee's affinity countries, one of the interviewee's animosity countries, neutral country). Ask the interviewee which one he/she would purchase and why.

(2) The interviewee decides between three refrigerators. One is from a domestic manufacturer and the other two are of foreign origin. All refrigerators have the same characteristics except for the Slovenian one, which is 10% more expensive. Ask the interviewee which one he/she would purchase and why.

(3) The interviewee decides between three foreign-made refrigerators and one of them originates from his/her animosity country. All refrigerators have the same characteristics except for the one originating from the animosity country, which is 10% cheaper. Ask the interviewee which one he/she would purchase and why.

The proposed scenarios are only tentative outlines. Playing out the scenarios depends to a large extent on the interviewee, i.e., on the amount of time he/she has, on his/her willingness to cooperate, etc.

Finally, ask the interviewee whether he/she knows where the following brands originate from:

Bosch	→	*Germany*	*Beko*	→	*Turkey*
Siemens	→	*Germany*	*Haier*	→	*China*
Liebherr	→	*Germany*	*LG*	→	*South Korea*
Miele	→	*Germany*	*Samsung*	→	*South Korea*
Whirlpool	→	*USA*	*Hyundai*	→	*South Korea*
Candy	→	*Italy*	*Zanussi*	→	*Italy (acquired by Electrolux from Sweden)*
Electrolux	→	*Sweden*	*Hoover*	→	*USA (acquired by Candy from Italy)*

Section 3: Interviewee's demographic characteristics

1. Gender:

□ Female
□ Male

2. Year of birth: 19____

3. Highest completed level of education:

□ Elementary school or less
□ 3- or 4-year vocational school
□ Secondary school
□ Junior college
□ University education
□ Master's degree / Doctorate

4. Work status:

□ Work in household
□ Work on farm
□ Self-employed
□ Employed
□ Unemployed
□ Retired
□ Student

5. Nationality:

□ Slovenian
□ Other: _____

6. Place of residence: _____

7. How would you estimate your household's monthly income as compared to the Slovenian average?

□ Above average
□ Below average
□ Average

For our records only! Fill in the information after the interview has been completed.

1. *Where was the interview conducted: _____*
2. *When was the interview conducted (date and time): _____*
3. *Duration of interview: _____ minutes*
4. *Who was interviewed: _____*

Appendix B: Affinity countries by region

Table 1: Affinity countries by region

Central Slovenia	No. of votes	Northeastern Slovenia	No. of votes	Tri-border area	No. of votes	Southeastern Slovenia	No. of votes	Western Slovenia	No. of votes
Germany	7	Spain	7	Austria	11	Germany	12	Italy	11
Italy	5	USA	5	Croatia	7	Italy	5	Austria	5
Austria	4	Croatia	4	Italy	5	Netherlands	5	Finland	4
Croatia	4	Italy	4	Germany	4	UK	5	Germany	4
UK	4	Australia	3	Hungary	3	France	4	Norway	4
Australia	3	Austria	3	France	2	Austria	3	Switzerland	4
Canada	3	Canada	3	Greece	2	Spain	3	Denmark	3
France	3	France	3	Portugal	2	Switzerland	3	Sweden	3
New Zealand	3	Germany	3	Bosnia and Herzegovina	1	Czech Republic	2	France	2
Norway	3	Greece	3	Cyprus	1	Serbia	2	Ireland	2
Sweden	3	Belgium	1	Czech Republic	1	Australia	1	Netherlands	2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3	Bosnia and Herzegovina	1	Denmark	1	Belgium	1	Spain	2
Brazil	2	Ireland	1	Serbia	1	China	1	Australia	1
Denmark	2	Macedonia	1	Spain	1	Denmark	1	Bosnia and Herzegovina	1
Serbia	2	Montenegro	1	Switzerland	1	Finland	1	Brazil	1
Belgium	1	Netherlands	1	Tunisia	1	Iceland	1	Canada	1
Cuba	1	New Zealand	1	UK	1	India	1	China	1
Finland	1	Serbia	1	USA	1	Japan	1	Czech Republic	1
Greece	1	Sweden	1			New Zealand	1	Egypt	1
Ireland	1	Switzerland	1			Norway	1	Greece	1
Japan	1	UK	1			Portugal	1	Indonesia (Bali)	1
Montenegro	1					Sweden	1	Nepal	1
Nepal	1					Thailand	1	Portugal	1
Netherlands	1					Turkey	1	Tunisia	1
Portugal	1					USA	1	UK	1
Spain	1							USA	1
Switzerland	1								
Turkey	1								
USA	1								
Total	65	Total	49	Total	46	Total	59	Total	60

Appendix C: Animosity countries by region

Table 2: Animosity countries by region

Central Slovenia	No. of votes	Northeastern Slovenia	No. of votes	Tri-border area	No. of votes	Southeastern Slovenia	No. of votes	Western Slovenia	No. of votes
USA	7	Hungary	4	Hungary	3	Croatia	7	Italy	6
India	4	China	3	Turkey	3	Romania	6	Croatia	4
Hungary	3	India	3	Egypt	2	Greece	4	Afghanistan	3
Russia	3	Austria	2	Germany	2	Hungary	4	Romania	3
Bulgaria	2	Azerbaijan	2	Israel	2	Italy	3	USA	3
China	2	Croatia	2	France	1	Austria	2	Bosnia and Herzegovina	2
Iran	2	Iran	2	India	1	Bulgaria	2	Germany	2
Israel	2	Iraq	2	Italy	1	China	2	Hungary	2
Italy	2	Italy	2	Malta	1	Czech Republic	2	Turkey	2
Poland	2	Pakistan	2	Morocco	1	Israel	2	Brazil	1
Romania	2	Romania	2	Russia	1	Poland	2	Bulgaria	1
Afghanistan	1	Russia	2	Serbia	1	Albania	1	China	1
Belarus	1	Serbia	2	Tunisia	1	Mexico	1	Czech Republic	1
Croatia	1	Turkey	2	USA	1	Norway	1	Denmark	1
Czech Republic	1	Ukraine	2	Vietnam	1	Syria	1	Egypt	1
Egypt	1	USA	2			Turkey	1	Finland	1
France	1	Afghanistan	1			UK	1	Morocco	1
Iraq	1	Albania	1			USA	1	Norway	1
Macedonia	1	Bosnia and Herzegovina	1					Somalia	1
North Korea	1	Bulgaria	1					Sweden	1
Pakistan	1	Egypt	1					Syria	1
Serbia	1	Germany	1						
Sudan	1	Lithuania	1						
Thailand	1	Taiwan	1						
Turkey	1	Tunisia	1						
UAE	1								
UK	1								
Total	47	Total	45	Total	22	Total	43	Total	39

Appendix D: Demographic characteristics of consumer ethnocentric interviewees

Table 3: Demographic characteristics of consumer ethnocentric interviewees

Demographic characteristics		Consumer ethnocentric interviewees		Total interviewees	
		No.	%	No.	%
Gender	Female	19	61.3	54	65.9
	Male	12	38.7	28	34.1
Education	Elementary education or less	1	3.2	4	4.9
	Secondary education	12	38.7	26	31.7
	University education or more	18	58.1	52	63.4
Income	Below average	1	3.2	3	3.7
	Average	23	74.2	64	78.0
	Above average	7	22.6	15	18.3
Region	Central Slovenia	11	35.5	20	24.4
	Northeastern Slovenia	7	22.6	15	18.3
	Tri-border area	5	16.1	13	15.9
	Southeastern Slovenia	2	6.5	16	19.5
	Western Slovenia	6	19.4	18	21.9

Appendix E: Survey on attitudes toward countries and products

I. The statements below refer to Slovenia, its economy and your feelings toward our country.

Although the statements are similar, they are not the same. Please consider each statement separately and indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with it on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Disagree somewhat 3	Undecided 4	Agree somewhat 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
1. We, Slovenians, should not let other countries get rich off us.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. Slovenians who buy mainly foreign-made products hurt the Slovenian economy and cause unemployment.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. It may cost me more in the long run but I prefer to buy products made in Slovenia.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within Slovenia.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The statements below refer to our neighboring countries and your feelings toward them.

When answering, please fill in the empty fields with numbers ranging from 0 to 7, with regard to the following scale:

1 – Strongly disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Disagree somewhat
4 – Undecided
5 – Agree somewhat
6 – Agree
7 – Strongly agree
0 – I do not know

	Croatia	Italy	Hungary
1. I do not like this country.			
2. I do not like people from this country.			
3. I do not like the mentality of the people from this country.			
4. The people from this country have a bad attitude toward Slovenians.			
5. I find it difficult to communicate with people from this country.			
6. I disapprove of the domestic politics of this country.			
7. This country twists historical facts.			
8. This country's foreign policy is opportunistic.			
9. My experiences with people from this country are negative.			
10. I have had bad experiences when I traveled to this country.			

II. The following three sets of questions refer to food products and tourism services from several foreign countries.

First, we kindly invite you to <u>evaluate</u> the quality of food products (e.g., dairy and meat products, fruit, vegetables, etc.) originating from different countries.

When answering, please <u>fill in</u> the empty fields with numbers ranging from 0 to 7, with regard to the following scale:

1 – Strongly disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Disagree somewhat
4 – Undecided
5 – Agree somewhat
6 – Agree
7 – Strongly agree
0 – I do not know

1a. **Food products** (e.g., dairy and meat products, fruit, vegetables, etc.) originating from country …

	Croatia	Italy	Hungary
... usually offer good value for money.			
... are generally of high quality.			
... are generally better than the same products originating from other countries.			
... seem to be satisfactory.			
... are generally cleverly designed and attractive.			

Next, we are interested in your <u>opinion</u> about tourism services (e.g., summer holidays, winter holidays, weekend packages, etc.) in these countries.

When answering, please <u>fill in</u> the empty fields with numbers ranging from 0 to 7, with regard to the following scale:

1 – Strongly disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Disagree somewhat
4 – Undecided
5 – Agree somewhat
6 – Agree
7 – Strongly agree
0 – I do not know

1b. **Tourism services** (e.g., summer holidays, winter holidays, weekend packages, etc.) in country …

	Croatia	Italy	Hungary
... usually offer good value for money.			
... are generally of high quality.			
... are generally better than tourism services in other countries.			
... seem to be satisfactory.			
... are generally attractive.			

Up to this point, you shared your opinion about food products and tourism services from different countries. We are now interested in your attitude toward purchasing these products and services.

When answering, please fill in the empty fields with numbers ranging from 0 to 7, with regard to the following scale:

1 – Strongly disagree
2 – Disagree
3 – Disagree somewhat
4 – Undecided
5 – Agree somewhat
6 – Agree
7 – Strongly agree
0 – I do not know

2a. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your willingness to buy **food products** (e.g., dairy and meat products, fruit, vegetables, etc.) originating from the specified countries?

	Croatia	Italy	Hungary
I am willing to buy food products from this country.			
It is very likely that I will buy food products from this country next year.			
Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to buy food products from this country.			
Generally, I avoid buying food products from this country.			

2b. To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your willingness to consume **tourism services** (e.g., summer holidays, winter holidays, weekend packages, etc.) in the specified countries?

	Croatia	Italy	Hungary
I am willing to spend holidays in this country.			
It is very likely that I will spend holidays in this country next year.			
Whenever I have the possibility to choose, I prefer to spend holidays in this country.			
Generally, I avoid spending holidays in this country.			

III. Finally, we kindly ask you to provide some information about yourself.

1. Gender:

◌ Female
◌ Male

2. Year of birth: 19____

3. Please specify the highest level of education you have achieved.

◌ Elementary school or less
◌ 3- or 4-year vocational school
◌ Secondary school
◌ Junior college
◌ University education or more

4. What is your current work status?

◌ Work in household or on farm
◌ Self-employed
◌ Employed – management position
◌ Employed – non-management position
◌ Unemployed
◌ Retired
◌ Student

5. Region of your residence:

◌ Central Slovenia
◌ Coastal-Karst region
◌ Drava region
◌ Gorenjska region
◌ Gorica region
◌ Koroška region
◌ Lower Sava region
◌ Mura region
◌ Notranjska-Karst region
◌ Sava Valley region
◌ Savinja region
◌ Southeastern Slovenia

6. How would you estimate your household's monthly income as compared to the Slovenian average?

◌ Above average
◌ Below average
◌ Average

7. If you indicated that your monthly income is <u>average</u>, is it…

◌ slightly above average?
◌ exactly average?
◌ slightly below average?

Appendix F: Scree plots of factor analyses

Figure 1: Scree plot of factor analysis of consumer animosity toward Croatia

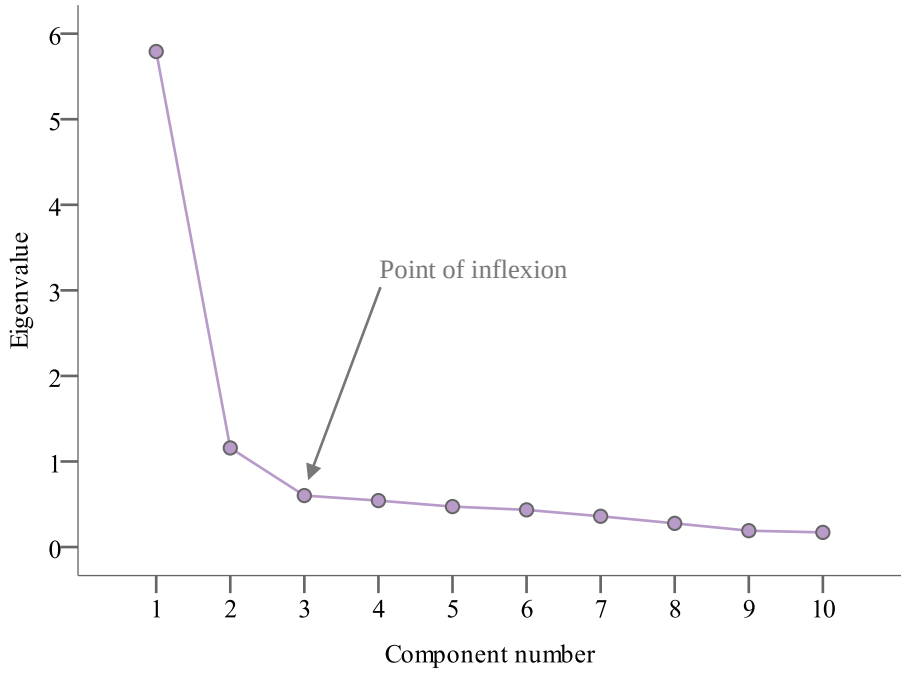
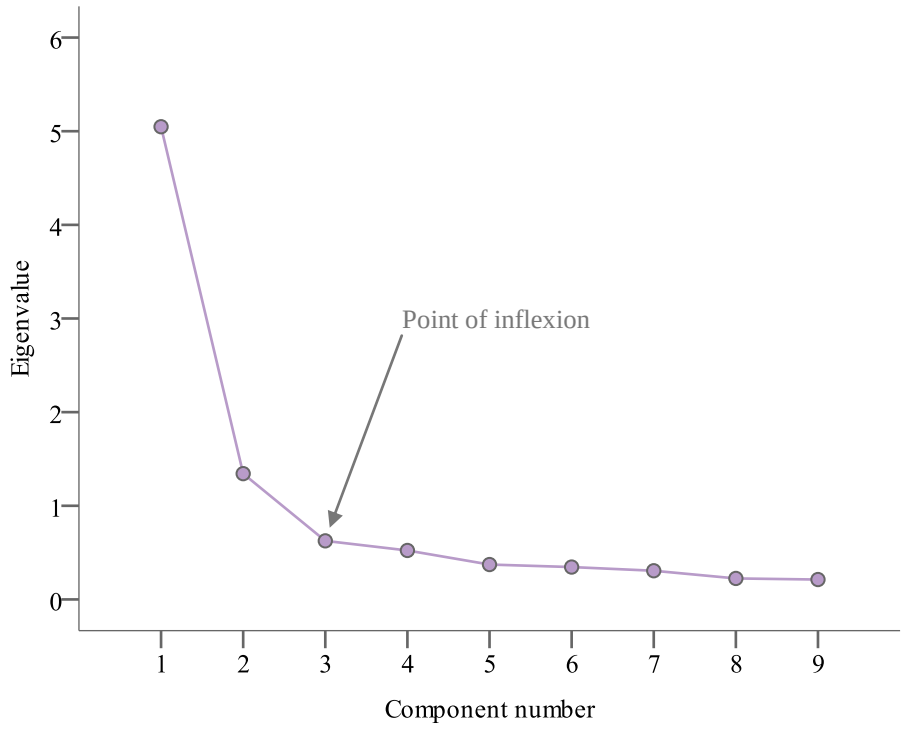


Figure 2: Scree plot of factor analysis of consumer animosity toward Italy



Appendix G: Hypothesis 2 output

H2b: Males exhibit higher levels of consumer animosity than females.

People animosity toward Hungary

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PEOP_HU	Female	195	2,4346	1,16953	,08375
	Male	130	2,9923	1,59029	,13948

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PEOP_HU	Equal variances assumed	13,039	,000	-3,639	323	,000	-,55769	,15324	-,85916	-,25622
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,428	219,795	,001	-,55769	,16269	-,87833	-,23706

People animosity toward Croatia

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PEOP_CR	Female	233	2,5751	1,55986	,10219
	Male	151	2,9978	1,71809	,13982

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PEOP_CR	Equal variances assumed	1,613	,205	-2,492	382	,013	-,42269	,16964	-,75624	-,08913
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,441	298,068	,015	-,42269	,17318	-,76350	-,08187

People animosity toward Italy

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PEOP_IT	Female	233	2,3705	1,38463	,09071
	Male	149	2,9687	1,59783	,13090

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PEOP_IT	Equal variances assumed	5,902	,016	-3,876	380	,000	-,59815	,15434	-,90162	-,29469
	Equal variances not assumed			-3,756	282,687	,000	-,59815	,15926	-,91163	-,28467

Political animosity toward Hungary

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POLI_HU	Female	146	3,7500	1,17334	,09711
	Male	113	4,1327	1,48657	,13985

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
POLI_HU	Equal variances assumed	6,142	,014	-2,316	257	,021	-,38274	,16527	-,70819	-,05729
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,248	208,587	,026	-,38274	,17025	-,71838	-,04711

Political animosity toward Croatia

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POLI_CR	Female	164	4,2088	1,34309	,10488
	Male	120	4,3729	1,51325	,13814

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
POLI_CR	Equal variances assumed	1,216	,271	-,964	282	,336	-,16408	,17027	-,49923	,17108
	Equal variances not assumed			-,946	237,994	,345	-,16408	,17344	-,50575	,17760

Political animosity toward Italy

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POLI_IT	Female	158	4,1930	1,29271	,10284
	Male	120	4,3854	1,43482	,13098

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
POLI_IT	Equal variances assumed	1,563	,212	-1,172	276	,242	-,19238	,16417	-,51557	,13081
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,155	241,410	,249	-,19238	,16653	-,52042	,13566

Personal animosity toward Hungary

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PERS_HU	Female	218	4,1147	2,11657	,14335
	Male	139	4,7050	2,07627	,17611

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PERS_HU	Equal variances assumed	,143	,706	-2,589	355	,010	-,59036	,22805	-1,03885	-,14186
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,600	298,206	,010	-,59036	,22708	-1,03723	-,14348

Personal animosity toward Croatia

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PERS_CR	Female	235	2,3787	1,46365	,09548
	Male	152	2,4825	1,45109	,11770

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PERS_CR	Equal variances assumed	,010	,920	-,683	385	,495	-,10373	,15184	-,40227	,19480
	Equal variances not assumed			-,684	324,457	,494	-,10373	,15156	-,40189	,19442

Personal animosity toward Italy

Group Statistics

	GENDER	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PERS_IT	Female	226	2,6018	1,33212	,08861
	Male	142	2,9718	1,47022	,12338

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
PERS_IT	Equal variances assumed	3,763	,053	-2,492	366	,013	-,37006	,14852	-,66212	-,07800
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,436	277,679	,015	-,37006	,15190	-,66909	-,07104

H2c: Education is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

People animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PEOP_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	15	3,5667	1,61319	,41652	2,6733	4,4600	1,00	6,75
3- or 4-year vocational school	80	2,9750	1,56636	,17512	2,6264	3,3236	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	50	2,5850	1,33402	,18866	2,2059	2,9641	1,00	7,00
Junior college	80	2,6500	1,29054	,14429	2,3628	2,9372	1,00	6,75
University education or more	100	2,3475	1,22778	,12278	2,1039	2,5911	1,00	7,00
Total	325	2,6692	1,39285	,07726	2,5172	2,8212	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,205	4	320	,068

ANOVA

PEOP_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	30,296	4	7,574	4,051	,003
Within Groups	598,271	320	1,870		
Total	628,567	324			

Multiple Comparisons

PEOP_HU

Hochberg

(I) EDUCATION	(J) EDUCATION	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Elementary school or less	3- or 4-year vocational school	,59167	,38472	,734	-,4925	1,6759
	Secondary school	,98167	,40253	,142	-,1527	2,1161
	Junior college	,91667	,38472	,163	-,1675	2,0009
	University education or more	1,21917*	,37860	,014	,1522	2,2861
3- or 4-year vocational school	Elementary school or less	-,59167	,38472	,734	-1,6759	,4925
	Secondary school	,39000	,24650	,700	-,3047	1,0847
	Junior college	,32500	,21619	,759	-,2843	,9343
	University education or more	,62750*	,20510	,024	,0495	1,2055
Secondary school	Elementary school or less	-,98167	,40253	,142	-2,1161	,1527
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,39000	,24650	,700	-1,0847	,3047
	Junior college	-,06500	,24650	1,000	-,7597	,6297
	University education or more	,23750	,23683	,977	-,4299	,9049
Junior college	Elementary school or less	-,91667	,38472	,163	-2,0009	,1675
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,32500	,21619	,759	-,9343	,2843
	Secondary school	,06500	,24650	1,000	-,6297	,7597
	University education or more	,30250	,20510	,779	-,2755	,8805
University education or more	Elementary school or less	-1,21917*	,37860	,014	-2,2861	-,1522
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,62750*	,20510	,024	-1,2055	-,0495
	Secondary school	-,23750	,23683	,977	-,9049	,4299
	Junior college	-,30250	,20510	,779	-,8805	,2755

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

People animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PEOP_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	18	2,9259	1,74354	,41096	2,0589	3,7930	1,00	6,33
3- or 4-year vocational school	97	2,7801	1,69482	,17208	2,4385	3,1217	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	65	2,8513	1,62877	,20202	2,4477	3,2549	1,00	7,00
Junior college	90	3,1333	1,74519	,18396	2,7678	3,4989	1,00	7,00
University education or more	115	2,3478	1,42273	,13267	2,0850	2,6106	1,00	7,00
Total	385	2,7524	1,63950	,08356	2,5881	2,9167	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,121	4	380	,078

ANOVA

PEOP_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	33,135	4	8,284	3,151	,014
Within Groups	999,036	380	2,629		
Total	1032,171	384			

Multiple Comparisons

PEOP_CR

Hochberg

(I) EDUCATION	(J) EDUCATION	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Elementary school or less	3- or 4-year vocational school	,14586	,41613	1,000	-1,0256	1,3173
	Secondary school	,07464	,43186	1,000	-1,1411	1,2904
	Junior college	-,20741	,41865	1,000	-1,3860	,9712
	University education or more	,57810	,41100	,823	-,5789	1,7351
3- or 4-year vocational school	Elementary school or less	-,14586	,41613	1,000	-1,3173	1,0256
	Secondary school	-,07121	,25990	1,000	-,8029	,6605
	Junior college	-,35326	,23731	,769	-1,0213	,3148
	University education or more	,43224	,22353	,423	-,1970	1,0615
Secondary school	Elementary school or less	-,07464	,43186	1,000	-1,2904	1,1411
	3- or 4-year vocational school	,07121	,25990	1,000	-,6605	,8029
	Junior college	-,28205	,26393	,965	-1,0251	,4610
	University education or more	,50346	,25161	,374	-,2049	1,2118
Junior college	Elementary school or less	,20741	,41865	1,000	-,9712	1,3860
	3- or 4-year vocational school	,35326	,23731	,769	-,3148	1,0213
	Secondary school	,28205	,26393	,965	-,4610	1,0251
	University education or more	,78551*	,22819	,006	,1431	1,4279
University education or more	Elementary school or less	-,57810	,41100	,823	-1,7351	,5789
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,43224	,22353	,423	-1,0615	,1970
	Secondary school	-,50346	,25161	,374	-1,2118	,2049
	Junior college	-,78551*	,22819	,006	-1,4279	-,1431

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

People animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PEOP_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	18	3,6481	2,12200	,50016	2,5929	4,7034	1,00	7,00
3- or 4-year vocational school	97	2,8247	1,58705	,16114	2,5049	3,1446	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	64	2,7865	1,61711	,20214	2,3825	3,1904	1,00	7,00
Junior college	89	2,5955	1,26777	,13438	2,3284	2,8626	1,00	6,67
University education or more	115	2,1884	1,27896	,11926	1,9521	2,4247	1,00	6,33
Total	383	2,6127	1,49810	,07655	2,4622	2,7632	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5,813	4	378	,000

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

PEOP_IT

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	4,500	4	94,696	,002
Brown-Forsythe	4,318	4	94,023	,003

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Multiple Comparisons

PEOP_IT

Hochberg

(I) EDUCATION	(J) EDUCATION	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Elementary school or less	3- or 4-year vocational school	,82341	,37592	,255	-,2349	1,8817
	Secondary school	,86169	,39079	,247	-,2385	1,9619
	Junior college	1,05264	,37855	,055	-,0131	2,1184
	University education or more	1,45974*	,37128	,001	,4145	2,5050
3- or 4-year vocational school	Elementary school or less	-,82341	,37592	,255	-1,8817	,2349
	Secondary school	,03828	,23589	1,000	-,6258	,7024
	Junior college	,22924	,21500	,965	-,3761	,8345
	University education or more	,63634*	,20193	,017	,0678	1,2048
Secondary school	Elementary school or less	-,86169	,39079	,247	-1,9619	,2385
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,03828	,23589	1,000	-,7024	,6258
	Junior college	,19095	,24006	,996	-,4849	,8668
	University education or more	,59805	,22843	,088	-,0450	1,2412
Junior college	Elementary school or less	-1,05264	,37855	,055	-2,1184	,0131
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,22924	,21500	,965	-,8345	,3761
	Secondary school	-,19095	,24006	,996	-,8668	,4849
	University education or more	,40710	,20679	,397	-,1751	,9893
University education or more	Elementary school or less	-1,45974*	,37128	,001	-2,5050	-,4145
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,63634*	,20193	,017	-1,2048	-,0678
	Secondary school	-,59805	,22843	,088	-1,2412	,0450
	Junior college	-,40710	,20679	,397	-,9893	,1751

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Political animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

POLI_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	10	3,6000	1,69640	,53645	2,3865	4,8135	1,00	7,00
3- or 4-year vocational school	66	3,7803	1,34487	,16554	3,4497	4,1109	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	40	4,1375	1,43664	,22715	3,6780	4,5970	1,00	7,00
Junior college	66	4,0303	1,24924	,15377	3,7232	4,3374	1,00	7,00
University education or more	76	3,8355	1,29457	,14850	3,5397	4,1313	1,00	7,00
Total	258	3,9089	1,33293	,08298	3,7455	4,0723	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,098	4	253	,358

ANOVA

POLI_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5,518	4	1,379	,774	,543
Within Groups	451,092	253	1,783		
Total	456,609	257			

Political animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

POLI_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	13	4,1154	1,73390	,48090	3,0676	5,1632	1,00	6,00
3- or 4-year vocational school	71	4,1831	1,50295	,17837	3,8274	4,5388	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	45	4,3667	1,48151	,22085	3,9216	4,8118	1,00	7,00
Junior college	73	4,6130	1,21695	,14243	4,3291	4,8969	1,00	7,00
University education or more	83	3,9880	1,40225	,15392	3,6818	4,2941	1,00	7,00
Total	285	4,2623	1,42300	,08429	4,0964	4,4282	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,566	4	280	,184

ANOVA

POLI_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16,442	4	4,111	2,060	,086
Within Groups	558,640	280	1,995		
Total	575,082	284			

Political animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

POLI_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	11	5,2727	1,37138	,41349	4,3514	6,1940	3,50	7,00
3- or 4-year vocational school	71	4,0775	1,44642	,17166	3,7351	4,4198	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	41	4,4756	1,43919	,22476	4,0213	4,9299	1,00	7,00
Junior college	73	4,3425	1,18183	,13832	4,0667	4,6182	1,00	7,00
University education or more	83	4,1476	1,31654	,14451	3,8601	4,4351	1,00	7,00
Total	279	4,2733	1,35159	,08092	4,1140	4,4326	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,722	4	274	,577

ANOVA

POLI_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17,049	4	4,262	2,380	,052
Within Groups	490,799	274	1,791		
Total	507,849	278			

Personal animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PERS_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	16	4,3125	2,35850	,58962	3,0557	5,5693	1,00	7,00
3- or 4-year vocational school	91	4,5714	2,11945	,22218	4,1300	5,0128	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	58	4,1724	2,30284	,30238	3,5669	4,7779	1,00	7,00
Junior college	85	4,6706	1,96025	,21262	4,2478	5,0934	1,00	7,00
University education or more	108	4,0926	2,08034	,20018	3,6958	4,4894	1,00	7,00
Total	358	4,3743	2,11560	,11181	4,1544	4,5942	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,365	4	353	,246

ANOVA

PERS_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	21,994	4	5,498	1,232	,297
Within Groups	1575,850	353	4,464		
Total	1597,844	357			

Personal animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PERS_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	16	2,6250	1,92787	,48197	1,5977	3,6523	1,00	6,67
3- or 4-year vocational school	101	2,5578	1,53269	,15251	2,2552	2,8603	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	66	2,2879	1,47560	,18163	1,9251	2,6506	1,00	7,00
Junior college	90	2,5593	1,45497	,15337	2,2545	2,8640	1,00	7,00
University education or more	115	2,2638	1,32195	,12327	2,0196	2,5080	1,00	7,00
Total	388	2,4278	1,46279	,07426	2,2818	2,5738	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,913	4	383	,456

ANOVA

PERS_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8,270	4	2,067	,966	,426
Within Groups	819,821	383	2,141		
Total	828,090	387			

Personal animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PERS_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary school or less	16	3,9375	2,23182	,55795	2,7482	5,1268	1,00	7,00
3- or 4-year vocational school	92	3,0725	1,44481	,15063	2,7733	3,3717	1,00	7,00
Secondary school	63	2,8413	1,51794	,19124	2,4590	3,2236	1,00	7,00
Junior college	85	2,6235	1,12310	,12182	2,3813	2,8658	1,00	6,33
University education or more	113	2,3776	1,17894	,11090	2,1578	2,5973	1,00	5,00
Total	369	2,7543	1,39762	,07276	2,6112	2,8974	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
7,598	4	364	,000

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

PERS_IT

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	4,934	4	85,399	,001
Brown-Forsythe	4,881	4	63,980	,002

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Multiple Comparisons

PERS_IT
Hochberg

(I) EDUCATION	(J) EDUCATION	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Elementary school or less	3- or 4-year vocational school	,86504	,36726	,174	-,1691	1,8992
	Secondary school	1,09623*	,37957	,040	,0274	2,1651
	Junior college	1,31397*	,36949	,004	,2735	2,3544
	University education or more	1,55992*	,36217	,000	,5401	2,5797
3- or 4-year vocational school	Elementary school or less	-,86504	,36726	,174	-1,8992	,1691
	Secondary school	,23119	,22172	,970	-,3932	,8555
	Junior college	,44893	,20398	,249	-,1255	1,0233
	University education or more	,69488*	,19040	,003	,1587	1,2310
Secondary school	Elementary school or less	-1,09623*	,37957	,040	-2,1651	-,0274
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,23119	,22172	,970	-,8555	,3932
	Junior college	,21774	,22541	,982	-,4170	,8525
	University education or more	,46369	,21319	,263	-,1366	1,0640
Junior college	Elementary school or less	-1,31397*	,36949	,004	-2,3544	-,2735
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,44893	,20398	,249	-1,0233	,1255
	Secondary school	-,21774	,22541	,982	-,8525	,4170
	University education or more	,24595	,19467	,900	-,3022	,7941
University education or more	Elementary school or less	-1,55992*	,36217	,000	-2,5797	-,5401
	3- or 4-year vocational school	-,69488*	,19040	,003	-1,2310	-,1587
	Secondary school	-,46369	,21319	,263	-1,0640	,1366
	Junior college	-,24595	,19467	,900	-,7941	,3022

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

H2d: Income is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

People animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PEOP_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	62	2,7339	1,42638	,18115	2,3716	3,0961	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	47	2,7234	1,26215	,18410	2,3528	3,0940	1,00	6,00
Exactly average	75	3,0167	1,51029	,17439	2,6692	3,3642	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	87	2,5000	1,19349	,12796	2,2456	2,7544	1,00	6,00
Above average	56	2,3438	1,49055	,19918	1,9446	2,7429	1,00	7,00
Total	327	2,6682	1,38877	,07680	2,5171	2,8193	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,886	4	322	,473

ANOVA

PEOP_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17,874	4	4,469	2,355	,054
Within Groups	610,875	322	1,897		
Total	628,749	326			

People animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PEOP_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	83	3,0120	1,73553	,19050	2,6331	3,3910	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	52	2,9103	1,61706	,22425	2,4601	3,3604	1,00	7,00
Exactly average	88	2,5947	1,59617	,17015	2,2565	2,9329	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	101	2,6139	1,44970	,14425	2,3277	2,9001	1,00	7,00
Above average	62	2,7742	1,88540	,23945	2,2954	3,2530	1,00	7,00
Total	386	2,7608	1,64358	,08366	2,5963	2,9253	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3,555	4	381	,007

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

PEOP_CR

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1,020	4	171,046	,398
Brown-Forsythe	,990	4	323,361	,413

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

People animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PEOP_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	81	2,7819	1,62972	,18108	2,4215	3,1423	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	53	2,6541	1,35237	,18576	2,2813	3,0268	1,00	6,67
Exactly average	88	2,6667	1,50266	,16018	2,3483	2,9850	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	100	2,3767	1,22969	,12297	2,1327	2,6207	1,00	6,67
Above average	62	2,6344	1,79527	,22800	2,1785	3,0903	1,00	7,00
Total	384	2,6085	1,49725	,07641	2,4583	2,7587	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4,937	4	379	,001

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

PEOP_IT

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1,108	4	171,084	,355
Brown-Forsythe	,894	4	315,912	,467

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Political animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

POLI_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	48	3,9375	1,14680	,16553	3,6045	4,2705	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	37	3,7432	1,19966	,19722	3,3433	4,1432	1,00	6,00
Exactly average	55	3,9455	1,51435	,20420	3,5361	4,3548	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	72	3,9028	1,14952	,13547	3,6327	4,1729	1,00	6,50
Above average	48	3,9583	1,64004	,23672	3,4821	4,4345	1,00	7,00
Total	260	3,9058	1,33116	,08255	3,7432	4,0683	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,842	4	255	,025

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

POLI_HU

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	,195	4	117,187	,941
Brown-Forsythe	,171	4	217,532	,953

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Political animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

POLI_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	58	4,4483	1,26071	,16554	4,1168	4,7798	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	41	4,3537	1,37156	,21420	3,9207	4,7866	1,00	7,00
Exactly average	64	4,1719	1,57792	,19724	3,7777	4,5660	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	74	4,3007	1,24277	,14447	4,0127	4,5886	1,00	7,00
Above average	49	4,0816	1,72179	,24597	3,5871	4,5762	1,00	7,00
Total	286	4,2719	1,42939	,08452	4,1055	4,4382	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,753	4	281	,028

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

POLI_CR

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	,511	4	129,532	,728
Brown-Forsythe	,541	4	239,050	,706

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Political animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

POLI_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	55	4,4636	1,33370	,17984	4,1031	4,8242	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	40	4,0250	1,09749	,17353	3,6740	4,3760	1,00	6,75
Exactly average	61	4,2131	1,44037	,18442	3,8442	4,5820	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	73	4,1507	1,14847	,13442	3,8827	4,4186	1,00	6,50
Above average	51	4,4657	1,69265	,23702	3,9896	4,9418	1,00	7,00
Total	280	4,2652	1,35648	,08107	4,1056	4,4248	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4,022	4	275	,003

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

POLI_IT

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1,090	4	128,649	,364
Brown-Forsythe	1,033	4	236,142	,391

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Personal animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PERS_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	74	4,7568	1,96414	,22833	4,3017	5,2118	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	51	4,4902	2,20338	,30854	3,8705	5,1099	1,00	7,00
Exactly average	79	3,8734	2,14456	,24128	3,3931	4,3538	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	97	4,5670	1,92520	,19547	4,1790	4,9550	1,00	7,00
Above average	59	4,1525	2,36944	,30848	3,5351	4,7700	1,00	7,00
Total	360	4,3750	2,11269	,11135	4,1560	4,5940	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,771	4	355	,027

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

PERS_HU

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	2,139	4	161,301	,078
Brown-Forsythe	2,076	4	302,606	,084

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Personal animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PERS_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	85	2,6941	1,56872	,17015	2,3558	3,0325	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	50	2,6000	1,55911	,22049	2,1569	3,0431	1,00	7,00
Exactly average	89	2,3820	1,49456	,15842	2,0672	2,6969	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	102	2,2222	1,24575	,12335	1,9775	2,4669	1,00	6,00
Above average	63	2,2963	1,47392	,18570	1,9251	2,6675	1,00	7,00
Total	389	2,4225	1,45987	,07402	2,2769	2,5680	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,963	4	384	,428

ANOVA

PERS_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	13,087	4	3,272	1,544	,189
Within Groups	813,824	384	2,119		
Total	826,911	388			

Personal animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PERS_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Below average	80	2,9875	1,53940	,17211	2,6449	3,3301	1,00	7,00
Slightly below average	49	2,7483	1,42486	,20355	2,3390	3,1576	1,00	7,00
Exactly average	82	2,5935	1,31158	,14484	2,3053	2,8817	1,00	7,00
Slightly above average	97	2,7491	1,20573	,12242	2,5061	2,9921	1,00	5,33
Above average	62	2,6559	1,55760	,19782	2,2604	3,0515	1,00	6,33
Total	370	2,7505	1,39553	,07255	2,6078	2,8931	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,556	4	365	,186

ANOVA

PERS_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7,070	4	1,767	,907	,460
Within Groups	711,555	365	1,949		
Total	718,625	369			

H2e: Work status is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

People animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PEOP_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	3	2,8333	2,02073	1,16667	-2,1864	7,8531	1,00	5,00
Self-employed	17	2,5147	1,34185	,32545	1,8248	3,2046	1,00	5,25
Employed – management position	31	2,4677	1,42703	,25630	1,9443	2,9912	1,00	7,00
Employed – non-management position	176	2,6406	1,39608	,10523	2,4329	2,8483	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	12	2,9375	1,16836	,33728	2,1952	3,6798	1,25	4,50
Retired	31	3,0887	1,42236	,25546	2,5670	3,6104	1,00	7,00
Student	54	2,5324	1,30406	,17746	2,1765	2,8883	1,00	7,00
Total	324	2,6551	1,37890	,07661	2,5044	2,8058	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,485	6	317	,819

ANOVA

PEOP_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9,154	6	1,526	,799	,571
Within Groups	604,990	317	1,908		
Total	614,144	323			

People animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PEOP_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	4	2,2500	1,10135	,55067	,4975	4,0025	1,00	3,67
Self-employed	19	2,9298	1,97071	,45211	1,9800	3,8797	1,00	7,00
Employed – management position	35	2,8667	1,98557	,33562	2,1846	3,5487	1,00	7,00
Employed – non-management position	199	2,6868	1,58296	,11221	2,4655	2,9081	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	16	2,7708	1,75423	,43856	1,8361	3,7056	1,00	6,00
Retired	40	3,1833	1,66401	,26310	2,6512	3,7155	1,00	6,67
Student	69	2,6377	1,55796	,18756	2,2634	3,0119	1,00	6,33
Total	382	2,7574	1,64754	,08430	2,5917	2,9232	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,736	6	375	,111

ANOVA

PEOP_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11,254	6	1,876	,688	,660
Within Groups	1022,933	375	2,728		
Total	1034,187	381			

People animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PEOP_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	4	2,6667	1,67774	,83887	-,0030	5,3363	1,00	5,00
Self-employed	19	2,5439	1,20805	,27715	1,9616	3,1261	1,00	5,33
Employed – management position	34	2,5588	1,64065	,28137	1,9864	3,1313	1,00	6,67
Employed – non-management position	199	2,5561	1,46223	,10365	2,3517	2,7605	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	15	3,0889	2,00581	,51790	1,9781	4,1997	1,00	7,00
Retired	40	3,0000	1,55250	,24547	2,5035	3,4965	1,00	7,00
Student	69	2,4444	1,44016	,17338	2,0985	2,7904	1,00	6,67
Total	380	2,6044	1,49794	,07684	2,4533	2,7555	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,293	6	373	,259

ANOVA

PEOP_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12,166	6	2,028	,902	,493
Within Groups	838,249	373	2,247		
Total	850,415	379			

Political animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

POLI_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	3	4,3333	,57735	,33333	2,8991	5,7676	4,00	5,00
Self-employed	13	4,1154	1,30948	,36319	3,3241	4,9067	2,00	6,00
Employed – management position	27	3,5000	1,54422	,29719	2,8891	4,1109	1,00	7,00
Employed – non-management position	137	4,0146	1,23958	,10590	3,8052	4,2240	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	7	3,7857	1,21988	,46107	2,6575	4,9139	2,00	5,50
Retired	31	3,7903	1,57995	,28377	3,2108	4,3699	1,00	7,00
Student	40	3,8500	1,38767	,21941	3,4062	4,2938	1,00	7,00
Total	258	3,9109	1,33634	,08320	3,7470	4,0747	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,538	6	251	,166

ANOVA

POLI_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7,820	6	1,303	,725	,630
Within Groups	451,130	251	1,797		
Total	458,950	257			

Political animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

POLI_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	3	2,9167	1,75594	1,01379	-1,4453	7,2787	1,25	4,75
Self-employed	13	3,8654	1,65396	,45873	2,8659	4,8649	2,00	7,00
Employed – management position	29	3,9310	1,78147	,33081	3,2534	4,6087	1,00	7,00
Employed – non-management position	150	4,2883	1,40431	,11466	4,0618	4,5149	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	9	4,9167	,91856	,30619	4,2106	5,6227	3,00	6,00
Retired	35	4,4143	1,31862	,22289	3,9613	4,8672	1,00	7,00
Student	44	4,4602	1,24702	,18800	4,0811	4,8394	1,75	6,75
Total	283	4,2800	1,42358	,08462	4,1135	4,4466	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,254	6	276	,279

ANOVA

POLI_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	17,061	6	2,844	1,416	,209
Within Groups	554,433	276	2,009		
Total	571,495	282			

Political animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

POLI_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	3	4,0000	1,14564	,66144	1,1541	6,8459	2,75	5,00
Self-employed	13	4,0769	1,38964	,38542	3,2372	4,9167	2,00	6,50
Employed – management position	30	4,0583	1,55874	,28459	3,4763	4,6404	1,00	7,00
Employed – non-management position	148	4,1875	1,30471	,10725	3,9756	4,3994	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	8	4,5313	,90077	,31847	3,7782	5,2843	2,50	5,25
Retired	35	4,5571	1,47539	,24939	4,0503	5,0640	1,00	7,00
Student	41	4,5183	1,42016	,22179	4,0700	4,9665	1,50	7,00
Total	278	4,2716	1,36468	,08185	4,1105	4,4327	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,861	6	271	,524

ANOVA

POLI_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9,013	6	1,502	,803	,568
Within Groups	506,857	271	1,870		
Total	515,871	277			

Personal animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PERS_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	4	2,5000	1,73205	,86603	-,2561	5,2561	1,00	5,00
Self-employed	16	4,1875	2,22767	,55692	3,0005	5,3745	1,00	7,00
Employed – management position	35	4,2000	2,28550	,38632	3,4149	4,9851	1,00	7,00
Employed – non-management position	192	4,2969	2,04923	,14789	4,0052	4,5886	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	14	5,1429	1,91581	,51202	4,0367	6,2490	1,00	7,00
Retired	35	5,0857	1,73835	,29383	4,4886	5,6829	1,00	7,00
Student	61	4,3607	2,31684	,29664	3,7673	4,9540	1,00	7,00
Total	357	4,3838	2,10565	,11144	4,1646	4,6029	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3,035	6	350	,007

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

PERS_HU

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	1,997	6	31,082	,096
Brown-Forsythe	1,707	6	95,035	,128

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

Personal animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PERS_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	4	2,0833	1,34371	,67185	-,0548	4,2215	1,00	4,00
Self-employed	19	2,7368	1,99251	,45711	1,7765	3,6972	1,00	7,00
Employed – management position	35	2,5238	1,61141	,27238	1,9703	3,0773	1,00	7,00
Employed – non-management position	202	2,3746	1,44628	,10176	2,1739	2,5752	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	17	2,7451	1,46501	,35532	1,9919	3,4983	1,00	6,00
Retired	37	2,8378	1,33708	,21981	2,3920	3,2836	1,00	6,67
Student	71	2,1878	1,32824	,15763	1,8734	2,5022	1,00	6,33
Total	385	2,4294	1,46398	,07461	2,2827	2,5761	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,671	6	378	,127

ANOVA

PERS_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	15,205	6	2,534	1,186	,313
Within Groups	807,795	378	2,137		
Total	823,000	384			

Personal animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PERS_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Work in household or on farm	4	2,8333	1,73205	,86603	,0773	5,5894	1,00	5,00
Self-employed	19	2,6491	1,10818	,25423	2,1150	3,1833	1,00	5,33
Employed – management position	34	2,8529	1,52464	,26147	2,3210	3,3849	1,00	6,33
Employed – non-management position	194	2,6804	1,29604	,09305	2,4969	2,8639	1,00	7,00
Unemployed	13	3,1026	1,91671	,53160	1,9443	4,2608	1,00	7,00
Retired	37	3,1982	1,61295	,26517	2,6604	3,7360	1,00	7,00
Student	65	2,6872	1,42629	,17691	2,3338	3,0406	1,00	7,00
Total	366	2,7650	1,39538	,07294	2,6216	2,9085	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,063	6	359	,057

ANOVA

PERS_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10,743	6	1,791	,918	,482
Within Groups	699,938	359	1,950		
Total	710,681	365			

H2f: Region is a significant predictor of consumer animosity.

People animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PEOP_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	134	2,5149	1,13006	,09762	2,3218	2,7080	1,00	5,75
Northeastern Slovenia	48	2,8646	1,43934	,20775	2,4466	3,2825	1,00	6,75
Tri-border area	67	2,7201	1,61991	,19790	2,3250	3,1153	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	48	2,8438	1,75768	,25370	2,3334	3,3541	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	28	2,5804	,91047	,17206	2,2273	2,9334	1,00	4,00
Total	325	2,6631	1,37757	,07641	2,5127	2,8134	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5,162	4	320	,000

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

PEOP_HU

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	,891	4	108,245	,472
Brown-Forsythe	,859	4	209,249	,489

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

People animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PEOP_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	163	2,5992	1,55121	,12150	2,3593	2,8391	1,00	7,00
Northeastern Slovenia	54	3,0494	1,69400	,23052	2,5870	3,5118	1,00	6,67
Tri-border area	71	2,7371	1,63873	,19448	2,3492	3,1250	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	56	2,5595	1,66255	,22217	2,1143	3,0048	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	40	3,3000	1,81761	,28739	2,7187	3,8813	1,00	6,33
Total	384	2,7552	1,64264	,08383	2,5904	2,9200	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,510	4	379	,199

ANOVA

PEOP_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	22,681	4	5,670	2,126	,077
Within Groups	1010,753	379	2,667		
Total	1033,434	383			

People animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PEOP_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	164	2,5528	1,44400	,11276	2,3302	2,7755	1,00	7,00
Northeastern Slovenia	54	2,9198	1,36892	,18629	2,5461	3,2934	1,00	6,33
Tri-border area	69	2,6425	1,56694	,18864	2,2661	3,0189	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	55	2,5455	1,63597	,22059	2,1032	2,9877	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	40	2,3667	1,54662	,24454	1,8720	2,8613	1,00	6,67
Total	382	2,6003	1,49568	,07653	2,4499	2,7508	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PEOP_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,486	4	377	,746

ANOVA

PEOP_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8,352	4	2,088	,933	,445
Within Groups	843,968	377	2,239		
Total	852,320	381			

Political animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

POLI_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	108	3,9259	1,25455	,12072	3,6866	4,1652	1,00	6,50
Northeastern Slovenia	36	3,9583	1,46080	,24347	3,4641	4,4526	1,00	7,00
Tri-border area	47	3,8404	1,39528	,20352	3,4308	4,2501	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	46	3,8478	1,53068	,22569	3,3933	4,3024	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	22	4,0455	,92465	,19714	3,6355	4,4554	2,00	6,00
Total	259	3,9112	1,33085	,08269	3,7484	4,0740	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1,705	4	254	,149

ANOVA

POLI_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,920	4	,230	,128	,972
Within Groups	456,037	254	1,795		
Total	456,958	258			

Political animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

POLI_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	118	4,1843	1,39995	,12888	3,9291	4,4396	1,00	7,00
Northeastern Slovenia	39	4,3141	1,26922	,20324	3,9027	4,7255	1,75	7,00
Tri-border area	45	4,3278	1,51397	,22569	3,8729	4,7826	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	53	4,1085	1,50041	,20610	3,6949	4,5221	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	30	4,9500	1,30053	,23744	4,4644	5,4356	2,00	7,00
Total	285	4,2912	1,42130	,08419	4,1255	4,4569	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,359	4	280	,838

ANOVA

POLI_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16,218	4	4,055	2,036	,089
Within Groups	557,485	280	1,991		
Total	573,703	284			

Political animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

POLI_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	117	4,3846	1,36794	,12647	4,1341	4,6351	1,00	7,00
Northeastern Slovenia	40	4,3938	1,42200	,22484	3,9390	4,8485	1,00	7,00
Tri-border area	44	4,0227	1,20176	,18117	3,6574	4,3881	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	50	4,0400	1,38262	,19553	3,6471	4,4329	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	28	4,4464	1,32525	,25045	3,9326	4,9603	2,00	6,75
Total	279	4,2733	1,35109	,08089	4,1141	4,4325	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

POLI_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,606	4	274	,659

ANOVA

POLI_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	8,353	4	2,088	1,146	,335
Within Groups	499,120	274	1,822		
Total	507,474	278			

Personal animosity toward Hungary

Descriptives

PERS_HU

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	153	4,1830	2,06614	,16704	3,8530	4,5130	1,00	7,00
Northeastern Slovenia	48	4,3750	2,09990	,30309	3,7653	4,9847	1,00	7,00
Tri-border area	71	4,4789	2,23517	,26527	3,9498	5,0079	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	53	4,4151	2,17887	,29929	3,8145	5,0157	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	32	4,8125	2,07034	,36599	4,0661	5,5589	1,00	7,00
Total	357	4,3585	2,11874	,11214	4,1380	4,5791	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_HU

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,843	4	352	,498

ANOVA

PERS_HU

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12,519	4	3,130	,695	,596
Within Groups	1585,587	352	4,505		
Total	1598,106	356			

Personal animosity toward Croatia

Descriptives

PERS_CR

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	164	2,3272	1,42787	,11150	2,1071	2,5474	1,00	7,00
Northeastern Slovenia	54	2,4383	1,23849	,16854	2,1002	2,7763	1,00	6,00
Tri-border area	72	2,4306	1,56791	,18478	2,0621	2,7990	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	54	2,3025	1,35404	,18426	1,9329	2,6720	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	42	3,0079	1,73828	,26822	2,4663	3,5496	1,00	7,00
Total	386	2,4326	1,46461	,07455	2,2861	2,5792	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_CR

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2,253	4	381	,063

ANOVA

PERS_CR

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	16,640	4	4,160	1,959	,100
Within Groups	809,220	381	2,124		
Total	825,860	385			

Personal animosity toward Italy

Descriptives

PERS_IT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Central Slovenia	159	2,7002	1,34916	,10700	2,4889	2,9115	1,00	7,00
Northeastern Slovenia	50	2,9533	1,39810	,19772	2,5560	3,3507	1,00	6,33
Tri-border area	67	2,9204	1,41313	,17264	2,5757	3,2651	1,00	7,00
Southeastern Slovenia	51	2,8170	1,46866	,20565	2,4039	3,2301	1,00	7,00
Western Slovenia	41	2,3333	1,43566	,22421	1,8802	2,7865	1,00	7,00
Total	368	2,7500	1,39796	,07287	2,6067	2,8933	1,00	7,00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

PERS_IT

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
,274	4	363	,895

ANOVA

PERS_IT

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11,754	4	2,938	1,512	,198
Within Groups	705,468	363	1,943		
Total	717,222	367			

Appendix H: Hypotheses 4 and 5 output

Outcome variable: Quality judgment of Hungarian food products

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PJ_FOOD_HU	3,9212	1,15077	264
PEOP_HU	2,6662	1,38713	328
POLI_HU	3,9100	1,33032	261
PERS_HU	4,3657	2,11721	361
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402

Correlations

		PJ_FOOD_HU	PEOP_HU	POLI_HU	PERS_HU	CET
Pearson Correlation	PJ_FOOD_HU	1,000	-,397	-,322	-,217	-,034
	PEOP_HU	-,397	1,000	,523	,448	,191
	POLI_HU	-,322	,523	1,000	,388	,168
	PERS_HU	-,217	,448	,388	1,000	,036
	CET	-,034	,191	,168	,036	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PJ_FOOD_HU	.	,000	,000	,000	,294
	PEOP_HU	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_HU	,000	,000	.	,000	,003
	PERS_HU	,000	,000	,000	.	,248
	CET	,294	,000	,003	,248	.
N	PJ_FOOD_HU	264	245	214	254	262
	PEOP_HU	245	328	252	318	326
	POLI_HU	214	252	261	256	259
	PERS_HU	254	318	256	361	359
	CET	262	326	259	359	402

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,423[a]	,179	,163	1,05287	,179	11,363	4	209	,000	1,893

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_HU

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	50,386	4	12,597	11,363	,000[a]
	Residual	231,682	209	1,109		
	Total	282,068	213			

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_HU

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	4,982	,321		15,511	,000	4,349	5,616			
	PEOP_HU	-,263	,065	-,317	-4,059	,000	-,391	-,135	-,397	-,270	-,254
	POLI_HU	-,138	,065	-,159	-2,115	,036	-,267	-,009	-,322	-,145	-,133
	PERS_HU	-,008	,039	-,015	-,204	,838	-,085	,069	-,217	-,014	-,013
	CET	,046	,055	,054	,846	,399	-,061	,154	-,034	,058	,053

a. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_HU

Outcome variable: Quality judgment of Croatian food products

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PJ_FOOD_CR	4,4700	1,13941	343
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402
PEOP_CR	2,7534	1,64270	388
POLI_CR	4,2795	1,42739	288
PERS_CR	2,4254	1,45983	391

Correlations

		PJ_FOOD_CR	CET	PEOP_CR	POLI_CR	PERS_CR
Pearson Correlation	PJ_FOOD_CR	1,000	,012	-,419	-,305	-,417
	CET	,012	1,000	,086	,156	,094
	PEOP_CR	-,419	,086	1,000	,697	,745
	POLI_CR	-,305	,156	,697	1,000	,599
	PERS_CR	-,417	,094	,745	,599	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PJ_FOOD_CR	.	,412	,000	,000	,000
	CET	,412	.	,046	,004	,033
	PEOP_CR	,000	,046	.	,000	,000
	POLI_CR	,000	,004	,000	.	,000
	PERS_CR	,000	,033	,000	,000	.
N	PJ_FOOD_CR	343	341	335	265	337
	CET	341	402	386	286	389
	PEOP_CR	335	386	388	285	382
	POLI_CR	265	286	285	288	286
	PERS_CR	337	389	382	286	391

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,451[a]	,203	,191	1,02492	,203	16,568	4	260	,000	1,794

a. Predictors: (Constant), PERS_CR, CET, POLI_CR, PEOP_CR

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_CR

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	69,616	4	17,404	16,568	,000[a]
	Residual	273,122	260	1,050		
	Total	342,737	264			

a. Predictors: (Constant), PERS_CR, CET, POLI_CR, PEOP_CR

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_CR

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	5,171	,277		18,679	,000	4,626	5,717			
	CET	,047	,047	,055	,987	,324	-,046	,139	,012	,061	,055
	PEOP_CR	-,171	,065	-,246	-2,615	,009	-,299	-,042	-,419	-,160	-,145
	POLI_CR	,001	,063	,002	,019	,985	-,123	,125	-,305	,001	,001
	PERS_CR	-,187	,066	-,240	-2,848	,005	-,317	-,058	-,417	-,174	-,158

a. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_CR

Outcome variable: Quality judgment of Italian food products

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PJ_FOOD_IT	4,4909	1,08514	339
PEOP_IT	2,6045	1,49560	386
POLI_IT	4,2739	1,35579	282
PERS_IT	2,7464	1,39478	372
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402

Correlations

		PJ_FOOD_IT	PEOP_IT	POLI_IT	PERS_IT	CET
Pearson Correlation	PJ_FOOD_IT	1,000	-,458	-,238	-,452	-,171
	PEOP_IT	-,458	1,000	,565	,714	,196
	POLI_IT	-,238	,565	1,000	,513	,199
	PERS_IT	-,452	,714	,513	1,000	,181
	CET	-,171	,196	,199	,181	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PJ_FOOD_IT	.	,000	,000	,000	,001
	PEOP_IT	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_IT	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
	PERS_IT	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
	CET	,001	,000	,000	,000	.
N	PJ_FOOD_IT	339	329	262	324	337
	PEOP_IT	329	386	280	365	384
	POLI_IT	262	280	282	273	280
	PERS_IT	324	365	273	372	370
	CET	337	384	280	370	402

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,501[a]	,251	,240	,94614	,251	21,580	4	257	,000	1,798

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_IT, POLI_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_IT

ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

1	Regression	77,273	4	19,318	21,580	,000[a]
	Residual	230,060	257	,895		
	Total	307,333	261			

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_IT, POLI_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_IT

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	5,642	,258		21,844	,000	5,133	6,151			
	PEOP_IT	-,216	,059	-,297	-3,634	,000	-,333	-,099	-,458	-,221	-,196
	POLI_IT	,067	,054	,084	1,251	,212	-,039	,173	-,238	,078	,067
	PERS_IT	-,209	,061	-,268	-3,411	,001	-,329	-,088	-,452	-,208	-,184
	CET	-,065	,044	-,081	-1,463	,145	-,152	,022	-,171	-,091	-,079

a. Dependent Variable: PJ_FOOD_IT

Outcome variable: Quality judgment of Hungarian tourism services

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PJ_TOUR_HU	4,2795	1,14195	234
PEOP_HU	2,6662	1,38713	328
POLI_HU	3,9100	1,33032	261
PERS_HU	4,3657	2,11721	361
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402

Correlations

		PJ_TOUR_HU	PEOP_HU	POLI_HU	PERS_HU	CET
Pearson Correlation	PJ_TOUR_HU	1,000	-,478	-,312	-,220	-,025
	PEOP_HU	-,478	1,000	,523	,448	,191
	POLI_HU	-,312	,523	1,000	,388	,168
	PERS_HU	-,220	,448	,388	1,000	,036
	CET	-,025	,191	,168	,036	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PJ_TOUR_HU	.	,000	,000	,000	,355
	PEOP_HU	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_HU	,000	,000	.	,000	,003
	PERS_HU	,000	,000	,000	.	,248
	CET	,355	,000	,003	,248	.
N	PJ_TOUR_HU	234	222	189	228	232
	PEOP_HU	222	328	252	318	326
	POLI_HU	189	252	261	256	259
	PERS_HU	228	318	256	361	359
	CET	232	326	259	359	402

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,489[a]	,239	,223	1,00668	,239	14,479	4	184	,000	1,576

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_HU

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	58,692	4	14,673	14,479	,000[a]
	Residual	186,468	184	1,013		
	Total	245,160	188			

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_HU

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	5,249	,327		16,056	,000	4,604	5,894			
	PEOP_HU	-,370	,066	-,450	-5,610	,000	-,501	-,240	-,478	-,382	-,361
	POLI_HU	-,082	,066	-,096	-1,237	,218	-,213	,049	-,312	-,091	-,080
	PERS_HU	,009	,040	,016	,219	,827	-,070	,087	-,220	,016	,014
	CET	,065	,056	,077	1,165	,246	-,045	,174	-,025	,086	,075

a. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_HU

Outcome variable: Quality judgment of Croatian tourism services

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PJ_TOUR_CR	4,4932	1,29477	367
PEOP_CR	2,7534	1,64270	388
POLI_CR	4,2795	1,42739	288
PERS_CR	2,4254	1,45983	391
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402

Correlations

		PJ_TOUR_CR	PEOP_CR	POLI_CR	PERS_CR	CET
Pearson Correlation	PJ_TOUR_CR	1,000	-,440	-,345	-,338	,093
	PEOP_CR	-,440	1,000	,697	,745	,086
	POLI_CR	-,345	,697	1,000	,599	,156
	PERS_CR	-,338	,745	,599	1,000	,094
	CET	,093	,086	,156	,094	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PJ_TOUR_CR	.	,000	,000	,000	,038
	PEOP_CR	,000	.	,000	,000	,046
	POLI_CR	,000	,000	.	,000	,004
	PERS_CR	,000	,000	,000	.	,033
	CET	,038	,046	,004	,033	.
N	PJ_TOUR_CR	367	356	274	359	365
	PEOP_CR	356	388	285	382	386
	POLI_CR	274	285	288	286	286
	PERS_CR	359	382	286	391	389
	CET	365	386	286	389	402

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R	Adjusted R	Std. Error	Change Statistics	Durbin-

		Square	Square	of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Watson
1	,465[a]	,216	,205	1,15462	,216	18,575	4	269	,000	2,086

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PEOP_CR, POLI_CR, PERS_CR

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_CR

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	99,052	4	24,763	18,575	,000[a]
	Residual	358,614	269	1,333		
	Total	457,665	273			

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PEOP_CR, POLI_CR, PERS_CR

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_CR

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	5,087	,307		16,584	,000	4,483	5,690			
	PEOP_CR	-,293	,072	-,372	-4,061	,000	-,436	-,151	-,440	-,240	-,219
	POLI_CR	-,090	,070	-,099	-1,287	,199	-,227	,048	-,345	-,078	-,069
	PERS_CR	-,013	,073	-,015	-,182	,856	-,157	,130	-,338	-,011	-,010
	CET	,136	,052	,142	2,595	,010	,033	,239	,093	,156	,140

a. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_CR

Outcome variable: Quality judgment of Italian tourism services

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
PJ_TOUR_IT	4,7206	1,10016	320
PEOP_IT	2,6045	1,49560	386
POLI_IT	4,2739	1,35579	282
PERS_IT	2,7464	1,39478	372
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402

Correlations

		PJ_TOUR_IT	PEOP_IT	POLI_IT	PERS_IT	CET
Pearson Correlation	PJ_TOUR_IT	1,000	-,511	-,240	-,446	-,123
	PEOP_IT	-,511	1,000	,565	,714	,196
	POLI_IT	-,240	,565	1,000	,513	,199
	PERS_IT	-,446	,714	,513	1,000	,181
	CET	-,123	,196	,199	,181	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	PJ_TOUR_IT	.	,000	,000	,000	,014
	PEOP_IT	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_IT	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
	PERS_IT	,000	,000	,000	.	,000
	CET	,014	,000	,000	,000	.
N	PJ_TOUR_IT	320	311	248	310	318
	PEOP_IT	311	386	280	365	384
	POLI_IT	248	280	282	273	280
	PERS_IT	310	365	273	372	370
	CET	318	384	280	370	402

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,531[a]	,282	,270	,93989	,282	23,855	4	243	,000	1,918

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_IT, POLI_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_IT

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	84,294	4	21,074	23,855	,000[a]
	Residual	214,664	243	,883		
	Total	298,958	247			

a. Predictors: (Constant), CET, PERS_IT, POLI_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_IT

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	5,686	,264		21,560	,000	5,167	6,206			
	PEOP_IT	-,318	,061	-,432	-5,238	,000	-,437	-,198	-,511	-,319	-,285
	POLI_IT	,084	,055	,104	1,543	,124	-,023	,192	-,240	,099	,084
	PERS_IT	-,147	,062	-,186	-2,353	,019	-,270	-,024	-,446	-,149	-,128
	CET	-,021	,045	-,025	-,453	,651	-,110	,069	-,123	-,029	-,025

a. Dependent Variable: PJ_TOUR_IT

Appendix I: Hypotheses 6, 7 and 8 output

Outcome variable: Willingness to buy Hungarian food products

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WTB_FOOD_HU	4,2127	1,42360	302
PEOP_HU	2,6662	1,38713	328
POLI_HU	3,9100	1,33032	261
PERS_HU	4,3657	2,11721	361
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402
PJ_FOOD_HU	3,9212	1,15077	264

Correlations

		WTB_FOOD_HU	PEOP_HU	POLI_HU	PERS_HU	CET	PJ_FOOD_HU
Pearson Correlation	WTB_FOOD_HU	1,000	-,424	-,258	-,201	-,266	,625
	PEOP_HU	-,424	1,000	,523	,448	,191	-,397
	POLI_HU	-,258	,523	1,000	,388	,168	-,322
	PERS_HU	-,201	,448	,388	1,000	,036	-,217
	CET	-,266	,191	,168	,036	1,000	-,034
	PJ_FOOD_HU	,625	-,397	-,322	-,217	-,034	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	WTB_FOOD_HU	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	PEOP_HU	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_HU	,000	,000	.	,000	,003	,000
	PERS_HU	,000	,000	,000	.	,248	,000
	CET	,000	,000	,003	,248	.	,294
	PJ_FOOD_HU	,000	,000	,000	,000	,294	.
N	WTB_FOOD_HU	302	269	226	288	300	237
	PEOP_HU	269	328	252	318	326	245
	POLI_HU	226	252	261	256	259	214
	PERS_HU	288	318	256	361	359	254
	CET	300	326	259	359	402	262
	PJ_FOOD_HU	237	245	214	254	262	264

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,689[a]	,474	,462	1,04447	,474	37,540	5	208	,000	1,814

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_FOOD_HU, CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_HU

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	204,765	5	40,953	37,540	,000[a]
	Residual	226,909	208	1,091		
	Total	431,674	213			

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_FOOD_HU, CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_HU

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B	Correlations

		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	2,864	,467		6,128	,000	1,943	3,786			
	PEOP_HU	-,190	,067	-,185	-2,848	,005	-,322	-,059	-,424	-,194	-,143
	POLI_HU	,065	,065	,061	,999	,319	-,064	,194	-,258	,069	,050
	PERS_HU	-,008	,039	-,012	-,207	,836	-,084	,068	-,201	-,014	-,010
	CET	-,233	,054	-,222	-4,294	,000	-,340	-,126	-,266	-,285	-,216
	PJ_FOOD_HU	,694	,069	,561	10,108	,000	,558	,829	,625	,574	,508

a. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_HU

Outcome variable: Willingness to buy Croatian food products

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WTB_FOOD_CR	4,8607	1,25617	377
PEOP_CR	2,7534	1,64270	388
POLI_CR	4,2795	1,42739	288
PERS_CR	2,4254	1,45983	391
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402
PJ_FOOD_CR	4,4700	1,13941	343

Correlations

		WTB_FOOD_CR	PEOP_CR	POLI_CR	PERS_CR	CET	PJ_FOOD_CR
Pearson Correlation	WTB_FOOD_CR	1,000	-,486	-,268	-,445	-,159	,630
	PEOP_CR	-,486	1,000	,697	,745	,086	-,419
	POLI_CR	-,268	,697	1,000	,599	,156	-,305
	PERS_CR	-,445	,745	,599	1,000	,094	-,417
	CET	-,159	,086	,156	,094	1,000	,012
	PJ_FOOD_CR	,630	-,419	-,305	-,417	,012	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	WTB_FOOD_CR	.	,000	,000	,000	,001	,000
	PEOP_CR	,000	.	,000	,000	,046	,000
	POLI_CR	,000	,000	.	,000	,004	,000
	PERS_CR	,000	,000	,000	.	,033	,000
	CET	,001	,046	,004	,033	.	,412
	PJ_FOOD_CR	,000	,000	,000	,000	,412	.
N	WTB_FOOD_CR	377	366	277	369	375	333
	PEOP_CR	366	388	285	382	386	335
	POLI_CR	277	285	288	286	286	265
	PERS_CR	369	382	286	391	389	337
	CET	375	386	286	389	402	341
	PJ_FOOD_CR	333	335	265	337	341	343

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,705[a]	,497	,488	,89919	,497	51,246	5	259	,000	1,998

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_FOOD_CR, CET, POLI_CR, PERS_CR, PEOP_CR

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_CR

ANOVA[b]

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

1	Regression	207,171	5	41,434	51,246	,000[a]
	Residual	209,412	259	,809		
	Total	416,582	264			

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_FOOD_CR, CET, POLI_CR, PERS_CR, PEOP_CR

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_CR

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	3,128	,372		8,415	,000	2,396	3,860			
	PEOP_CR	-,249	,058	-,326	-4,303	,000	-,364	-,135	-,486	-,258	-,190
	POLI_CR	,172	,055	,195	3,101	,002	,063	,280	-,268	,189	,137
	PERS_CR	-,075	,059	-,087	-1,284	,200	-,190	,040	-,445	-,080	-,057
	CET	-,148	,041	-,159	-3,561	,000	-,229	-,066	-,159	-,216	-,157
	PJ_FOOD_CR	,572	,054	,519	10,507	,000	,465	,679	,630	,547	,463

a. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_CR

Outcome variable: Willingness to buy Italian food products

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WTB_FOOD_IT	4,7969	1,34611	368
PEOP_IT	2,6045	1,49560	386
POLI_IT	4,2739	1,35579	282
PERS_IT	2,7464	1,39478	372
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402
PJ_FOOD_IT	4,4909	1,08514	339

Correlations

		WTB_FOOD_IT	PEOP_IT	POLI_IT	PERS_IT	CET	PJ_FOOD_IT
Pearson Correlation	WTB_FOOD_IT	1,000	-,436	-,193	-,344	-,352	,622
	PEOP_IT	-,436	1,000	,565	,714	,196	-,458
	POLI_IT	-,193	,565	1,000	,513	,199	-,238
	PERS_IT	-,344	,714	,513	1,000	,181	-,452
	CET	-,352	,196	,199	,181	1,000	-,171
	PJ_FOOD_IT	,622	-,458	-,238	-,452	-,171	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	WTB_FOOD_IT	.	,000	,001	,000	,000	,000
	PEOP_IT	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_IT	,001	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
	PERS_IT	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
	CET	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,001
	PJ_FOOD_IT	,000	,000	,000	,000	,001	.
N	WTB_FOOD_IT	368	356	267	346	366	323
	PEOP_IT	356	386	280	365	384	329
	POLI_IT	267	280	282	273	280	262
	PERS_IT	346	365	273	372	370	324
	CET	366	384	280	370	402	337
	PJ_FOOD_IT	323	329	262	324	337	339

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,690[a]	,476	,466	,98381	,476	46,524	5	256	,000	1,976

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_FOOD_IT, CET, POLI_IT, PERS_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_IT

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	225,152	5	45,030	46,524	,000[a]
	Residual	247,780	256	,968		
	Total	472,932	261			

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_FOOD_IT, CET, POLI_IT, PERS_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_IT

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	3,085	,454		6,797	,000	2,192	3,979			
	PEOP_IT	-,221	,063	-,246	-3,492	,001	-,346	-,096	-,436	-,213	-,158
	POLI_IT	,082	,056	,083	1,466	,144	-,028	,192	-,193	,091	,066
	PERS_IT	,065	,065	,068	1,005	,316	-,063	,193	-,344	,063	,045
	CET	-,243	,046	-,244	-5,233	,000	-,334	-,151	-,352	-,311	-,237
	PJ_FOOD_IT	,643	,065	,518	9,910	,000	,515	,771	,622	,527	,448

a. Dependent Variable: WTB_FOOD_IT

Outcome variable: Willingness to buy Hungarian tourism services

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WTB_TOUR_HU	3,7037	1,41784	308
PEOP_HU	2,6662	1,38713	328
POLI_HU	3,9100	1,33032	261
PERS_HU	4,3657	2,11721	361
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402
PJ_TOUR_HU	4,2795	1,14195	234

Correlations

	WTB_TOUR_HU	PEOP_HU	POLI_HU	PERS_HU	CET	PJ_TOUR_HU

Pearson Correlation	WTB_TOUR_HU	1,000	-,351	-,191	-,136	-,039	,493
	PEOP_HU	-,351	1,000	,523	,448	,191	-,478
	POLI_HU	-,191	,523	1,000	,388	,168	-,312
	PERS_HU	-,136	,448	,388	1,000	,036	-,220
	CET	-,039	,191	,168	,036	1,000	-,025
	PJ_TOUR_HU	,493	-,478	-,312	-,220	-,025	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	WTB_TOUR_HU	.	,000	,002	,010	,246	,000
	PEOP_HU	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_HU	,002	,000	.	,000	,003	,000
	PERS_HU	,010	,000	,000	.	,248	,000
	CET	,246	,000	,003	,248	.	,355
	PJ_TOUR_HU	,000	,000	,000	,000	,355	.
N	WTB_TOUR_HU	308	275	223	289	306	217
	PEOP_HU	275	328	252	318	326	222
	POLI_HU	223	252	261	256	259	189
	PERS_HU	289	318	256	361	359	228
	CET	306	326	259	359	402	232
	PJ_TOUR_HU	217	222	189	228	232	234

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,511[a]	,261	,241	1,23534	,261	12,930	5	183	,000	1,831

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_TOUR_HU, CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_HU

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	98,661	5	19,732	12,930	,000[a]
	Residual	279,270	183	1,526		
	Total	377,931	188			

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_TOUR_HU, CET, PERS_HU, POLI_HU, PEOP_HU

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_HU

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	1,765	,622		2,840	,005	,539	2,992			
	PEOP_HU	-,174	,088	-,171	-1,989	,048	-,347	-,001	-,351	-,145	-,126
	POLI_HU	,021	,082	,020	,257	,797	-,140	,182	-,191	,019	,016
	PERS_HU	,017	,049	,026	,358	,721	-,079	,114	-,136	,026	,023
	CET	-,001	,068	-,001	-,011	,991	-,136	,134	-,039	-,001	-,001
	PJ_TOUR_HU	,525	,090	,423	5,807	,000	,347	,704	,493	,394	,369

a. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_HU

Outcome variable: Willingness to buy Croatian tourism services

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N

WTB_TOUR_CR	5,3182	1,59008	370
PEOP_CR	2,7534	1,64270	388
POLI_CR	4,2795	1,42739	288
PERS_CR	2,4254	1,45983	391
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402
PJ_TOUR_CR	4,4932	1,29477	367

Correlations

		WTB_TOUR_CR	PEOP_CR	POLI_CR	PERS_CR	CET	PJ_TOUR_CR
Pearson Correlation	WTB_TOUR_CR	1,000	-,540	-,348	-,509	-,009	,568
	PEOP_CR	-,540	1,000	,697	,745	,086	-,440
	POLI_CR	-,348	,697	1,000	,599	,156	-,345
	PERS_CR	-,509	,745	,599	1,000	,094	-,338
	CET	-,009	,086	,156	,094	1,000	,093
	PJ_TOUR_CR	,568	-,440	-,345	-,338	,093	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	WTB_TOUR_CR	.	,000	,000	,000	,435	,000
	PEOP_CR	,000	.	,000	,000	,046	,000
	POLI_CR	,000	,000	.	,000	,004	,000
	PERS_CR	,000	,000	,000	.	,033	,000
	CET	,435	,046	,004	,033	.	,038
	PJ_TOUR_CR	,000	,000	,000	,000	,038	.
N	WTB_TOUR_CR	370	359	269	362	368	343
	PEOP_CR	359	388	285	382	386	356
	POLI_CR	269	285	288	286	286	274
	PERS_CR	362	382	286	391	389	359
	CET	368	386	286	389	402	365
	PJ_TOUR_CR	343	356	274	359	365	367

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,677[a]	,459	,448	1,18094	,459	44,573	5	263	,000	1,700

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_TOUR_CR, CET, PERS_CR, POLI_CR, PEOP_CR

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_CR

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	310,814	5	62,163	44,573	,000[a]
	Residual	366,786	263	1,395		
	Total	677,600	268			

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_TOUR_CR, CET, PERS_CR, POLI_CR, PEOP_CR

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_CR

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B	Correlations

		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	3,880	,450		8,617	,000	2,993	4,766			
	PEOP_CR	-,249	,077	-,258	-3,244	,001	-,401	-,098	-,540	-,196	-,147
	POLI_CR	,144	,072	,129	1,989	,048	,001	,286	-,348	,122	,090
	PERS_CR	-,274	,075	-,252	-3,652	,000	-,422	-,126	-,509	-,220	-,166
	CET	-,025	,055	-,022	-,467	,641	-,133	,082	-,009	-,029	-,021
	PJ_TOUR_CR	,511	,063	,416	8,111	,000	,387	,634	,568	,447	,368

a. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_CR

Outcome variable: Willingness to buy Italian tourism services

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WTB_TOUR_IT	4,4195	1,48066	348
PEOP_IT	2,6045	1,49560	386
POLI_IT	4,2739	1,35579	282
PERS_IT	2,7464	1,39478	372
CET	4,6549	1,35459	402
PJ_TOUR_IT	4,7206	1,10016	320

Correlations

		WTB_TOUR_IT	PEOP_IT	POLI_IT	PERS_IT	CET	PJ_TOUR_IT
Pearson Correlation	WTB_TOUR_IT	1,000	-,514	-,190	-,422	-,157	,563
	PEOP_IT	-,514	1,000	,565	,714	,196	-,511
	POLI_IT	-,190	,565	1,000	,513	,199	-,240
	PERS_IT	-,422	,714	,513	1,000	,181	-,446
	CET	-,157	,196	,199	,181	1,000	-,123
	PJ_TOUR_IT	,563	-,511	-,240	-,446	-,123	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	WTB_TOUR_IT	.	,000	,001	,000	,002	,000
	PEOP_IT	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,000
	POLI_IT	,001	,000	.	,000	,000	,000
	PERS_IT	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000
	CET	,002	,000	,000	,000	.	,014
	PJ_TOUR_IT	,000	,000	,000	,000	,014	.
N	WTB_TOUR_IT	348	337	259	332	346	298
	PEOP_IT	337	386	280	365	384	311
	POLI_IT	259	280	282	273	280	248
	PERS_IT	332	365	273	372	370	310
	CET	346	384	280	370	402	318
	PJ_TOUR_IT	298	311	248	310	318	320

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,634[a]	,402	,389	1,15693	,402	32,514	5	242	,000	2,105

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_TOUR_IT, CET, POLI_IT, PERS_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_IT

ANOVA[b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	217,596	5	43,519	32,514	,000[a]

	Residual	323,916	242	1,338		
	Total	541,512	247			

a. Predictors: (Constant), PJ_TOUR_IT, CET, POLI_IT, PERS_IT, PEOP_IT

b. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_IT

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95,0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	2,670	,554		4,819	,000	1,579	3,762			
	PEOP_IT	-,326	,079	-,329	-4,135	,000	-,481	-,170	-,514	-,257	-,206
	POLI_IT	,151	,068	,138	2,235	,026	,018	,285	-,190	,142	,111
	PERS_IT	-,078	,078	-,074	-1,007	,315	-,231	,075	-,422	-,065	-,050
	CET	-,065	,056	-,059	-1,162	,247	-,175	,045	-,157	-,074	-,058
	PJ_TOUR_IT	,523	,079	,388	6,620	,000	,367	,678	,563	,392	,329

a. Dependent Variable: WTB_TOUR_IT